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THE LATE KING ALEXANDER OF SERVIA.

(Assassinated at Belgrade, June 11, 1903.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

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No. 1.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The Bloody End of a Dynasty. The tragic change of dynasty in Serbia, while intelligently discussed in the American press in its various phases, attracted popular interest in this country, last month, chiefly by reason of its grim and ghastly circumstances. The ethics of regicide is a subject that has been discussed for several thousand years; and the affair at Belgrade has added nothing new to the accumulation of arguments and reflections upon that time-worn subject. The facts of the situation in Serbia may be generalized in a few sentences. That little country has for some time been one in which modern liberalism has been widely prevalent, and in which extreme radicalism and republicanism have gained strong foothold. King Alexander had grown arbitrary and arrogant; had recently set aside the liberal features of the constitution by an act of high-handed usurpation, and had shown himself in every way as unfit to exercise royal power as he was unworthy to wear the royal dignity. Of all reigning monarchs in the opening years of the twentieth century, it might fairly be said that Alexander of Serbia was the most conspicuously ill-qualified. The fact that he was without friends at any European court was due only in small part to political complications, or to matters dynastic or otherwise for which he was not personally responsible. Exemplary conduct in private relations, coupled with industry, intelligence, and a right spirit in his public duties on behalf of the Servian nation, would have won friends for him; and in due time he would have made a fitting marriage that would have strengthened Serbia's international position, added security to his throne, and given prospect of a perpetuation of the Obrenovitch dynasty. But he was stubbornly perverse.

Alexander's Ill-omened Career. His father, King Milan, had abdicated in 1889, at the same time proclaiming his son Alexander King of Serbia under a regency until he should attain

his majority at the age of eighteen. At that time, Alexander lacked some five months of being thirteen years old. In April, 1893, nearly a year and a half before he had reached his eighteenth year, Alexander performed a bold *coup d'état*, declared himself to be already of age, dismissed the regency, and successfully assumed authority as King. This needless act of violent self-assertion was a bad omen for the future of his career. His father, King Milan, with many attractive and popular qualities, had always preferred a life of pleasure and dissipation in Vienna and Paris to the exercise of his official duties at Belgrade. In the period after the Russo-Turkish War, when Serbia acquired its complete freedom from all nominal connection with Turkey, and in which the Prince of Serbia became a king, there was constant rivalry and intriguing in the Balkan states between the emissaries of Russia and those of Austria. King Milan had placed himself frankly and fully under Austrian influence. His wife, Queen Nathalie, was the daughter of a Russian officer, and was secretly in alliance with the pro-Russian party. It was the work of this party which resulted in securing the abdication of Milan. The Russian court was disposed to do what it could for the young King Alexander, and for several years it exerted itself to help him secure a wife. His quest was the talk of all Europe, and the list of snubs and refusals he encountered was long and varied. The most persistent effort was concentrated by Russia upon a plan to wed Alexander to one of the Montenegrin princesses, a sister of the present young Queen of Italy. But the sturdy old Prince Nicholas, closely attached as he is to Russia, stoutly refused, on what he called purely personal grounds, to have Alexander for a son-in-law. It will be remembered that there was even considerable talk of Alexander's coming to this country to induce an American heiress to become Queen of Serbia. But there was no encouragement from Newport or Chicago.



KING MILAN AND HIS SON ALEXANDER.

(From a photograph taken at about the time of Milan's abdication.)

Meanwhile, he had formed a notorious attachment for a young Serbian widow, Draga Maschin, who had been a companion to his mother, and who was a good many years his senior. Officially, she was nine years older than the King, and was in her thirty-sixth year when assassinated, last month, although it is universally declared in Serbia that in reality she was sixteen years older than the King, and was about forty-three at the time of her death, the King being in his twenty-seventh year. It was on August 5, 1900, that he had surprised Serbia and all Europe by marrying Draga Maschin and proclaiming her as Queen. There are those who have come forward to deny everything that has been said to her disparagement. It is nevertheless true that the Serbian people had from the beginning detested and abhorred her. They showed in every way possible that they had never with good-will accepted her as Queen. She was regarded as having an unlimited influence over the King, which she exercised for the benefit of her family, and for the capricious punishment of cabinet ministers, army officers, and others from whom she had not re-

ceived the honor and deference she regarded as her due. In the lack of an heir to the throne, Queen Draga, probably with the knowledge and connivance of the King, entered into a plot to palm off upon the Servian people as her own child an infant son of one of her sisters. The exposure of this pitiable affair made it certain that she could never gain the esteem of the Servian people, and that her great ambition to be recognized by the other reigning families of Europe, and especially to be asked to visit the imperial family of Russia, could never be realized.

*His Upset
of the
Constitution.*

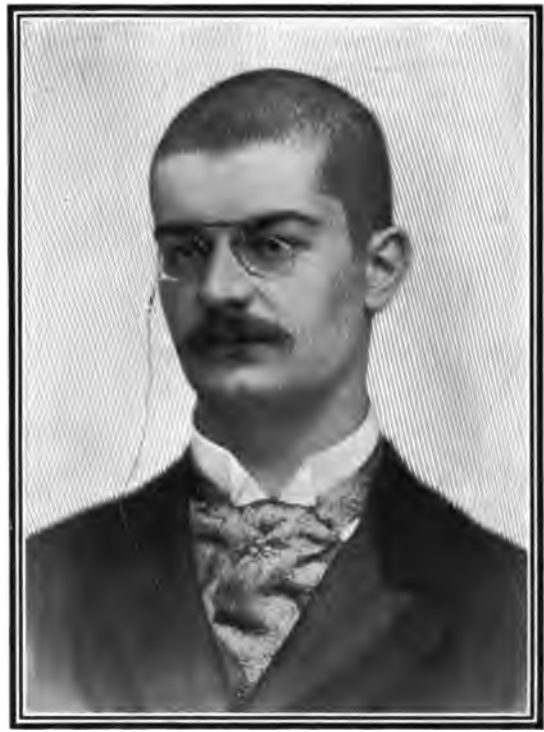
Of late, it had been persistently rumored that the Queen's brother, a young officer in the army, was to be designated as heir to the throne. Whether or not Alexander had any such intention, it was commonly believed in Serbia that the thing had been decided upon, and that it was to be formally proclaimed in the very near future. There was world-wide comment and astonishment when, early in April, Alexander abrogated the Servian constitution and for a brief space of time made himself an absolute ruler. He changed laws and institutions to suit himself, abolished the legislative body, turned out the ministry, and having eliminated certain popular and liberal features of the government, he put in force again the revised constitution, and started once more the machinery of constitutional government. The head of a government who plays tricks like this in the twentieth century must not expect to live, like Queen Victoria, to a good old age on an undisputed throne. Such acts of usurpation call for prompt deposition and punishment; and it is quite certain that if such a tyrant cannot be removed in one way, he will be dethroned in another.

*The
Fatal Plot
of June 11.*

Servia had ample reason for being heartily disgusted with Alexander and the Obrenovitch family. The King's crimes richly merited capital punishment. If Alexander had been willing to abdicate, he would have been permitted to leave Servia without harm. The successful plot that was consummated on June 11 owed its origin to the *coup d'état* of April by which the King had done violence to the constitution; while its swift consummation was due to various acts of the King and Queen, and in part to the belief that the Queen's brother was to be made heir to the throne. The plot was carried out by a great number of army officers, who seem to have been impelled by patriotic motives, and whose prime object was simply to secure the King's removal from a position in which he



THE LATE QUEEN DRAGA OF SERBIA.



THE LATE KING ALEXANDER OF SERBIA.

had seized undue power and had exercised it malignly. The Sixth and Seventh regiments were deputed to accomplish the desired end. The palace at Belgrade was surrounded late at night, entrance was forced by a group of officers and soldiers in spite of the resistance of a few guards, and Colonel Naumovics, who was one of the King's aides, and who was on duty at the palace but was in league with the conspirators, presented the King with a paper for his signature which proved to be a form of abdication. Refusing to sign it, Alexander at once shot and killed Naumovics. It is reported that the document was then offered to him by Colonel Mischics, one of the leaders of the conspiracy; but again the King refused to sign, whereupon the whole group of officers discharged their revolvers at the King and Queen. The subsequent details of the night's work have been so variously reported that it may be a long time before a truthful version can be recognized as such. At least it is known that besides the King and Queen, there were assassinated two brothers of the Queen, the prime minister, Markovitch, and the minister of war, Pavlovitch. Several aides and officers were also killed, but as incidents of the struggle rather than by deliberate intention.

*The Founder
of the Kara
George Family.*

Meanwhile, a new provisional ministry, made up of reputable liberals, had been selected, as a part of the plot, and the officers of the army had also agreed at once to proclaim a new King in the person of the son of a former reigning Prince of Serbia representing a rival family. In the early part of the last century, the popular hero and leader of the Servians in their revolt against the Turks was an obscure and illiterate peasant of immense physical prowess and great natural ability, named George Petrovitch, commonly called Kara George, *kara* being a Turkish word meaning black. This intrepid leader, with all the qualities of a glorified brigand, knowing the woods and hills of Serbia intimately, accomplished marvelous deeds in guerrilla warfare, breaking up great armies sent against him by the Turks. He became, in effect, a dictator, and in 1811 was formally known as "Kara George, Prince of the Servians," his power being practically unlimited. But a year or two later his power was gone, and he was a fugitive. Russia had ordained that, although enjoying essential home rule, the Servians must pay tribute to Turkey and be regarded as a part of the Turkish Empire. Kara George had somehow lost his intrepidity, and he became a voluntary exile.

The Original Obrenovitch. At this juncture a new hero arose in the person of Milosh Obrenovitch, who as a much younger man had served under Kara George, and had shown courage and ability. Milosh became leader, with a



EX-QUEEN NATHALIE OF SERBIA.

(Mother of the murdered king, now living in Paris.)

handful of guerrillas, at a moment when the Servian cause seemed almost hopeless. Milosh was not only a brave fighter, but a skillful diplomatist. He professed loyalty to the Sultan, but hostility to the Janizaries, who, under the command of the Pasha of Belgrade, had tyrannized over the Servian people. In 1817, Kara George came back secretly, intending to head a movement against the Turkish garrisons in Servia; but he was assassinated by an adherent of Milosh. A great national assembly at this time declared Milosh "Prince of the Servians," and thus in 1817 the man who had been a swineherd on his stepfather's farm founded the Servian royal house of Obrenovitch, which was finally extinguished last month. In 1830, the Sultan confirmed Milosh's title as hereditary Prince. The intrigues of other governments finally made the position of Milosh untenable, and he abdicated in June, 1839, on the promise that his son should be his successor. His eldest son died within a month, but his second son, Michael, then a boy of perhaps sixteen, came to the throne. So much trouble was made for him, however, that he was obliged to abdicate and take refuge in Austria after two or three years.

The Rival Families. Then, by a characteristic revulsion, the Servians turned to Alexander, the son of Kara George, and elected him Prince in 1842. Gradually he lost his hold upon the loyalty of the Servian people, until at length, in 1858, the *Skupshtina* (the national assembly of Servia) drew up a remonstrance and demanded his abdication. He took refuge in a Turkish fortress, and the *Skupshtina* accordingly passed a vote deposing him, at the same time recalling the aged Milosh, who had abdicated twenty years before, and who was now approaching the age of fourscore. Thus, the Servians turned from the Karageorgevitch family to the original Obrenovitch,—by far the best of either family who has yet exercised power. The old man reigned about two years, and died in September, 1860. On his death, his son Michael came back for a second trial. He had reigned as a boy from his sixteenth to his nine-



KING MILAN AT THE ACCESSION OF KING ALEXANDER, 1882.

teenth year. He was now nearly forty, and had gained some discretion. A Moslem garrison still remained in the fortress at Belgrade. It was in 1867 that Prince Michael succeeded in securing the withdrawal of the hated Turkish troops from Belgrade and other Servian strong-

holds. Thus, Michael Obrenovitch had accomplished something toward the fulfillment of the work of his father, the Liberator. In June, 1868, Michael was assassinated by partisans of the Karageorgevitch family, but the result did not secure the throne for a member of that rival house. Michael had left no eligible direct heir; but a young cousin, Milan Obrenovitch, then fourteen years old, was proclaimed Prince, and the government was put in the hands of regents for the four years from 1868 to 1872, when, at eighteen, Milan became of age. We have already alluded to the abdication of Milan, in 1889, in favor of his son Alexander. Milan died in 1901, and now, with the death of Alexander, the Obrenovitch family seems quite effectively wiped out.

*Peter, the
New King.*

The Peter Karageorgevitch who has now been proclaimed King is a son of the Alexander Karageorgevitch who was elected Prince in 1842 and was deposed in 1858. Peter was a boy of perhaps twelve years of age when his father was driven from the throne. After that, he went to school in Hungary, visited frequently in Russia, and then entered the famous French military school of St. Cyr, where he graduated and became an officer in the French army. He joined the famous Foreign Legion at the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War, and made a record of considerable valor. A few years after the end of that war, it will be remembered that the Balkans were

ablaze with the revolt of Bosnia and Herzegovina against the Turks, and Europe was aroused by the story of the Bulgarian atrocities. Peter Karageorgevitch at that time went to Montene-



PETER KARAGEORGEVITCH, THE NEW SERVIAN KING.



PRINCE NICHOLAS OF MONTENEGRO.
(Father-in-law of the new Servian King.)

gro, where he joined in the movement against the Turks. It is said that he offered, at that time, to fight under Milan and accept the Obrenovitch dynasty in Serbia if the Servians would join in the movement against the Turks. His residence in Montenegro gave him an opportunity to become a suitor for the hand of the Prince's daughter, and he married the Princess Zorka in 1883. She died in 1890. She was a sister of the present Queen of Italy. She left three children, all of whom are now living, the eldest being a daughter of nineteen, and the other two being boys of fifteen and fourteen, both of whom have for several years been attached to the Russian court, where one of them is studying to be a soldier and the other to be a lawyer. Peter's connection by marriage with the Montenegrin reigning family has been of much value to him, although it is said that his former extravagance and dissipation made it difficult for his high connections to have close relations with him. For ten or twelve years past, he has lived quietly in Switzerland on a small assured income, and he has been regarded as ex-



THE ROYAL PALACE AT BELGRADE.

ceedingly liberal in his political views, and much attached to the republican institutions of Switzerland. It has even been alleged that he has been on friendly terms with the Socialists from different European countries who make Switzerland a refuge and rendezvous. While it is true that he has been known as a pretender to the Servian throne, and has undoubtedly long been in communication with his adherents in Servia, there is no reason to think that he had any share or influence whatever in bringing about the assassination of Alexander. He has since declared that while Alexander ought to have been compelled to abdicate, yet he has only abhorrence for the bloody work of June 11.

The New Order Accepted. For a few days there was much speculation in the European and American press concerning the attitude to be assumed by the European powers. It was felt that the chief governments of Europe would hesitate to accept results that would seem to make them complacent toward the assassination of rulers. But it soon appeared that Russia and Austria were not going to manifest any jealousy of each other, and that interference was not contemplated by anybody. The *Skupshtina* met promptly, three or four days after the assassination of Alexander, and unanimously chose Peter Karageorgevitch as King. This was followed by Peter's prompt acceptance. The Czar of Russia at once accepted this result and sent a friendly telegram to the new King. It was therefore taken as a matter of course that all other

governments would follow. Nothing else, indeed, would have been permissible in the ordinary course. In Servia, the change of dynasty is looked upon as the result of a revolution rather than as the consequence of a crime in the ordinary sense, and it is further held that if Alexander had not been put promptly out of the way there must have been civil war, with much loss of life and many distracting consequences. In short, it is the opinion, not only of the Servian army, but of the leaders of church and state, that Alexander and his wife had committed high crimes and misdemeanors against the Servian nation which called for condign punishment, and

that it was better that they should have perished than that the country should have been plunged into civil war.

Kings Are by Sufferance, Not by Right. They were perfectly aware that they reigned against the will and desire of the Servian people. They knew, moreover, that they were in great peril. Even the blindest adherents of the mediæval doctrine of the divine right of kings must have found it difficult to bring people of such lowly origin and such recent advancement as the Obrenovitches or the Draga Maschins within the protecting pale of that mystical doctrine. Alexander's grandfather was a swine-herd who became a brigand and guerrilla fighter against Turkish troops. Subsequently, the Sultan of Turkey designated him a Prince, and made the dignity hereditary. Bismarck and Disraeli allowed the Principality of Servia to become a separate kingdom, and Prince Milan assumed the title of King. Monarchs nowadays hold their positions, not by divine right, nor yet by prestige or reverence for royal blood. Most European countries have many families of more illustrious lineage and more aristocratic origin than the family that holds the ruling rank. Thrones are secure, nowadays, only where monarchs conduct themselves with discretion and with a regard to public interest. The King of England, the Emperors of Germany, Austria, and Russia, the King of Italy, and the Queen of the Netherlands are marked examples of rulers who serve public interest with fidelity, and avoid doing that which would

alienate or antagonize the people over whom they reign. Alexander's position in Serbia was like that of some strange adventurer, temporarily exercising power as dictator over some so-called republic of Latin America, rather than like that of a stably placed constitutional sovereign.

*Peter's
Tolerable
Prospects.*

The new monarch does not have to face any serious element of disaffection. Serbia is heartily glad to be rid of Alexander and his immediate *entourage*. King Peter has only to conduct himself prudently and sensibly to bring about a very tolerable situation in the little kingdom. His long residence in republics like France and Switzerland, and his acquaintance with constitutional government in England, Belgium, Holland, and elsewhere, will make it comparatively easy for him to understand the fact that Servian sentiment is thoroughly liberal, and that the day has gone by for high-handed and capricious conduct on the part of hereditary rulers in the Balkan states. The greetings of the Czar, of the Emperor Francis Joseph, of the King of Italy, and of other sovereigns, which came promptly a day or two after the unanimous action of the Servian national assembly, made it certain that with good conduct on his own part Peter's reign would enjoy the added strength that comes from the friendliness of the great powers most interested in the affairs of eastern Europe. It was also probable that, although all governments must of necessity express their abhorrence of assassination, there would be no specific demand on the part of the Russian and Austrian emperors that the leaders of the revolution of June 11 should be banished or otherwise punished. There is much in the life and character of the Servian people that is attractive and worthy of esteem. They are making general advancement in intelligence and economic well-being, and they may continue for a good while to come as an independent nation.

*George of
Greece as
an Example.*

King Peter at least understands the conditions under which men nowadays sit upon thrones, and he will doubtless try to observe them. Thus, he will have a good example in three neighboring countries. Greece, for instance, is politically a very uneasy and turbulent little country; yet King George, the present monarch, has held his throne very comfortably for the past forty years. He was a young Danish prince of nearly eighteen when the Greek national assembly elected him King in March, 1863. His father, the King of Denmark, accepted for him in June, the Greeks formally declared him of age, and he landed in Greece and entered upon his reign

in November, 1863. He has, to be sure, owed something of his security to the fact that he is closely related to the reigning families of several of the leading powers. Primarily, however, his



KING GEORGE OF GREECE.

long reign has been due to his own tact and good sense, and to his understanding that a constitutional monarch reigns but does not rule. In view of the general disturbances that are reported from the Balkan states, involving upsets of cabinets, and disorders of various sorts, it is rather interesting that about the only news coming from Greece last month had to do with the all-absorbing question whether or not to grant to an English company a monopoly of the business of buying up and exporting the Greek currant crop,—dried currants being the chief article of export from the little kingdom of the Hellenes. Doubtless, the Greeks are keenly interested in the Macedonian troubles, but their attempt at interference several years ago ended so disastrously that they are not, like the Bulgarians, meddling with affairs across the boundary line. Indeed, they now pretend to support Turkey.

*Ferdinand
of Bulgaria.*

Bulgaria is nominally a tributary state of Turkey; yet in practice it maintains a more independent position, perhaps, than any other of the Balkan states. It has objected so strongly to being regarded as connected with Turkey that the United States Government no longer communi-

cates with it through our minister at Constantinople, but has assigned it to the territory of the minister to Greece, who is also accredited to Roumania and Servia. Ferdinand, the reigning Prince of Bulgaria, is the youngest son of the late Prince Augustus of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, and was twenty-six years old when, in July, 1887, he was elected by the national assembly of Bulgaria to succeed a prince who had abdicated in the preceding year. Ferdinand has had a hard and trying experience, inasmuch as the Sultan was not willing to confirm him, and the great powers were not willing to give him their formal approval until 1896, when he had been some nine years on the throne. Ferdinand is not very popular in Bulgaria, and by common consent the European press has always made fun of him, the caricaturists singling him out as the butt of international ridicule. Yet he holds his own, and the chances are that he will so conduct himself as to strengthen his position and to remain for a long time to come upon a throne which he has now occupied for sixteen years. A new cabinet came into power in Bulgaria the latter part of May. The new prime minister is General Petroff, who is recognized as a very strong and competent Bulgarian leader. The retiring cabinet of M. Daneff had come to be regarded in Bulgaria as altogether subservient to instructions from St. Petersburg.

*Bulgarian
Politics and
Progress.*

Petroff was a younger disciple of the great Stamboloff, who was assassinated some years ago. The Stambolovists, as they are called in eastern Europe, are disposed to make the most and best of the fact that Bulgaria has a nominal connection with Turkey. Their real object is the independence and development of their own principality; but they are more afraid of being swallowed up by Russia than of any harm that can come to them from the nominal connection with Turkey. They deem it wise, therefore, for the present to cultivate good relations with the Sultan, in order that they may, if necessary, be protected by the strong military power of the Turkish Government. Under the ministry that has now fallen, there was a good deal of danger lest the intermeddling of the Bulgarian adherents of what is known as the Macedonian Committee should have brought on a war between Bulgaria and Turkey. The object of the Macedonian Committee is to foment the anti-Turkish revolt in Macedonia with a view to bringing about the interference of Europe, the final expulsion of Turkey, and the annexation of at least a part of Macedonia to Bulgaria. Undoubtedly, Prince Ferdinand and the new Petroff ministry perceive the danger and the



PRINCE FERDINAND OF BULGARIA.

impolicy of such a course. Meanwhile, Bulgaria makes steady domestic progress, and Prince Ferdinand early last month was at Burgas, a Bulgarian port on the Black Sea, to celebrate the formal opening of the new harbor works, which have cost nearly two million dollars, and which are to be operated in connection with the national Bulgarian railway system, which has its principal terminus at Burgas.

*King Charles
and Roumanian
Affairs.*

On May 23, at Bucharest, there was celebrated the thirty-seventh anniversary of the coronation of Charles I., the present King of Roumania. When this young German prince, twenty-seven years old, was made head of the united principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia, they were still nominally subservient to Turkey. Their complete independence was secured as one of the results of the war against Turkey in 1877, in which Roumania participated with Russia; and at that time Prince Charles became King. He is now, at sixty-four years of age, one of the wisest and most highly accomplished sovereigns and statesmen of his time, and nobody would think of questioning the absolute security of his hold upon the Roumanian throne. His wife, Queen Elizabeth, better known by her literary *nom de plume*, "Carmen Sylva," is a woman whose high character is equal to her rare literary gifts. Roumania also is a country of somewhat uneasy



QUEEN ELIZABETH OF ROUMANIA.



KING CHARLES OF ROUMANIA.

and turbulent people, with not infrequent changes of ministry and political upheaval. Americans just now are unpopular in Roumania because of Secretary Hay's protest against the treatment of the Jews in that country. It is a somewhat curious fact that the representatives of the Standard Oil Company who have been negotiating to secure the control of the highly productive petroleum district of Roumania were last month obliged to leave the country without accomplishing anything, chiefly on the ground, as openly declared in the legislative chambers, that they came from the country which had criticised Roumania's treatment of the Jews.

Oil and International Politics. The competitor of the Standard Oil Company was a banking syndicate in Berlin, which seems likely to succeed in accomplishing a business deal which has been watched with great interest throughout Europe and has formed a leading topic, within the last few weeks in the newspapers of Germany. The relations between government and business in those countries of southeastern Europe is far more intimate than in western Europe and the United States. Thus, the exploitation of the Roumanian oil fields is being managed as if it were a governmental enterprise. The private owners of oil wells and refineries in Roumania desired to deal with the Americans, who offered to pay them more liberally than other bidders for their properties. The Roumanian Government, however, is disposed to grant oil-field concessions to the Berlin bankers, and promises the Germans to

build at government expense a great pipe line to Constanza, a Black Sea port, from Cernavoda, on the Danube. The Germans, in return, are to make loans to the Roumanian Government on favorable terms and reorganize the Roumanian finances. Thus, the oil question in Roumania, just now, is quite as central a topic in politics as is the question of the currant crop in Greece, or as the production and export of pigs has long been in Servia.

*Turkey
in the
Balkans.*

If Bulgarians were earlier in the season inciting revolt among their compatriots across the line in the Turkish territory of Macedonia, they have been suffering very cruel punishment for it within the past few weeks. The Turkish soldiery, under pretext of searching for arms, have been terrorizing the Bulgarian villages of the Adrianople vilayet, and several thousands of these poor people have been fleeing to Bulgaria proper in fear of their lives. The Turkish Bashi-Bazouks have been guilty of several atrocious massacres, exterminating whole villages in the Adrianople region. There is no evidence that the Macedonian reforms demanded of the Turkish Government by Russia and Austria have been put into effect. Many hundreds of Bulgarian suspects have been held as Turkish prisoners. So far as the governments of Turkey and Bulgaria are concerned, negotiations in regard to the revolutionary movement have been progressing favorably. Bulgaria disavows any control over the movement, and hopes by dip-



lomatic influence at Constantinople to bring about improved relations which will at once stop border warfare, and secure protection and safety for the Christian inhabitants of the vilayets of Adrianople, Monastir, and Salonika. The situation continues, however, to be a lamentable one, and nobody can foresee what course affairs are going to take. The discussion over the control of the proposed Bagdad Railway concession is still going on, England and France desiring to participate equally with Germany. The proposed unification of the Turkish foreign debt, which is a topic that has had a good deal of interest lately for European financiers, is bound up with the question of this Bagdad Railway project.

The outsiders most keenly interested in Serbian destiny are the Hungarians. Belgrade, the Serbian capital, occupies a bold position on the bank of the Danube at the point where the tributary river Save unites with the greater stream; and it overlooks the Hungarian plain, the two rivers forming the north boundary line of Serbia. To the west of Serbia lies Bosnia, which has been under Austrian administration for the past twenty-five years. There is no reason to assert

that the Austro-Hungarian Empire,—with all its present internal difficulties and complications arising out of the variety of population elements which compose it,—is at present anxious to add any more elements of turbulence. But the Austro-Hungarian Empire will, some day, evolve out of its present ferment some better and more stable system; and then it is not impossible that it may absorb Serbia.

The Hungarian half of the dual Austro-Hungarian monarchy is in serious difficulty on account of a most remarkable outbreak of anti-Hungarian feeling in the province of Croatia. The region known as Croatia and Slavonia, and which forms an integral part of Hungary, has had a long history of its own, and is in theory a sort of kingdom within a kingdom. It has its own parliament for the administration of local affairs, uses its own language, which is a Slavonic dialect, and has its own religious affiliations. Its relations with Hungary are fixed by an agreement which dates from the year 1868. It sends to Budapest, the Hungarian capital, some forty members of the lower house of Parliament, and a handful of members of the House of Magistrates, in order that it may be represented in the

treatment of a few agreed subjects of common interest, such as the army and the general system of taxation, the relations with the Austrian half of the dual monarchy, and so on. But although the Croats have so much independence, they find some cause of complaint against the Magyar, or Hungarian, government at Budapest, growing largely out of army and language questions, and also, to some extent, out of disputes over the amount of revenue raised in Croatia but spent for general purposes at Budapest.

Hungary's Race Problems. The Hungarians will effectually suppress the Croatian uprising with which they have had to cope now for two or three months, but they are in some danger of permanently alienating the affections of the Croatian people. Hitherto there has been so much fury and strife in the other half of the dual monarchy over the clashing demands of eager and self-conscious nationalities that there has been some tendency to forget the fact that the Hungarian half of the monarchy has also a variety of races within its borders. The Magyars are so strong and talented a race that thus far they have succeeded in maintaining an assured control. But henceforth, doubtless, there will be steadily increasing groups in the parliament at Budapest of representatives of various nationalistic elements such as the Roumanians of Transylvania, the Croats, the Servians, and some others. In view of the fact that nationality feeling grows more intense all the time, the Austro-Hungarian governments may find it best to give up their present attitude of resistance to the decentralizing tendencies, and gradually shape a wholly new policy.

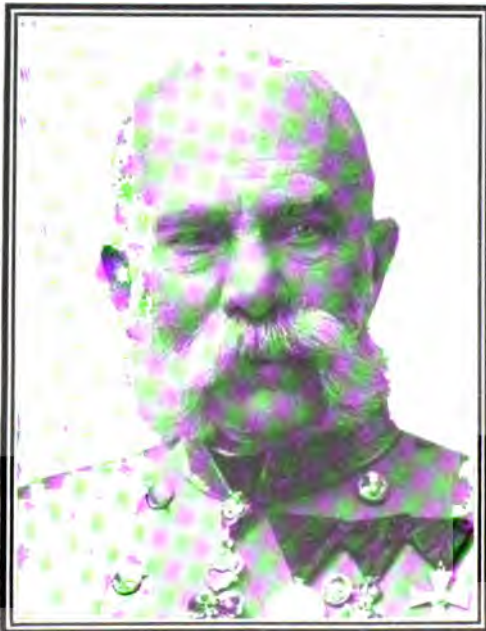
A New Austro-Hungarian Policy. It was the original theory that the whole of the dominions of the House of Hapsburg were to be regarded as German. The Magyars themselves had to submit to be ruled and taught in the German language. The university at Budapest had a full complement of German professors. It was not until Bismarck defeated Austria in the campaign of 1866 that the Magyars succeeded in establishing their so-called "Transleithanian" half of their dual monarchy on a basis of equality with the Austrian half, and with a separate and distinctly Magyar government at Budapest. The Vienna government is destined to be defeated again on a somewhat similar question in its long struggle with the Bohemians. Certainly there are some very serious disadvantages to be feared from the extensive decentralization now demanded by the Czechs, the Poles, and other ethnic and territorial elements of Austria. But

the logic of the general situation in southeastern Europe makes it desirable that the races and communities belonging to Austria-Hungary should be united for purposes of a general military defense, and for various economic and commercial objects; and it is not in the least likely, therefore, that upon the death of Francis Joseph there will be any serious tendency of a centrifugal sort. It would seem as if the best way to make Czechs, Poles, Croats, Transylvanians, and all other important and compact racial elements content to remain as associated parts of the Hapsburg dominions would be to give them a very large measure of local autonomy. The strongest reason for the belief that German must be used everywhere throughout Francis Joseph's empire was due to the martinet military tradition that European armies, to be effective, must have uniformity of control and discipline, and must respond throughout to words of command in some one language. But recent events have quite revolutionized everybody's ideas on the subject of warfare; and with educated officers familiar with two or three languages—as all officers are who live in southeastern Europe—there is no essential reason why the ordinary Bohemian soldier should be drilled as if he were a German, and no reason why local public schools, local tribunals of justice, and the like, should not make use of the language of the particular region or province, whether Bohemian, Croatian, Magyar, German, or Polish.

The Great Language Question. The tendency, in short, toward the revival of race feeling, and toward the cultivation of local tongues and dialects, is a part of the general transition that is coming about with the diffusion of education and culture throughout Europe. It is a phase that must be gone through with. A century hence, Europe may enter upon another phase, and may witness a weakening of racial distinctions, and an amalgamation of kindred peoples,—an evolution, for instance, of some general form of speech out of varying dialects of the Slavonic peoples of southeastern Europe, just as there may be developed some general form out of the differing dialects of the Scandinavian peoples. The Magyars, however, who dominate Hungary, have a speech wholly unrelated to the Slavonic or to any other of the European languages, and their ethnic affinity is rather with the Turks. But since they are not Mohammedans, they cannot affiliate with a race which, but for its Moslem fanaticism, might rapidly develop into one of the very finest in the world. But for their religion, indeed, the Turks might not only avoid expulsion from Europe, but might highly deserve

to remain in control at Constantinople and in possession of the fine provinces that still pertain to European Turkey. The Turks are a race of almost unmatched military prowess.

The Magyars and Their New Cabinet. The Magyars also are brave fighting men, but above all they are men with a genius for political organization, with talent for industry and trade, and with superior intellectual and æsthetic gifts. It is the Magyar instinct to oppose the pan-Slavonic movement and to prevent the further growth of Russian influence in southeastern Europe. The Magyars, moreover, are largely Protestants of a stern Calvinistic order, and this accounts in part for their exceptional development of individuality. Thus, the new premier, Stephen Tűsza, who is said to be one of the ablest of the younger political leaders of Hungary, is himself a characteristic and typical Protestant of the Calvinistic Church. The downfall of the cabinet of the veteran Koloman de Szell seems to have been due in part to a general breaking up of party lines and groups which has been coming about gradually in connection with differences over long-standing questions of a domestic sort having to do with taxation, army service, and the like. The Szell cabinet resigned on the 16th. It had been in office nearly three and a half years, although several of the ministers had held over from preceding administrations, three of them having held their portfolios for about eight



EMPEROR FRANCIS JOSEPH OF AUSTRIA.



ARCHDUKE FRANCIS FERDINAND.
(Heir to the Austrian throne.)

years, and one, the minister of national defense, for almost twenty years.

The Austrian Outlook. Speaking in general, the work of government goes on with vigor and efficiency in Hungary, or the Transleithanian Kingdom, as it is called, while in Austria, the Cisleithanian Kingdom, there is always serious friction, and much of the time almost complete deadlock. Leading Austrians have been exerting themselves, of late, to find some larger programme of imperial aspiration and faith, in order that Austria may not be wholly exhausted, from the political standpoint, in everlasting dissensions about such matters as the mere question of the language to be used in giving orders to soldiers. The Emperor Francis Joseph, whom a Balkan statesman has wittily called the only Austrian in Austria, retains unimpaired his marvelous sympathetic hold upon all the factors and races of both kingdoms. He will be seventy-three years old in August, and may perchance live to be eighty. Meanwhile, the heir to the throne, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, nephew of the Emperor, who is now in his fortieth year, has of late been growing in a marked fashion in the esteem and confidence of the people over whom he hopes some day to reign. He has been taking an active and energetic interest in important questions, particularly in the renewal, on proper terms, of the periodic *Ausgleich*; that is,

the agreement between Austria and Hungary as to their relative shares of the cost of those public services,—of defense, and so on,—that pertain to the whole empire.

Russia and the Jews.

The agitation in the United States on account of the massacre of Jews in the Russian city of Kishineff seems destined to serve a certain end of practical usefulness, inasmuch as it has been widely reported in Russia and has come to the attention of the Czar and the high officers of government. There was a time when Russia was too remote from the currents of international public opinion to be at all affected by unofficial criticism in the United States. But the world has changed; and even Russia finds it desirable to have the good opinion, rather than the bad opinion, of enlightened and disinterested people in other lands. Nothing could have been more tactful, wise, and appropriate than the remarks made by Secretary Hay and President Roosevelt, on the occasion of a visit paid to them, on June 15, by a committee representing certain large Jewish organizations of America. This committee went to Washington to ask our government to associate itself in one way or another with petitions and protests addressed to the government of Russia. While expressing their own good-will, both personally and officially, toward the Jews, and making speeches in the highest degree friendly and satisfactory to the visiting delegation, Secretary Hay, followed by President Roosevelt, made it clear enough that there were at present no official steps which could be taken with propriety. Secretary Hay spoke in the loftiest terms of the character of the Czar, and President Roosevelt amplified upon the fact that the Russian ambassador had of his own accord given, both to the State Department and to the President, his assurance of the deep indignation of the Czar and his government on account of the Kishineff massacre, further stating that the governor of Kishineff had been removed, that several hundred arrests had been made, and that the guilty parties would be prosecuted to the utmost.

The Czar's Burden of Empire.

Unquestionably, the sentiment of the civilized world must stimulate the Russian Government to act more energetically for the protection of the Jews. There is too much reason to fear that Minister von Plehwe, of whose character Mr. N. I. Stone wrote in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for April, has by no means been taking the measures that a minister of the interior ought to take to protect the persecuted people of Jewish race. Russians of the type of Count Cassini, the ambassador at



A NEW PORTRAIT OF M. VON PLEHWE.
(The Russian minister of the interior.)

Washington, are too broad-minded and generous to cherish race animosity; but doubtless there are some in the bureaucracy that surrounds the Czar who share in the ignorant and unfortunate anti-Semitic prejudice. Doubtless, some of the Jews in Russia have their faults. Thus, Father John of Cronstadt, the popular Russian religious leader, who came out, at first, with the most unsparing denunciation of the treatment of the Jews in Bessarabia, has completely changed his views after further investigation. Dispatches of June 16 from St. Petersburg report that in a formal statement Father John declares that he is now convinced that the Jews were mainly responsible for the catastrophe at Kishineff, having provoked the Christians to the point of the disorders that resulted in riot and massacre. He declares that it is the Christians who suffered in the end, and that the Jews have been doubly repaid for their losses and injuries by their own brethren and others. This from the one man in Russia who at first denounced the Kishineff massacres most unsparingly is at least worthy of note. While it does not in the least follow that Father John is right, his latest attitude throws a strong, fresh light upon the fact that the anti-Jewish feeling is very deeply rooted in the Russian nature. As we remarked last month, these evils can only be solved by the slow growth

of enlightenment and true civilization. It would be strange if there were not some provocation on the part of certain members of the Jewish race, though nothing of a sort to justify wholesale and indiscriminate persecution.

*Unhappy
Finland.*

Another matter about which the sympathies of the world have been much concerned is the practical completion of the process of Russianizing Finland, which has become an integral part of Russia for purposes of domestic administration. General Bobrikoff, who has been in Finland for five years as governor-general, is now acting as a dictator. The institutions of Finland had long been almost as liberal and modern as those of England. But leading men have now been punished, the freedom of the press is at an end, the Finnish constitution is a thing of the past, and Muscovite bureaucracy prevails. There is another side to the story, and able Russians like the great jurist De Martens can state it very plausibly indeed. The Russian Empire felt it needful to unify its military and fiscal systems, and the opposition of the Finns on these points led to the breaking down of the bulwarks of Finnish liberty. The mistake, from the point of view of the Czar, lies in the fact that it is dangerous to create too many factors of discontent. Some day the desperate Finns, the ambitious Poles, the oppressed Jews, the Nihilists and secret revolutionists, and other geographical or social factors, may unite to bring about a tremendous convulsion comparable only to the French Revolution. If serious disaffection should once permeate the army, the Servian tragedy might be repeated on a much larger stage. The Czar, to be sure, is as different a man and ruler from Alexander of Servia as can well be imagined; but an autocratic position is a hazardous one in these modern times.

*The
Expulsion of
a Journalist.*

An illustration of the new sensitive-ness of Russia to outside opinion has been afforded in the expulsion from St. Petersburg of the regular correspondent of the *London Times*. This correspondent had done nothing unusual, but had merely reported from day to day what he knew concerning affairs in Finland, the Kishineff massacre and the relations of the public authorities to it, and the development of Russian policy in Manchuria,—all naturally colored a little by the average Englishman's anti-Russian point of view. It is said that the Russian bureaucrats do not like to have the Czar come into too direct contact with foreign opinion, but that he has insisted upon reading the *London Times* every day. The inference is that the reactionary minister of the

interior, M. von Plehwe, has been dull enough to think that in the first place he could teach the *London Times* a lesson, and in the second place deprive the Czar of a part of his means of knowing outside opinion. If the Czar's strength of will were equal to his worthy impulses and his general intelligence, the Russian situation would be far better than it is. The great finance minister of Russia, M. de Witte, seems—to the outside world, at least—a man of far greater breadth and far higher character than his rival, M. von Plehwe, the minister of the interior. The position of the Czar, with so vast an empire to administer, is one of great difficulty, and he is entitled to much leniency and consideration.

*Russia
and China.*

The negotiations of China with Russia and other foreign powers touching matters having to do principally with trade and commerce have been going on in leisurely Oriental fashion. The Russian influence at Peking is apparently quite dominating. The able and broad-minded Russian ambassador, M. Lessar, will doubtless succeed in securing the conditions he desires relative to Russian interests in Manchuria before the nominal reins of political authority are restored to the Chinese Government. The Manchurian country is being rapidly developed by Russian immigrants, and Russia's railroad system will require an ample military guard, the right to maintain which is admitted by China. The Russians have spent a vast amount of money in their railroad-building, and they can only get it back by the development of a profitable traffic. Such traffic must depend largely upon foreign trade, and at least for some years to come it will be to the obvious

advantage of Russia not to discriminate against the trade of outside countries like the United States, but rather to encourage in every way the trade of the world with the regions traversed by their new Asiatic railroad system.

*Our Own
Relations
with China.*

Thus, it will be feasible for our State Department, in the new commercial treaty with China that is approaching completion, to maintain our old-time ac-



SIR LIANG CHEN TUNG
(The new Chinese minister to
the United States.)

cess to Manchurian ports without obstruction on the part of Russia. At some time in the future, we must expect to see Manchuria completely Russianized and openly annexed by Russia; but this may not come about for many years. Meanwhile, it is well to acknowledge and accept the fact that the destiny of Manchuria is to be Russian. One of the commissioners engaged on the Chinese side in the negotiation of the new commercial treaties with the United States and other powers is Mr. Wu Ting Fang, the famous ex-minister of China at Washington. His successor, Sir Liang Chen Tung, presented his credentials at the State Department, and was formally received by the President, on June 15. The new minister was educated in the United States, and is a worthy representative of his great country and race. The question of permitting China, at least for a period of years, to make the indemnity payment to the powers in silver instead of gold is still under discussion, and is an absorbing one in Peking. In this regard, the United States and England favor a liberal treatment of China, while Germany leads in maintaining the opposite view. The steadfast friendliness of the government of the United States toward the government of China is evidently giving this country a very favorable position in the Orient, and one which is likely to promote profitable commercial relations, although our policy has had no merely commercial motive.

America's Foreign Affairs in General. The relations of our government to all foreign powers are exceptionally favorable at the present time. Pending a meeting of the international commissioners who are to deal with the Alaskan boundary question, that subject has well-nigh dropped out of sight in the United States, although it is still under more or less discussion in Canada. The situation in the republic of Colombia, where the Panama Canal treaty is under consideration, is one that has been viewed with great interest in the United States. In spite of many reports to the contrary, it was still believed at Washington, last month, that the Colombian Congress would ratify the treaty, and that the Panama Canal would be built upon the terms contemplated in the Hay-Herran agreement.

The Panama Problem. If the Colombians should reject the treaty, there would be great dissatisfaction among the people who live in the state or department of Panama, and with good reason. It is not unlikely that they might go so far as to undertake to secede from Colombia, and to place themselves under the protection of the United States. Measured by the

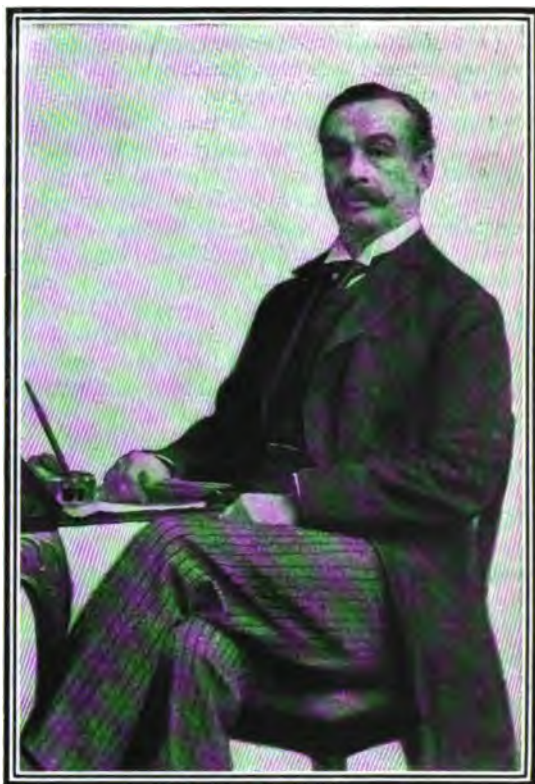
time it takes to reach the Isthmus, the people of Panama are very much nearer to New York than to Bogota. Moreover, for a long time past the good order of the Isthmus has been dependent in the last resort upon the navy of the United States, and not upon any forces that the republic of Colombia has ever been able to dispatch. Under the circumstances, it would probably be to the advantage of the whole world if the isthmian strip were detached from Colombia and were formed into a separate republic, like Cuba, under the guarantee and practical protection of the government of the United States. It would then devolve upon this country to deal directly with the Panama government in the matter of canal concessions, and this would be far more rational and advantageous than to deal with the distant and impracticable government at Bogota,—a government far more difficult to deal with, and far more remote from the currents of modern life, than the government of the Queen Dowager of China.

Trade at the Bottom of International Politics. The great questions of international politics, at the present time, are above all questions of trade. It is very difficult to form any logical theory of international disputes and discussions, because old associations and alliances are so much modified by new conditions. Thus, while the political structure of the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy remains unchanged, its real significance is much affected by new questions of a purely business and commercial sort. The group of problems centering at present in the far East cannot be understood at all without a considerable knowledge of existing and anticipated trade relations. The very complicated policies of Germany have also a commercial motive as their predominant feature. Thus, the rivalry of Germany, Russia, England, and France as respects railroads in Asia Minor and outlets in the Persian Gulf are to be understood only in the light of the struggle for commercial advantage. Germany's interest in South America is commercial rather than political. But since the Germans, like the English, have a theory that trade to a large extent follows the flag, they are naturally eager to develop colonies, or at least to secure naval and coaling stations, and points of rendezvous under their own control. It is the theory of the American expansionists, moreover, that the holding of the Philippines has already proved itself a turning-point in the development of a tremendous Pacific Ocean commerce; and it is expected that with the construction of the isthmian canal this country will enter upon a surpassing maritime development.

*Tariff
Questions
at the Front.*

Naturally, with these hopes and ambitions, the four great powers of the world are all of them deeply considering their tariff and commercial policies as related to their future commercial growth and strength. The United States, Germany, and Russia are frankly protectionist countries. They wish to retain, for the most part, their home markets through a policy that may open up their natural resources, firmly establish great staple industries—metallic, textile, and so on—and at the same time create a varied industrial capacity in their people, together with an educational system adapted to the conditions of a nation of combined agricultural and manufacturing character. The English policy adopted almost two generations ago rested upon a wholly different set of conditions. England had nursed its manufactures until they were far in advance of those of any other country, and had greatly outstripped English agriculture in their importance. It came to be seen that England's most profitable course lay in the largest possible export of manufactured goods to the less developed countries, in exchange for cheap foodstuffs and raw materials, to be brought into England free of duty. No American protectionist of any intelligence whatever could quarrel with English free trade as a practical policy. English free trade, however, stated in terms of a universal gospel, was a manifest absurdity, because it did not fit the conditions of any other country in the world, excepting, possibly, those of Holland and Belgium.

*England's New
Conditions.* Gradually there has come about so profound a change in general commercial conditions that it is now time for England to consider carefully whether she will continue her free-trade policy for some time longer, or whether she will considerably modify it. It has been found that her "open door" has permitted energetic German and American manufacturers to invade the English market with many of their wares, while both Germany and the United States maintain high tariffs which effectually shut out the English manufacturers. The English, meanwhile, are buying stupendous quantities of food, and of raw materials such as cotton, in the United States, while their own great colonies, particularly Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, begin to clamor for preferential treatment in the British home market. The Canadians for several years past have maintained a maximum and minimum tariff under which they admit English goods at rates of duty about one-third less than those charged upon goods from the United States. They desire, in return, that England should charge a substantial



RT. HON. CHARLES T. RITCHIE, THE CHANCELLOR OF THE EXCHEQUER.

duty upon wheat and other food products from the United States, Russia, and other foreign countries, while admitting such articles free of duty from Canada, Australia, and all British colonies. The general logic of such a proposition is sound and fair. If the British Empire is to be something more than a mere name, or a league for mutual defense, it may well be demanded that it should by deliberate plan and intention grow into a commercial and economic entity. Nor is it unnatural that the colonial secretary, Mr. Chamberlain, whose business it is to look at British problems from the point of view of the empire as a whole, should have come frankly to the view that the time is approaching when the parts of the British Empire must assume closer ties, upon a basis of mutual economic advantage. And so this question came up rather unexpectedly in England in May, and for a while it excluded all other topics from the attention of the newspapers and the politicians.

*The
Agitation
Last Month.*

The question came up in connection with the introduction of the new yearly budget by the chancellor of the exchequer, Mr. Ritchie. Among the budget

proposals for the coming year was the repeal of the slight registration, or port, tax on wheat, which had been levied as a war measure two or three years ago, and which had resulted in the bringing in of perhaps ten or twelve million dollars a year. This tax had been denounced at the time as the entering wedge of a protectionist policy, although it had been stoutly denied that there was any such design. Its proposed repeal, however, led to a debate which went to the root of the whole subject of protection and free trade, and imperial economic policy. In the course of this discussion, Mr. Chamberlain, who is the most conspicuous and energetic member of the Balfour ministry, placed himself squarely in opposition to his associate, the chancellor of the exchequer. Mr. Ritchie and his predecessor, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, are unqualified free traders, and thoroughly opposed to Mr. Chamberlain's imperial tariff union, or "zollverein," idea. The great discussion has helped more than anything else that has lately happened to reunite the Liberal party,—all factors of which find themselves able to come together on the proposition that Mr. Chamberlain's programme is thoroughly chimerical and would be gravely disadvantageous to England.

*The
Balfour
Ministry.*

For a few days it looked to the country as if there was hopeless dissension in the Balfour cabinet, and everybody believed that the ministry would resign and that a parliamentary election would take place, with the Chamberlain programme as the basis of an appeal to the opinion of the country. But the cabinet was held together by an ingenious though not very convincing speech of Mr. Balfour's, who declined to take the one view or the other, but declared that the subject was one, not for immediate action, but rather for future consideration. He held that the members of the cabinet were free to differ in their opinions so long as they were united in their actions; and since they did not propose to act immediately upon any project of imperial preferential tariffs, there was no reason for a break-up of the government. It is felt, nevertheless, that the ministry has so lost its prestige that it cannot hold out very much longer. Meanwhile, Parliament is still at work, not merely on the budget, but also upon the Irish Land bill and the London School bill. The Tories are relying upon the Irish vote to help them with



RT. HON. JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN, M.P.

their London Education Act, in consideration of the benefits of the Irish Land bill. Upon the pending discussion in England, particularly of Mr. Chamberlain and his economic proposals, Mr. W. T. Stead, who is always opposed to "Chamberlainism," sends us the following very forcible and interesting paragraphs:

*The
Rainbow
Chasers.*

The Americans, with that happy gift which distinguishes them, have invented the nickname of Rainbow Chasers for persons who waste their time in the pursuit of objects as hopelessly impossible as the pot of gold which children believe may be found at the foot of a rainbow. Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Balfour are the



MEDDLESOME JOE AND THE GOOSE THAT LAYS THE GOLDEN EGGS.—From *Punch* (London).

champion rainbow chasers of the hour. The ardor with which the colonial secretary sets off upon his final quest after the mythical treasure, dragging after him his skeptical chief, would be amusing if it were not so pathetic. For these grown men are only surrendering themselves to one of the charms of an old myth. They have been disappointed so often. Through mire—and bloody mire—Mr. Chamberlain has plunged headlong after his rainbow, only to find himself as far off as ever from the object of his quest. Now, for the last—positively for the last—time he is off again, and as every one knows what the result will be, the spectacle is somewhat tragic. When children give up rainbow-chasing they betake themselves to their studies and their work. But for Mr. Chamberlain there is no future, and that he knows right well.

It is impossible not to be sorry for Mr. Chamberlain, and also for Mr. Balfour. They have dreamed dreams and have seen fantastical visions of a Jingo Empire, which the British Empire was not and never can be. The fact that by paying colonists five or six times as much as a British regular they were able to secure the services of some thousands of colonists in the work of devastating the Boer republics seems to have utterly demented them. Mr. Carnegie pointed out that Canada had sent many more thousands of her sons to fight in the Northern ranks in the great Civil War,—and that, too, at the same rate paid to the American regular,—than the handful she had sent to the South African war, but his warning came too late. Mr. Chamberlain imagined that the Jingo Empire of his dreams was coming into existence, and being resolute and sincere

in his delusions, he boldly put the matter to the test. His first effort was to induce the colonial premiers to assent to a strong scheme of imperial defense in which the whole empire was to be organized as a military and naval unit. The colonial premiers rejected the scheme root and branch. Sir Wilfrid Laurier declared Jingoism was the worst enemy of the empire, and that he would never consent to tie up the colonies with the military system of the Old World. Foiled in this, Mr. Chamberlain next attempted to induce the colonies to adopt the principle of community of sacrifice, and to shoulder their proportionate share,—say £10,000,000 a year,—of the cost of the imperial army and navy. Here also his failure was absolute. The Jingo Empire did not exist as a fighting entity, it did not exist as a tax-paying community, but—

Faith, fanatic faith, once wedded fast
To some dear falsehood, hugs it to the last.

And so Mr. Chamberlain, having failed to find his longed-for treasure where the imperial rainbow rested, either in the field of war or in the treasury, made up his mind that the place where it was really hidden was in the field of Protection, disguised as preferential tariff. With a loud cry of "Eureka!" the Rainbow Chaser has started on his third and last quest. But this time he will not come back.

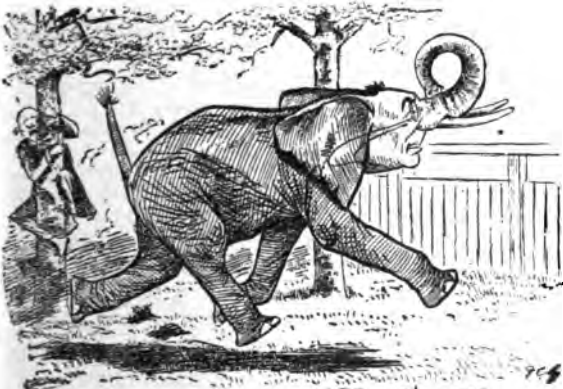
*The Root
of the
Delusion.*

The root of the poor man's delusion is his failure to realize what the British Empire is. He has dreamed of a Jingo Empire, and he has set himself to discover it. But as no such empire exists save in dreamland, he is doomed to inevitable disappointment. The British Empire, as it is, consists of forty millions of taxpayers in

the United Kingdom, who, at their own cost, maintain a splendid navy and a terribly expensive army, with which they profess their readiness to protect, free of all cost, the various colonies and dependencies which have been founded by English settlers, soldiers, and traders all over the world. The Indian Empire I leave on one side for the moment, as Mr. Chamberlain never seems even to remember that it exists. In the various self-governing colonies, there are some eleven millions of white-skinned men who, on condition of being allowed to govern themselves with freedom and independence as absolute as if they were independent republics, are proud to form part of the British Empire on the express and definite understanding that they are not to be taxed for the maintenance of that empire, and that they are to be insured by it against any foreign attack. Under such an arrangement, the British Empire has grown great and glorious. But at any time it would have been shattered into fragments if the mother country had insisted upon any of the conditions which are regarded as fundamental by every other empire that the world has ever seen. Hence, all analogies drawn from the example of other empires are dangerously misleading. Mr. Chamberlain has evidently never mastered this fundamental distinction. To him, an empire like Germany, which is a fiscal unit, is exactly on all-fours with the British Empire, which is so far from being a fiscal unit that Canada and Australia would secede to-morrow if we were to attempt to compel them to admit British goods duty free. The fact is that the British Colonial Empire is not an empire at all in the sense in which that word has hitherto been used. It is the loosest union of independent republics which the world has ever seen, and Mr. Chamberlain's passionate determination to convert it into an empire which would be a military and naval unit, a tax-paying unit, and a fiscal unit would only result, if he were not preemptorily shut up, in shattering the whole fabric to pieces.

*What the
Predominant
Partner Says.*

Mr. Chamberlain, having utterly failed to induce the colonies either to provide his army corps or to raise their contribution to the imperial expenditure from 2s. 9d. per head to the 20s. standard of the mother country,



THE POLITICAL "JINGO."

MR. BALFOUR (rather up a tree): "Good heavens! This is worse than Somaliland. He's getting dangerous. We shall have to send him away on a voyage again!"

From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).

now imagines that he will succeed in inducing the taxpayers of the United Kingdom to put up with dear bread and impaired foreign trade in order to realize his dream of a United Empire. He will find the predominant partner quite as recalcitrant as her junior partners in the colonies. If the colonies had shown any inclination to accede to his proposals about the army and the navy, if they had accepted the principle of community of sacrifice, then the predominant partner might perhaps have discussed his nostrum before rejecting it. But when the colonies have refused his two fundamental propositions, involving sacrifices on their part, the predominant partner will simply refuse even to listen to the preposterous proposal that she should add to all her other sacrifices this also,—that she should tax the food of her children and endanger her trade with her best customers for a purely hypothetical and imaginary improvement in the relations between the mother country and the colonies. We were getting on very well with the colonies before Mr. Chamberlain took to meddling. If we don't stop all this monkeying with the vitals of the realm, and stop it now, all that will be left of the British Empire will be a tomb in the cemetery of history, and over it the familiar inscription:

I was well. I would be better.
Here I lie!

*The
Confidence
Trick.*

Mr. Chamberlain's appeal to the workingmen will fail. You may play the confidence trick once, and even twice, but the third time the young man from the country is asked to lend the polite stranger a shilling on the assurance that in five minutes it will be returned with 100 per cent. interest, he usually calls for the police. If any of Mr. Chamberlain's promises had been fulfilled, he might have been listened to, even when he declared that to tax food is a sure cut to high wages. The lesson of the South African war is too recent. It was to cost £10,000,000, it was to be over by Christmas, it was triumphantly to vindicate British ascendancy, and to inaugurate a period of golden prosperity in Africa. In reality, it cost £200,000,000, it lasted nearly three years, it humiliated us before the whole world by proving that it needed 450,000 British soldiers to subdue 60,000 Dutch farmers, it has rendered it necessary for us to keep a much larger garrison in South Africa, and South Africa has never regained the pitch of prosperity it enjoyed under President Krüger. As for the promise to tax the workingman's bread in order to provide him with old-age pensions, this is simply a pretty scheme to fatten the dog by feeding him on his own tail. Since Mr. Chamberlain became colonial secretary, the army and navy expenditure has gone up by £35,000,000 a year. Here is a fund which would provide old-age pensions for everybody without a penny extra taxation. But as for trusting the minister who has squandered that colossal sum, and whose every promise has been falsified by events,—no, the British workingman is not quite such a preternatural idiot as to do any such thing.

*The
Warnings of
Cassandra.*

"If you don't listen to us," say Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Balfour—"if you don't convert the empire into a fiscal unit, then it is all U P with the British Empire." Poor Mr. Balfour's peroration was very touching. If these proposals of the colonial secretary are rejected, then he tells us we can never hope to see the British Empire rivaling the economic position of the United

States. Of course, we cannot, and we could not if all these nostrums were accepted six times over. The economic preponderance of the United States is so great, and is based upon such solid foundations, that it is inevitable she will attract into her orbit so many of our colonies that I have long since frankly recognized the fact—patent years ago to thinkers as diverse as Mr. Meredith and Mr. Rhodes—that it would be to our true interest to arrange a combination with the United States by which the British Empire should be absorbed by the younger but predominant partner. We cannot stay the stars in their courses. As for the question so often repeated, "What are we to do if the Germans retaliate upon the Canadians for giving a preference to British goods?" the answer is plain. We can do nothing, and we ought to do nothing. The colonies insist upon regarding themselves as independent fiscal entities. They would revolt if we ordered them to subordinate their fiscal independence to that of the empire at large, as German states merged their fiscal existence in the Imperial Zollverein. They cannot both have their cake and eat it.

*A
Significant
Object-Lesson.*

It is, perhaps, as well that Germany should have raised this question, because it illustrates in a small way the difficulty that would arise in a much more serious fashion in case we became embroiled in war, let us say, with France and Russia. Sir Wilfrid Laurier has frankly told us that in any European war in which Britain was involved Canada would insist upon being free either to assist or to remain neutral. But it was pointed out at once, for Canada to stand aloof when Great Britain was at war would necessitate her secession from the empire. In such a war neither France nor Russia could allow Canada to be neutral if it suited their naval or military commanders to occupy her territory and seize her fortresses. This, however, the Canadians do not see. They imagine that their partnership with Britain is a species of limited liability, from which they can draw all the profits, and when the pinch comes repudiate all responsibility for the losses. It is a mistake. And as Germany refuses to regard Canada as merely a section of the fiscal unit known as the British Empire, so other powers would refuse to allow Canada to enjoy the advantages of neutrality in case of a war with England on any terms short of a declaration of independence.

*Our Trade
with
Canada.*

It is obvious enough that the question of imperial tariffs is a very important one for the United States. While in logical theory there is much that is attractive about the Chamberlain idea, it does not seem to bear the light of practical scrutiny. In spite of the large differential Canada is already giving England, it is with the United States that Canadian trade is constantly growing, and not, relatively, with England. The time has come when the high-tariff wall between Canada and the United States ought to be battered down. Our own best customers are the people of Canada. We need access to their markets, and they, on the other hand, need unrestricted access to ours. They have vast areas of prairie and woodland, and great resources of coal, ore, precious

metals, water power, and so on; but they have a comparatively small population and a comparatively limited capital. The immigrants whom they find best adapted to aid them in the work of developing their great country are those from the United States. On the other hand, no other single element of immigration into this country has been so welcome and so advantageous to us as that which has come from Canada. Mr. Chamberlain's policy is one which would by deliberate intention increase and crystallize the alienations caused by the artificial line which now stretches across the North American continent, and would tend to hold Canada in the bonds of an ever-strengthening European connection. But the policy which should follow the lines of a natural and advantageous evolution of Canadian interests is that which recognizes the fact that Canada is an American, not a European, country, and that its best destinies are associated with the United States rather than with England.

*Reciprocity
the True
Answer.*

Whether Mr. Chamberlain's views are to be looked upon as a mere impracticable dream or as a statesman-like policy to be reckoned with, the ready and effective answer that the United States should give is to be found in a frank, neighborly, and generous proposal of reciprocity between this country and Canada,—a reciprocity that, if possible, should be brought to the point of full commercial union. After that, there would be much advantage in the development through reciprocity arrangements of trade between North America and the Latin-American republics. In this matter, the Canadians might well participate, to their own advantage and that of everybody else. As for the Australasians, they are bound in any case to develop their own economic policy without much suggestion or dictation from England or any other quarter. It would seem as if they might well enter into some mutually advantageous arrangement of preferential trade relations with the mother country. On one point there seems to be a good deal of agreement in the United States,—namely, that the current proposal to abandon free trade in England is going to be of some assistance to President Roosevelt and the Republican party, next year, in their contention that, although our tariff may be considerably modified in particular schedules, the time has not come for any radical departure from our system of protection. President Roosevelt is a convinced exponent of this idea. He would not, however, oppose the view that the Congress which is to be elected in the autumn of 1904 should be expected to take up the problem of overhauling the Dingley schedules.

President Roosevelt and His Party. Events last month made it as certain as such things can ever be in advance that President Roosevelt will be nominated by the Republican party, next year, without any open opposition whatsoever. There are already practically pledged to his support far more than enough delegates to secure his nomination. The final stand of the group of strong Republican politicians opposed to President Roosevelt's nomination was made in Ohio in the latter part of May, when the State convention was held. Senator Foraker and the Roosevelt Republicans of Ohio desired that the convention should commend and indorse the President. Senator Hanna and his following were determined to prevent the indorsement of the President for next year. It was the plan of those who hoped to prevent Mr. Roosevelt's nomination to hold State conventions as late as possible next year, and meanwhile to organize an effective Republican opposition in Ohio, Indiana, New York, and a few other States, which, with the control of the negro delegations from the South, might turn the scale against President Roosevelt. This project was not openly avowed, but was tentatively entertained by a group of powerful politicians, with undoubted Wall Street approval. To state this fact is not necessarily to say anything to the discredit of those gentlemen, who have a perfect right, of course, to favor or oppose any candidates, as they may choose. The interesting point simply is that their reluctance was swept away by the enthusiasm of the Re-

publican masses, and that their opposition has been abandoned because they have found it to be hopeless, and therefore useless. The last cloud was dissipated by a very remarkable telegram from President Roosevelt, who was at that time on his travels in the far West. Mr. Hanna had telegraphed him, frankly stating that the issue had been raised in such a way that he found it necessary to oppose a resolution indorsing the President for nomination next year. President Roosevelt replied in the following telegram, dated May 25 :

HON. M. A. HANNA, Cleveland, Ohio.

Your telegram received. I have not asked any man for his support. I have had nothing whatever to do with raising this issue. Inasmuch as it has been raised, of course those who favor my administration and my nomination will favor indorsing both, and those who do not will oppose.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

The telegram was at the same time given to the Associated Press, and it aroused the Republican voters irresistibly. On the next day, Mr. Hanna replied as follows :

CLEVELAND, OHIO, May 26, 1908.

THE PRESIDENT.

Your telegram of the 25th. In view of the sentiment expressed, I shall not oppose the indorsement of your administration and candidacy by our State convention. I have given the substance of this to the Associated Press.

M. A. HANNA.

On May 27, the President telegraphed as follows to Senator Hanna :

HON. M. A. HANNA, Cleveland, Ohio.

I thank you for your telegram, and appreciate your action.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.



DELIGHTED.—From the Herald (New York)

The President and the Country. The Ohio convention unanimously indorsed President Roosevelt for nomination next year, and the well-known opposition of certain Indiana Republicans, under the lead of Senator Fairbanks,—himself a well-known aspirant for Presidential honors,—was also immediately and frankly abandoned. While it is true that many of our American politicians are both opportunist and mercurial in their affiliations, and might therefore even yet endeavor to prevent President Roosevelt's nomination, the masses of plain voters are not so changeable; and unless things should happen wholly



THE MASTER OF THE WORLD.

POPE ROOSEVELT: "All that lies to the left of this mark comes under the American political sphere—and all on the right belongs to American trade."

From *Lustige Blätter*.

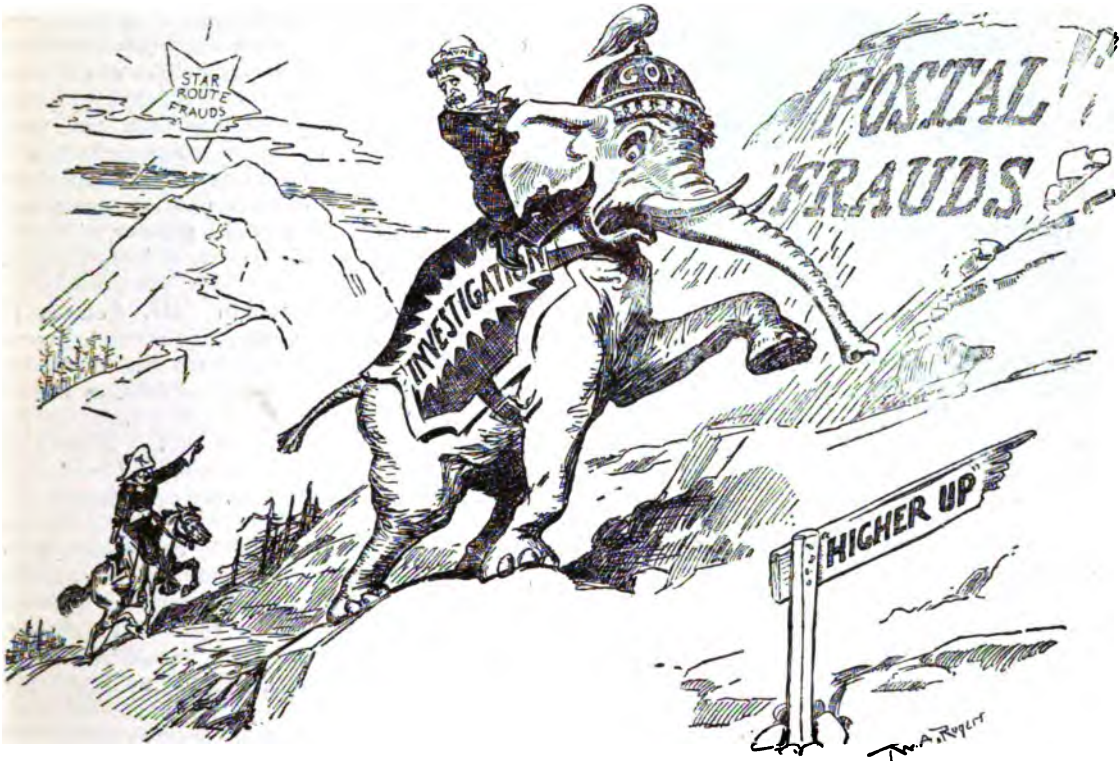
outside the range of the probable, nobody would now dream of questioning or opposing the popular demand for Mr. Roosevelt's nomination. He reappeared in Washington on June 6, after his long journeying through the West. No President had ever before undertaken so extensive a tour. During his absence, he had spoken to different audiences nearly three hundred times, and had traveled by rail perhaps fourteen thousand or fifteen thousand miles. Yet he came back to his duties at Washington in superb physical condition, with a fresh mind and an unimpaired zest for the business of his office. His journey had been well planned, and was carried out with marvelous adherence to the original itinerary. Mr. Loeb, the President's secretary, gave full demonstration, on this remarkable journey, of his fitness to succeed Mr. Cortelyou,—and no higher compliment could possibly be paid. The President's journey acquainted him intimately with the men and problems of the Western half of the United States, and while it added decidedly to his qualifications for the work of his

office, it was, on the other hand, an inspiration to many thousands of his fellow-citizens who heard him speak, and particularly to the young people of the West, in whose eyes he is a veritable hero. In the middle of June he attended the commencement exercises at the University of Virginia, and spoke, with fine historical knowledge and appreciation, of the men whose names are associated with that commonwealth and its famous university. Later in the month, it was his plan to go to his home at Oyster Bay, Long Island, for the remainder of the summer.

The ramifications of the abuses and scandals connected with the postal department have proved to be so surprising, as the investigation has proceeded, that it was impossible, last month, to say where the thing would end. Comment may not, therefore, be made in any conclusive manner. It is enough to say that the country may be assured that President Roosevelt, whose administration is in no manner chargeable with these abuses, has not only given the most emphatic orders that no offense is to be condoned, and that no guilty man is to be spared, but he has also been giving much time, thought, and energy to the details of the investigation which Assistant Postmaster-General Bristow has been carrying on. The general situation that has come to light can be summed up in a few words. A number of people holding quite responsible or confidential positions in



UNCLE SAM: "Now let's see you punch the bag."—From the *Herald* (New York).



BEGINNING TO BE AFFECTED BY THE ALTITUDE.—From the *Herald* (New York).

the postal service have been using their positions improperly to make money. Some of these have been connected with the making of contracts, and have corruptly participated in the profits. Others have had a secret share in the business of concerns engaged in furnishing various kinds of supplies used by the Post-Office Department. In other cases there have been serious abuses in the nature of carrying persons on the payrolls who were not rendering any public service.

Politics and Office-holding. Misconduct of this particular sort is unfortunately traceable, to some extent, to the conditions under which the National Republican Committee was allowed to have so much consideration at the hands of Mr. McKinley's administration. The postal service was used, at least to some extent, for the convenient purpose of paying off minor political debts and obligations due to the exigencies of campaign work. Much of this is attributed to Mr. Perry S. Heath, who had occupied the double position of secretary of the Republican National Committee under Mr. Hanna's chairmanship and Assistant Postmaster-General under Mr. Charles Emory Smith. But it would appear to be a little unfair for the newspapers to men-

tion Mr. Heath so continually,—as if his use of the postal service for political purposes were upon his own account rather than upon that of men of higher official standing than himself. The fact, of course, is that there has always been more or less of this kind of political abuse of the postal service, and that instead of increasing in extent, it has been gradually diminishing. What the campaign managers should now understand is that public opinion in the United States has grown away from that sort of thing, and that henceforth the postal service must be conducted upon strict business principles.

More Serious Offenses.

The investigation has uncovered two rather distinct lines of misconduct. One is what may be called the political abuse of the postal service, for which, certainly, we have no apologies to make, and which we will condemn as unsparingly as possible. The other line of disclosure, however, is far more serious. It is the discovery that trusted officials,—superintendents of bureaus, heads of special branches of the postal service, and men employed from one administration to another in expert positions,—have been engaged in criminal conspiracies for defrauding the Government and



MR. ROBERT J. WYNNE.

(First Assistant Postmaster-General.)

MR. JOSEPH L. BRISTOW.

(Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General.)

enriching themselves in a variety of ways. Not all of these men have been appointed under Republican administrations, some of them going back to Mr. Cleveland's time. When such a state of affairs is discovered, there is no use whatever in moralizing about it; and many of the editorials, even in our most reputable newspapers, have been both silly and impertinent in their admonitions to President Roosevelt and their reproaches directed at Postmaster-General Payne. There is simply nothing to do when such things are found to exist but to investigate relentlessly, expose unsparingly, and punish as fully and swiftly as the processes of law will permit. And this is exactly what President Roosevelt and Postmaster-General Payne are trying to do, with the very valuable help of Assistant Postmaster-General Wynne, and especially of Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General Bristow, who is in direct charge of the necessary work of detection. A number of indictments had been found by the middle of June, and incriminating evidence had been secured against many other men guilty of official misconduct. The administration, instead of being blamed at this juncture, is entitled to confidence and praise for the resolute way in which it is going about its work, and for its disregard of the efforts certain very conspicuous politicians have been making to shield some of their unfortunate *protégés*. Later on, there will be time and opportunity for summing up the results of the investigation and prosecution. It does not now appear that there have been any colossal frauds, and the American postal service in general is unquestionably made up of honest, faithful, and competent public servants. The rascals must and will be weeded out, regardless of political and personal "pulls."

*The
Civil Service
Board.*

Under these circumstances, the country will be the more ready to adhere to the general principles of civil-service reform, of which principles, for many years past, President Roosevelt has been the most prominent and active exponent among men who are entitled to be called practical politicians. The National Civil Service Commission, moreover, will be incited to even greater vigilance than heretofore in the exposure of irregularities. Two changes in the personnel of the commission were announced last month. Mr. Foulke, of Indiana, after a year of valuable service, has retired for reasons relating to his health and his future plans. Mr. James R. Garfield, as is well known, has left the commission because of his appointment to the headship of the Bureau of Corporations in the Department of Commerce. Of the two new members of the commission, one is from New York, and the other is from Minnesota. Mr. Henry D. Greene, of Duluth, who takes Mr. Garfield's place, had the general indorsement of Minnesota public men. He was formerly a Democrat, but opposed the Bryan money policy, and has lately acted with the Republicans. He was graduated at Princeton in the class of '79, and is a classmate of President Woodrow Wilson, who heartily concurred in his indorsement for the commissionership. Mr. Alvord W. Cooley, who succeeds Mr. Foulke, comes from Westchester, N. Y. Mr. Cooley is thirty years old and a Harvard graduate who has served two or three terms in the New York Legislature with ability and acceptance, and whose personal character and political views well qualify him to be a member of the Civil Service Commission. Mr. John R. Procter, of Kentucky, the Democratic member of the board, remains at his post with the hearty approval of all upright men of whatever party.

*An
Ohio Man and
Platform.*

The Republicans of Ohio have brought forward a strong man,—and one highly typical of our present generation of Americans,—in the candidate whom they unanimously nominated for governor last month. Mr. Myron T. Herrick, of Cleveland, was a close personal friend of the late President McKinley, and was often mentioned for cabinet positions and other high honors. Mr. Herrick was born on an Ohio farm, made his own way through Oberlin College, studied law, and subsequently took place rapidly in business and finance in the city of Cleveland. He is at present the Ohio member of the Republican National Committee, and is widely known as a man of the highest character and of remarkable acumen and versatility. The Ohio Republican platform is worthy of

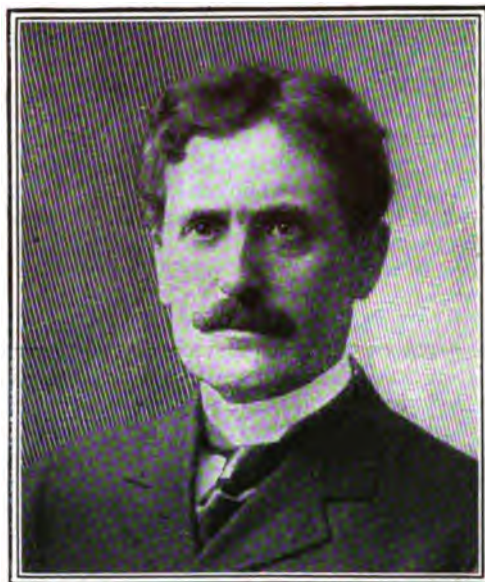
notice, since it was devised by men who will have much influence in shaping the national platform of next year. The strongest plank is that which supports the traditional tariff policy of the party, and it is perhaps worth quoting in full :

The protective-tariff policy of the Republican party has made the United States the greatest industrial nation, astonished the world with the tremendous development of our boundless resources ; has added vastly to our foreign commerce ; has greatly increased the prosperity of the farmer, and has advanced American labor to the best scale of living ever attained. We oppose all attacks upon this policy, whatever the pretext, as tending to bring back the disastrous days of Democratic tariff-revision and free trade. Changing conditions and the possible benefits of reciprocity may call for timely readjustment of schedules, but protection as a principle and as a policy must be administered by the friends of American prosperity, and must not be sacrificed.

Other planks declare that the Republican party can be trusted to deal judiciously with trusts and combinations ; extol the party's past dealing with monetary questions, and favor an elastic currency ; indorse the policy of naval expansion and favor encouragement to the American merchant marine, and call for the reduction of representation (in the Electoral College and in Congress) of any State excluding any part of its citizenship from the ballot. This question of a proportionate reduction of the representation of Southern States on account of the new franchise laws has been a good deal discussed in the North during the past month. Such a policy was, for example, indorsed by the Republican Club of New York City, although it had, some weeks before, been rejected by the Union League Club. There is at present no prospect that anything of the kind will be seriously undertaken.

*The
Erie Canal
Question.*

One of the local planks in the Ohio platform demands the further improvement of the interior waterways of the State. There is a strong movement in favor of very extensive works for the better navigation of the Ohio River, while there is always more or less harbor work demanded in the ports of Lake Erie. The canal system of the State, once very important, has fallen into comparative disuse. The present interest of Ohio in interior waterways, however, is a slight affair when compared with the great practical question that immediately confronts the voters of the State of New York. As our readers are well aware, the Legislature, in its recent session, voted in favor of a measure to spend more than one hundred million dollars for the widening and deepening of the Erie Canal, with a view to greatly improving the waterway which connects the Great Lakes with the Hudson River.



MR. MYRON T. HERRICK.
(Republican nominee for Governor of Ohio.)

and thus with the ocean, at the port of New York. Under the constitution, it is necessary for this expenditure to be ratified by the voters of the State before it can be entered upon. Hardly ever before in the history of the world has so expensive a public work been undertaken, even by a great national government or empire, much less by a minor commonwealth like the State of New York. We publish elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW a well-informed article upon the Erie Canal and this proposed enlargement by a gentleman well qualified by careful study to present the question. Against the project, it is urged by some that it would be better to go still further and make a veritable ship canal at, say, double the cost. This idea has fascination. Others argue that since the proposed enlargement will chiefly benefit the Western farmers and producers of bulky materials, it is not right that the people of the State of New York at large should pay the bills, and that the canal, therefore, should be constructed by the national government for the general good, or that the tolls should be reestablished so that the traffic using the canal should pay at least a part of the expense. Since the newspapers and the principal commercial organizations of New York City are in favor of the proposed measure, it is believed that the voters of the metropolis, together with those of Buffalo and intermediate towns along the Hudson and the Erie Canal, will succeed in securing the adoption of the measure at the polls in November.

Floods, Fires, and Drought. The season thus far in the United States has been marked by unusual and destructive conditions of climate and weather.

In the East, the months of April and May, with a part of June, were the driest ever known. Later in June, there came copious and protracted showers. In the West, the season has been one of abnormal rainfall, resulting in almost unprecedented floods. Great destruction was wrought by the Kansas, Missouri, and Des Moines rivers, and at various places by the Mississippi. There was much loss of life and property in the neighborhood of Topeka, Kan., and great destruction at Kansas City, particularly on the Kansas side of the river. We publish elsewhere in this number an illustrated article on these Western floods. As we remarked last month, there will in the course of time be developed some system of reservoirs for the retention of surplus flood-water, and its release when needed in dry seasons. One effect of the protracted droughts in the East was seen in hundreds of more or less destructive forest fires, which raged in the Adirondack region and in many other districts. We also publish an article on the general subject of forest fires, prepared for us by the editor of that excellent periodical *Forestry and Irrigation*, which intelligently expounds the views of the Bureau of Forestry at Washington. The Government is taking hold seriously of the problem of diminishing the ravages of forest fires, and its success in that direction will be of almost incalculable benefit. In loss of life, the worst of the season's casualties was caused by a cloudburst in Oregon, which destroyed a large part of Heppner, the county seat of Morrow County. It is reported that about five hundred out of the fifteen hundred inhabitants of the town lost their lives in the rush of water down the narrow valley in which the town is situated. The extraordinary rains must certainly have proved detrimental to Western crops, but it was not possible to calculate, last month, the extent of the damage. Winter wheat was generally reported as a good crop, and the outlook for spring wheat reported as better than usual. The corn crop was very late in being planted, and is probably destined to be rather below the average of the past few years. The season's furious and destructive storms have not visited the West alone, but have also wrought much damage in the South, where the cotton crop is affected, and where from high water or tornado a good many lives were lost in June. Thus, many people were killed by a cloudburst in South Carolina, in the neighborhood of Spartanburg, on June 6, the greatest damage being at Clifton, where it is reported that fifty-eight lives were lost, with

much damage to several manufacturing villages. On June 1 there had been a fearful tornado in Georgia, which centered at Gainesville, causing a loss of about a hundred lives. We have alluded to only a few of the localities upon which the elements have dealt out death and loss within the past few weeks.

In Germany and France. The election of a new Reichstag in Germany, last month, as was expected, resulted in marked gains for the Social Democrats.

The socialistic gains were made chiefly among workingmen in the growing manufacturing towns and smaller cities. In Krupp's town of Essen, for instance, the Socialist vote increased from 4,400 to more than 22,700, and throughout Germany there was an increase of from 400,000 to 500,000 in the total number of Social Democratic voters. The Emperor is bitterly opposed to the Social Democrats because they steadfastly work and vote against his military and naval programmes, and against the tariff and commercial policies of the government and the Agrarians. This party has now a larger number of adherents than any other in Germany. Under the German system, a second ballot is necessary in a great many districts, and the final results of the election will be in better form for our presentation next month. In France, the cabinet of Premier Combes holds its own, and pursues its drastic course in the expulsion of the religious orders. The French illustrated papers have been full of pictures, striking and pathetic, that set forth the scenes attending the breaking up of famous old homes of monastic orders. There continues also in France, but as yet without decisive result, the discussion of the advisability of a complete separation of church and state by means of an abrogation of the long-standing Concordat between the French Government and the Vatican. This Concordat has stood since 1801; the present ministry is working for its abrogation. Another very important topic in France is that of the shortening of the army term. The Senate has already passed a bill to reduce the term of military service from three years to two. The Germans have found this reduction of decided industrial advantage to the nation. It is typical of France that no topic was more conspicuous in the press of Paris and the country at large, last month, than the election of Edmond Rostand, the brilliant poet and dramatic author, to membership in the French Academy. Another French topic of the season has been that of automobile racing, in consequence of the terrible disasters that accompanied the attempt, the latter part of May, to race from Paris to Madrid.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From May 20 to June 20, 1903.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

May 20.—Postmaster-General Payne cancels the promotions of over three thousand postal clerks.

May 21.—A large deficiency is discovered in the free-delivery service of the Post-Office Department.

May 24.—The appointment of Charles H. Keep, of New York, to succeed Milton E. Ailes as Assistant Secretary of the Treasury is announced.

May 27.—Pennsylvania Republicans indorse President Roosevelt for nomination in 1904.

June 1.—In the judicial elections of Cook County, Ill., fourteen Democratic and four Republican candidates are successful.

June 4.—Ohio Republicans nominate Myron T. Herrick for governor and indorse President Roosevelt for nomination in 1904.

June 6.—President Roosevelt instructs Postmaster-General Payne to make a thorough investigation of every charge affecting his department.

June 10.—Federal troops are ordered to Morenci, Ariz., to subdue striking miners and smelter men.

June 17.—Postmaster-General Payne makes public Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General Bristow's report on the Tulloch charges of irregularities in the Washington post-office.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

May 20.—The enlarged Transvaal Legislative Council is opened at Pretoria by Sir Arthur Lawley.... By a vote of 313 to 237, the French Chamber of Deputies approves the government's policy in the religious question.... It is announced that the chief of police at Kishineff, Russia, has been dismissed for failure to suppress the anti-Jewish riots.... The Congress of Venezuela confers on President Castro full authority to make loans for funding the country's foreign and domestic debt.

May 23.—An imposing demonstration against the London Education bill is held at Hyde Park.... The Italian Chamber passes the army estimates.

May 26.—The Australian Commonwealth Parliament is opened at Melbourne.

May 27.—M. von Plehwe, Russian Minister of the Interior, receives at St. Petersburg a deputation of Jews from Kishineff.

May 30.—Señor Candam is elected President of Peru.... The Japanese House of Representatives passes the appropriation for naval expansion.

June 1.—Premier Pryor, of British Columbia, is dismissed from office; the Hon. Richard McBride, leader of the opposition, is asked to form a ministry.

June 5.—The Cape Colony Parliament is opened.

June 9.—Debate on Mr. Chamberlain's amendment to the finance bill, opposing the remission of the tax on



THE PARIS-MADRID AUTOMOBILE RACE OF MAY 31.

(One of the racing cars rounding a sharp corner. It was here that one of the worst accidents happened.)

wheat, is begun in the British House of Commons.... Serious anti-Jew riots are reported from Verestjko, near Brodi, in Russia.

June 10.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 424 to 28, rejects the proposed amendment to the budget bill.

June 11.—A revolution breaks out in Serbia; King Alexander, Queen Draga, the Queen's two brothers, Premier Markovitch, and the minister of war are assassinated; Prince Peter Karageorgevitch is proclaimed King by the army; a provisional government is formed.

June 12.—By a vote of 220 to 45, the French Senate passes a bill reducing the period of military service to two years.... The British House of Commons passes the budget bill.



MR. CHARLES H. KEEP.

(The new Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.)



THE REV. J. J. HARTY,
OF ST. LOUIS.

(The new Archbishop of Manila.)



THE LATE RICHARD HENRY STODDARD AND MRS. STODDARD IN THEIR NEW YORK CITY HOME.

(Mr. Stoddard was one of the last of the group of American poets who rose to eminence in the second and third quarters of the nineteenth century. His "Recollections, Literary and Personal," had been completed before his death and will be published in the coming autumn. Mrs. Stoddard also had written poetry that commanded the respect of the critics.)

June 13.—The Italian cabinet resigns.

June 15.—Prince Peter Karageorgevitch accepts the Servian crown on condition the murderers of the late king and queen shall be exiled.

June 16.—The Hungarian cabinet resigns... The French budget for 1904 shows a large deficit.

June 17.—The Spanish budget statement for 1904 estimates the expenditure at \$193,600,000, and the revenue at \$200,000,000.... The Senate and National Assembly of Servia adopts a modification of the constitution of 1888.... In the German elections, the Socialist vote shows great gains.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

May 20.—The British House of Commons resolves that Great Britain should confer with other powers participating in the Berlin Congress to prevent further atrocities and misgovernment in the Congo Free State (see page 33).... President Roosevelt sends a message of

congratulation to President Palma on the occasion of the first anniversary of the republic of Cuba.

May 22.—The treaty between the United States and Cuba, embodying the Platt amendment, is signed at Havana by the representatives of the two governments.

May 26.—An international telegraph conference is opened in London.

June 1.—The Cuban minister to Great Britain is instructed to open negotiations there for raising the loan of \$35,000,000.

June 4.—It is announced that an imperial prohibition has forced the withdrawal of American insurance companies from Germany.

June 8.—French artillery bombards the Moorish city of Figuiç.

June 12.—Count Cassini, the Russian ambassador to the United States, confers with President Roosevelt relative to the Kishineff massacres.

June 15.—It is announced that the commercial treaty between the United States and China has been settled, with the exception of the question of reopening two Manchurian ports; interior taxes on goods in transit have been abolished.

June 19.—Great Britain withdraws her minister from the Servian capital as a rebuke for the assassination of the King and Queen.

DISASTERS AND CASUALTIES.

May 20.—Fire at St. Hyacinthe, Quebec, causes a loss estimated at \$400,000.

May 21.—Tornadoes in Kansas kill several persons and wreck many buildings.

May 22.—Fire destroys the shops, minor offices, and warehouse of the Seaboard Air Line at Portsmouth, Va.; the loss is estimated at \$750,000.

May 24.—Six persons are killed and many others seriously injured in connection with an automobile race from Paris to Madrid; the race is discontinued by order of the French and Spanish governments.

May 25.—Tornadoes in southern Nebraska kill fifteen persons, injure many others, and destroy property valued at \$100,000.There are six fatal cases of bubonic plague at Iquique, a Chilean seaport.

May 26.—A gale on the coast of Newfoundland results in the loss of twelve lives.

May 27.—In a collision between the British steamer *Huddersfield* and the Norwegian steamer *Uto*, near Grimsby, twenty-two emigrants lose their lives.

May 28.—It is reported that two thousand people have been killed by an earthquake at Melazgherd, a village near the source of the Euphrates, in Asiatic Turkey.

May 30-31.—Floods in the Kansas, Missouri, and Des Moines rivers cause the loss of more than one hundred lives, and render thousands of persons homeless; the property losses in Kansas are estimated at \$17,000,000, centering chiefly at Kansas City and Topeka (see page 74).

June 1.—A tornado at Gainesville, Ga., causes a loss of more than one hundred lives and a property damage estimated at \$500,000.

June 2.—By the sinking of the steamer *Arequipa*, at Valparaiso, Chile, 63 persons are drowned.

June 3.—Fire destroys the state pawnbroking establishment at Naples, Italy, valued at \$2,400,000.

June 4.—Fire destroys several blocks at Ottawa, Canada.Serious forest fires rage in the Adirondack and Catskill regions of New York State, and in Maine (see page 68).

June 5.—The breaking of the Suy levee, on the Illinois side of the Mississippi, below St. Louis, results in great damage to property.



THE LATE PAUL DU CHAILLU.

(This intrepid explorer became famous more than forty years ago as the discoverer of the African gorillas and pygmies. His accounts were not believed by scientists at the time, but all his statements have since been proved true. He afterward traveled in many other lands, and wrote many interesting books.)



THE LATE GEN. ALEXANDER M'DOWELL M'COOK.

(Of the famous "Fighting McCooks," of Ohio.)



THE LATE R. C. BOWMAN.

(For the past seven years the able and popular cartoonist of the *Minneapolis Tribune*; much of his work has been reproduced in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*.)

June 6.—A cloudburst at Clifton, S. C., causes the loss of more than fifty lives and property damage to manufacturing villages of \$3,500,000.

June 8.—The breaking of levees at East St. Louis, Ill., and at other points on the Mississippi River near St. Louis, causes much loss of life and property.

June 9.—Fire in Peking destroys the Chinese Imperial Treasury buildings.Two hundred lives are lost at Azof, Russia, by the breaking of a steamer's gangplank.

June 10.—Two-thirds of East St. Louis is submerged, with the loss of

nearly one hundred lives (see page 74).

June 11.—An earthquake cracks the walls of buildings in San Francisco, Cal.

June 14.—In a cloudburst at Heppner, Ore., five hundred persons are drowned; the damage to property is extensive.



THE LATE CARDINAL VAUGHAN.
(Head of the English Catholics.)

June 18.—The breaking of a levee floods thousands of acres of Louisiana cotton land, rendering about five thousand persons destitute.

June 19.—Two severe earthquakes are felt in Wales.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

May 20.—The Porter Brothers Company, a large fruit commission house of Chicago, is placed in the hands of receivers.

May 21.—Rev. Robert F. Coyle, of Denver, Colo., is chosen Moderator of the Presbyterian General Assembly, in session at Los Angeles, Cal.... President Roosevelt takes part in the laying of the corner-stone of a monument to Lewis and Clark, at Portland, Ore.... The Interstate Commerce Commission takes steps to compel the coal-carrying railroads to produce certain contracts.

May 22.—It is announced in the Presbyterian General Assembly that all the eleven amendments to the Confession of Faith have been adopted by the presbyteries.

May 26.—Sixty-eight insurgents are killed and twenty-nine captured by a force of constabulary and volunteers in Cebu, P. I.

May 27.—The International Arbitration Conference meets at Lake Mohonk, N. Y.... A great mass-meeting in New York City denounces the Kishineff outrages.... The strike in the Union Pacific Railroad shops is declared off.

May 28.—The Presbyterian General Assembly formally enacts the amendments to the Confession of Faith.

May 29.—The bicentenary of the foundation of St. Petersburg is celebrated.

May 30.—An equestrian statue of General Sherman by St. Gaudens is unveiled in New York City.

May 31.—Rios, the former Filipino insurgent leader, is sentenced to death.

June 1.—The Antarctic exploring steamer *Gauss*, of the German expedition, arrives at Durban (see page 81).

June 5.—President Roosevelt returns to Washington from his Western trip.... The Chicago laundry strike, begun on May 1, is settled; it is agreed to submit all grievances to a board of arbitration.

June 6.—The grain-dealing house of Eppinger & Co., of San Francisco, fails, with estimated liabilities of \$1,350,000, and assets of \$700,000.

June 7.—Rain breaks a drought of fifty days' duration in the eastern part of the United States.

June 12.—Heavy rains in New York State put out the forest fires.

June 13.—Three thousand five hundred employees of the Pennsylvania Railroad on the Philadelphia terminal division demand a shortening of their work-day from twelve to eight hours.

June 15.—The government of Honduras confiscates a railroad, 58 miles in length, owned by the Honduras Syndicate, an American corporation.

OBITUARY.

May 20.—Dr. Thomas George Morton, the eminent Philadelphia surgeon, 68.

May 22.—Capt. William Bainbridge-Hoff, U.S.N., retired, author of standard works on naval tactics, 56.

May 23.—Rev. Dr. William Inge, provost of Worcester College, Oxford, 73.

May 24.—"Max O'Rell" (M. Paul Blouët), author and lecturer, 55.

May 25.—Dr. Octavius A. White, a well-known yellow fever expert, 78.... Gen. Mayia Rodriguez, a distinguished Cuban revolutionist.... Frederic O. MacCartney, of Massachusetts, a prominent Socialist, 38.

May 26.—Dr. Selim Hobart Peabody, the educational expert, 73.

May 27.—Marcel Renault, the automobile expert.... Rear-Admiral David Smith, U.S.N., retired, 70.... Maj. James Chester, U.S.A., retired, an authority on artillery matters, 69.

May 28.—Capt. C. Webster Wilson, U.S.N., retired, 65.... Rev. Dr. John H. W. Stuckenberg, theologian and author, 68.

May 30.—Gen. Isaac S. Bangs, of Maine, a veteran of the Civil War, 65.

May 31.—Rowland C. Bowman, of Minneapolis, the well-known cartoonist, 32.

June 1.—Prince Julius of Schleswig-Holstein, brother of the King of Denmark, 79.

June 2.—Prof. J. P. Lesley, geologist, of the University of Pennsylvania, 84.

June 3.—Henry Romeike, originator of the press-clipping bureau business, 48.

June 5.—Gen. William Patton, a Pennsylvania railroad-builder, 87.

June 8.—Judge George H. Durand, of Michigan, 65.... Robert Frederick Blum, the painter and illustrator, 46.

June 11.—King Alexander, 27, and Queen Draga, 36, of Serbia (both assassinated).

June 12.—Gen. Alexander McDowell McCook, U.S.A., retired, 73.

June 13.—Hon. John F. McKinney, of Ohio, 76.

June 15.—Henry G. Jesup, for twenty-two years professor of botany in Dartmouth College, 77.... Carl Gegenbauer, the German anatomist, 77.

June 18.—Gen. Frank Wheaton, U.S.A., retired, 70.

June 19.—Cardinal Vaughan, head of the Roman Catholic Church in England, 71.

THE CONGO FREE STATE AND ITS AUTOCRAT.

[From time to time, during the past five or six years, charges of greater or less definiteness have been preferred against the Belgian administration of the Congo Free State. Discussion of these allegations in the press led, in May last, to an important debate in the British House of Commons, which culminated in the adoption of the resolution cited by Mr. Stead in the following article. Our readers will be interested in the experiences and observations of an American missionary in the Congo country, as related by Mr. Morrison in the article accompanying Mr. Stead's. Mr. Morrison has only recently returned from Africa.]

I.—LEOPOLD, EMPEROR OF THE CONGO.

BY W. T. STEAD.

IT is the rule in these character sketches always to describe the subject as he appears to himself at his best, and not as he appears to his enemies at his worst, but it is impossible for me in this case to do either; the resources of the English language are inadequate to describe Emperor Leopold as he appears to himself at his best moments. An artist who could dip his brush in the radiance of the setting sun might possibly portray the angelical figure of the halo'd monarch who conceals his wings beneath his epaulets and lingers for a while in the midst of an ungrateful world. On the other hand, the blackest ink would fail to depict the same man as he appears to his enemies at his worst. If we look over the efforts of the mediæval artists when they exhausted the resources of their imagination in picturing the enemy of mankind with horns, hoofs, and tail complete, we can get some far-away, faint resemblance of the monarch who was to have made the Congo Free State a paradise, and who has converted it into a hell.

In this brief article, therefore, I shall neither attempt to describe Emperor Leopold at his best nor at his worst, but merely put together briefly, in plain, unvarnished fashion, some of the leading facts concerning the sovereign who, as the result of the debate in the British House of Commons on Mr. Herbert Samuel's motion, now stands impeached before the bar of Christendom for his high crimes and misdemeanors against humanity, and more especially for his violation, wholesale and retail, of the provisions of the international act drawn up at Berlin in the years 1884-85.

In this sketch I shall not deal in the least with Leopold II., the King of the Belgians. Belgium is a little state, prosperous, industrious, pacific, whose inhabitants by sheer dint of hard work and applied intelligence have been able to build up almost as large a trade per head as any of the world-swaggering empires who have annexed and colonized continents. As a constitu-

tional monarch, I have nothing to say about Leopold II., King of the Belgians. In this sketch I wish to deal with him solely as the founder of an immense empire in Central Africa, an enterprise which, I am willing to admit, was begun at first with a very laudable ambition, but which, unfortunately, has come to be associated with all the horrors of a new slave trade, and which has as its chief corner-stone the most cynical of international obligations to be recorded in the history of our time.

AS DUKE OF BRABANT.

Louis Philippe Marie Victor, to give him his full title, is the son of King Leopold I. and of Princess Louise, the daughter of Louis Philippe, the citizen king of the French who had to skip from his kingdom in 1848. From his father he inherited great political acumen, and a tradition of intimacy with the English court which has continued to the present day. So close was this intimacy that he made it his invariable rule, as long as our late Queen lived, to write a letter to her every week—a letter to which she seldom replied, but which she always read with that keen interest with which she always followed the movement of international affairs. As he was born in 1835, he is now sixty-eight years of age. His wife, who died last year, was the daughter of the late Archduke Joseph of Austria; he married her when only eighteen, and spent the first years of his married life in traveling through Italy, Austria, Palestine, and Greece. He was created Duke of Brabant when only eleven years old, and served in the army, rising from the rank of sub-lieutenant to that of lieutenant-general. He became a member of the Belgian Senate on obtaining his majority, and early distinguished himself by the keen interest with which he followed all debates relating to the development of Belgian trade and industry. From the time he was twenty-five till he was thirty he spent most of his time abroad, and has



LEOPOLD II., KING OF THE BELGIANS.

probably traveled more widely than any other crowned head in Europe. In 1860, he went to Constantinople; in 1862, he went to Spain and Morocco. When he was barely twenty he had first touched upon Africa, when he visited Egypt on his way to Palestine. In 1862, he went again to Egypt, and traveled through Algiers and Tunis. In 1864, he took further flight, and spent nearly two years in British India and China. Very soon after his return, his father died, in December, 1865, and he became Leopold II., the King of the Belgians. Four years later, he lost his only son, Crown Prince Leopold, and his brother Philippe, Count of Flanders, became heir to the throne.

His reign has been comparatively uneventful; but in the year 1870, when the Franco-German War burst out, the draft of the secret treaty was published which showed the peril which threatened the little kingdom, when he entered upon a period of considerable anxiety. England stood as his friend in those days and the danger passed; all that he had to do was to guard his frontier and to intern such troops as strayed from France into Belgian territory.

In 1874, he founded a yearly prize of \$25,000 for the best work on a given subject announced five years in advance. But the King, even although he varied in the due discharge of his duties as constitutional monarch by his visits to Paris, where he early established a certain reputation, did not satisfy his ambition. No one who has met the King, and certainly no one who has ever done business with him, could doubt that he is a man of very great capacity, especially in the driving of hard bargains and looking after the main chance.

HIS EARLY AMBITION.

His eager spirit chafed against the comparatively narrow limits allotted him by the kingdom which he inherited, and at the beginning of the last quarter of the nineteenth century he conceived the idea of carving out a great empire for himself in the heart of Central Africa.

M. Descamps, in the very interesting and important work, "New Africa," which was published in English, last month, by Sampson Low & Co., reminds us of what most people, even in Belgium, had forgotten,—that even before his accession to the throne, Leopold, as Duke of Brabant, had repeatedly reminded the Senate that "Belgium has not sufficiently remembered that the sea washes one of her boundaries." He was an advocate of the expansion of Belgium long before Seeley wrote his "Expansion of England," or the Germans had discovered that their future lay upon the sea. In 1860, he de-

clared: "I believe that the moment is come for us to extend our territories. I think that we must lose no time, under penalty of seeing the few remaining good positions seized upon by more enterprising nations than our own." Again, in 1861, he exclaimed: "Imitate your neighbors; extend beyond the sea whenever an opportunity is offered. You will there find precious outlets for your products, food for your commerce, . . . and a still better position in the great European family."

BEGINNINGS OF THE CONGO FREE STATE.

Sir Henry M. Stanley's explorations led to a conference in Brussels in 1878, which resulted in the formation of an association called *Le Comité d'Études du Haut Congo*. This committee sent out Sir H. M. Stanley in 1879. He returned to Europe in 1882, and was sent out on his second expedition at the end of that year. In 1883, he succeeded in so far establishing the authority of the *Association Internationale du Congo*, which had absorbed both an earlier association of 1877 and the committee of 1878, that on April 22, 1884, the United States Government, from its sympathy with the humane and benevolent professions of the International Association of the Congo, "recognized the flag of the International African Association as the flag of a friendly government."

The English Government favored the extension of the Portuguese authority to the southern bank of the Congo. To this both Germany and France objected, and, after negotiations, an International Conference was held in Berlin. Its first sitting was held on November 15, 1884; the tenth, and last, on January 26, 1885.

THE BERLIN CONFERENCE,—ITS DECREES.

At this conference fourteen powers were represented—Germany, France, Great Britain, Portugal, Spain, Italy, Austria-Hungary, Russia, Sweden and Norway, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, Turkey, and the United States of America. To these was added, at the final sitting, the newly recognized International Association of the Congo.

From this conference issued the Berlin Act of 1884-85, which remains to this day as the Great Charter of the Congo Free State. Its general purport has been well summarized by Mr. Demetrius C. Boulger, who is an enthusiastic and almost semi-official eulogist of the King's policy. He writes in his book "The Congo State":

Europe did not say to the King or his representatives, "You have done so well in Central Africa, you have established so clear a title to its possession, that we assign

you the Congo region as your fair share in the partition of Africa, and leave you to govern it as you deem fit." The powers, I say, did nothing of the kind. They acquiesced in what had been done, and they sanctioned the creation of the State, but they laid down the strictest regulations for its conduct, and they defined the work it was to accomplish. It was to introduce civilization into the vast region it had to administer, not as a mere phrase, but as a substantial reality represented by free trade, the Postal Union, and the extirpation of the slave trade at its very source.

This paragraph from Mr. Boulger's semi-official work is the best answer to the mendacious pretense, published in the *Journal de Bruxelles* on May 26, that "owing to the initiative of King Leopold, a settled form of government existed in the Congo Basin before the Berlin Conference, which merely gave its official recognition to what was already an accomplished fact," and that therefore the King had already a right to administer his own possessions according to his sovereign will and pleasure. This is sheer impudence, unworthy of serious reply.

It is sufficient to note Prince Bismarck's declaration on closing the conference. He said :

The resolutions that we are on the point of sanctioning secure the commerce of all nations free access to the center of the African Continent. The guarantees which will be provided for freedom of trade in the Congo Basin . . . are of a nature to offer to the commerce and the industry of all nations the conditions most favorable to their development and security.

"Guarantees" is not a word that would be used if the resolutions of a conference depended for their efficacy upon the sovereign will and pleasure of King Leopold.

In view of the contention of the King and his official scribes that—

The freedom of commerce stipulated in the Berlin Act does not imply an abandonment of the right inherent in sovereignty to administer its own possessions ; in other words, a state has full liberty to exploit or cause to be exploited any part of the public domain should it be found expedient to do so,

it may be as well to quote the provisions of the Berlin Act on the subject :

Article 1.—The trade of all nations shall enjoy complete freedom. (1) In all the regions forming the basin of the Congo and its outlets. . . .

Article 4.—Merchandise imported into these regions shall remain free from import and transit dues. The powers reserve to themselves to determine after the lapse of twenty years whether this freedom of import shall be retained or not.

Article 5.—No power which exercises or shall exercise sovereign rights in the above-mentioned regions shall be allowed to grant therein a monopoly or favor of any kind in matters of trade (*en matière commerciale*). Foreigners, without distinction, shall enjoy protection of their persons and property, as well as the right of

acquiring and transferring movable and immovable possessions ; and national rights and treatment in the exercise of their professions.

As the precise meaning of this article has been the subject of some controversy, and as it has since acquired enormous importance, the words of the committee responsible for it, of which the Baron de Courcel and Baron Lambert were the principal members, are worth noting. "No doubt whatever exists," it was stated, "as to the strict and literal sense that should be assigned to the term '*en matière commerciale*.' It refers exclusively to traffic, to the unlimited power of every one to sell and buy, to import and to export, natural produce and manufactured articles. No privileged situation can be created in this respect ; the way remains open without any restriction to free competition in the sphere of commerce. To develop commerce it is not enough to open ports and dispense with custom-house barriers. Without merchants there is no commerce."

Add to this the provisions of the Anglo-Congo Convention of 1884 :

British subjects shall have at all times the right of sojourning and establishing themselves within the territories which are, or shall be, under the government of the association. They shall enjoy the same protection which is accorded to the subjects or citizens of the most favored nation in all matters which regard their persons, their property, the free exercise of their religion, and the rights of navigation, commerce, and industry. Especially they shall have the right of buying, of selling, of letting, and of hiring lands and buildings, mines and forests, situated within the said territories, and of founding houses of commerce, and of carrying on commerce and a coasting trade under the British flag.

Not only have these express stipulations been violated, but as the Rubinek case shows, any foreigner who ventures to trade in the districts in which the King has created a monopoly, granted to the concessionnaire company, who give him 50 per cent. of their profits, is promptly arrested, ill treated, and done to death.

And quite right too, argues the *Journal de Bruxelles*, because the King, being sovereign, has an indisputable right as sovereign to ignore every provision in the international charter to which he had given his adhesion, and to trample out all foreign trade in the regions which were formerly consecrated forever to free trade. That I am not exaggerating is clear from this quotation :

In its legal aspect, the sovereignty of the basin of the Congo has been duly recognized by the powers. Now, one of the indisputable attributes of all sovereignty is, as has been well said by M. Descamps, the right to regulate the judicial position of all property within its territorial limits, to fix the legal titles to the acquisition of such property, to settle the mode and conditions

of transfer, as well as to determine the limits of these operations as may be dictated by the necessities of the public weal. The sovereign is the supreme legislator and executor from this point of view. If he desires to dispose of land which is unoccupied or without other claimant to ownership he has the incontestable right to do so.

What is the use of decreeing that the door shall forever remain open if this impudent claim of the right of the ruler to shut it is declared to be an "indisputable attribute of his sovereignty?" And where is the sense of declaring a territory free to the trade of all nations if it is the absolute right of the King to declare that everything in which trade can be done is his own personal property, which no one has any right to buy and sell save himself and his partners?

AN EXPERT IN UNCTUOUS RECTITUDE.

Emperor Leopold is a wily bird. No one knows better than he how to exploit either public sentiment in Europe or the india-rubber fields in Central Africa. Himself a cynic, he is ever posing as a philanthropist. No one is more expert in the distinctively English quality of unctuous rectitude. He never does wrong without making protestations of pharisaic perfection. If he establishes the new slavery with one hand, with the other he subscribes to anti-slavery societies. He receives eulogistic addresses from Baptist missionaries in Brussels, and bows, bespattered with the flattering eulogiums of Sir H. Gilzean Reid, at the very moment that his agents are dispatching cannibal hordes throughout the Congo regions in order to compel the unhappy natives to bring in rubber—on penalty of death. The Emperor of the Congo may have levies whose officers exact due tale of smoked hands, and whose commissariat department replenishes its larder with the bodies of the slaughtered victims of the cannibal soldiers, but he is scrupulous to use a small proportion of the heavy dividends thus earned in the service of art, philanthropy, and religion. This acts both as a salve to his conscience and as a blind to the public.

THE ACCUSED AT THE BAR.

It is impossible not to feel a certain degree of compassion for the unfortunate sovereign who now stands solemnly impeached before the Tribunal of Civilization for having been guilty of one of the most shameless breaches of trust of which even a crowned head has ever been guilty. If there were such thing as criminal prosecutions in international affairs, then assuredly a true bill would be found against the sovereign who obtained, not a paltry sum of money, but a whole empire by false pretenses.

The Congo Free State, although previously recognized by some of the signatory powers, acquired its international status by its formal acceptance of the principles and provisions of the Act of Berlin, and in doing so came under the surveillance and control of the powers whose conditional mandate it accepted.

The assembled powers, believing his solemn protestations that he wished for nothing but to abolish slavery, suppress slave raids, put down cannibalism, defend the rights and the property of the natives, develop trade, and open the heart of Central Africa to the commerce of the whole world, recognized his right to reign on the Congo. To-day, after eighteen years, the astonished world has been rudely awakened up to the fact that in the Congo Free State this sovereign, Emperor Leopold, has established a system which, at every point, is the exact antithesis and negation of every principle laid down at Berlin.

In place of disinterestedness, we see dividends. In place of the old indigenous slavery, there is a new slavery infinitely more detestable. The Arab slave-raiders have been suppressed, but the state has taken over their methods, and carries on raids to acquire "slaves of the state" throughout the whole enormous domain. Instead of suppressing cannibalism, the hateful practice has been carried by its soldiers into regions where human flesh was never eaten. Instead of defending the rights and properties of the natives, the state has at one blow annihilated all their rights, confiscated all their properties, and converted them into the unwilling bond-slaves of the state. Instead of developing trade, it has suppressed it. Instead of throwing the door open to the traders of the world, it treats every foreign trader as a thief who dares to buy and sell within the regions within which it has established monopolies expressly forbidden by the charter of its existence.

THE ACTION OF PARLIAMENT.

Fortunately, the attempt to throw dust in the eyes of the nation has failed. On May 20, the House of Commons, on the motion of Mr. Herbert Samuel, and with the assent of Mr. Balfour, unanimously passed the following resolution:

That the government of the Congo Free State, having, at its inception, guaranteed to the powers that its native subjects should be governed with humanity, and that no trading monopoly or privilege should be permitted within its dominions, this House requests His Majesty's Government to confer with the other powers, signatories of the Berlin General Act, by virtue of which the Congo Free State exists, in order that measures may be adopted to abate the evils prevalent in that State.

The evils prevalent in the Congo State are, therefore, now unanimously declared by the House of Commons to be so grave as to call for international action.

THE NECESSITY FOR INTERVENTION.

The question whether there is any need for such action can only be answered by contrasting the Congo Free State as it is to-day with the Congo Free State as it was proposed that it should be.

In his "Civilization in Congoland," Mr. Fox Bourne has set forth the story of the way in which the authorities of the Congo Free State have violated all the more important provisions of the Act of Berlin. In his "Affairs of West Africa," Mr. F. D. Morel tells the same story from a somewhat different standpoint. In those two books will be found chapter and verse for each count in the indictment against the Congo government. Mr. Fox Bourne and Mr. Morel tell the story of how year after year, by stealthy encroachments and bold usurpations, the Congo Free State has been converted into the Congo Slave State; how its territories, which were supposed to be dedicated forever to free trade, have been given over to shameless monopolies;

how the open door guaranteed by international law has been closed and bolted in the face of the world; and how a state created for the purpose of protecting and civilizing the natives has practically become a gigantic agency for slave-raiding, forced labor, forced military service, systematized oppression, and the importation of firearms throughout the whole of the vast region intrusted to its care. The pamphlet entitled "The Case Against the Congo Free State," published at a penny by the International Union, British branch, Mowbray House, contains in brief the substance of the impeachment which the Emperor of the Congo has to answer.

A CASE FOR THE HAGUE TRIBUNAL.

The question as to the kind of action that should now be taken is still left open. It is to be hoped that, as the powers unanimously declared at The Hague, that disputes as to the interpretation of international conventions are specially fit and proper subjects for arbitration, that the question as to whether the closing of the open door in Central Africa is a violation of the Berlin Act will be referred to the Hague Court of Arbitration for adjudication, as proposed by the American minister to Belgium.

II.—PERSONAL OBSERVATIONS OF CONGO MISGOVERNMENT.

BY THE REV. W. M. MORRISON.

(For six and one-half years a missionary of the Presbyterian Church [South] at Luebo, Congo Free State.)

THOUGH the Treaty of Berlin made the international blunder of forming an absolute despotism in Africa, yet it attempted to guard the rights of natives and foreigners in that territory by certain stipulations which are most carefully stated in the General Act of the Berlin Conference. The three most important of these were (1) the suppression of the slave trade, (2) the free and unhindered carrying on of trade and commerce by all nations, without the formation of any monopoly within the prescribed territory of the State, and (3) the encouragement of missions and other philanthropic and scientific enterprises without any "restriction or impediment whatsoever."* Moreover, a special declaration was drawn up between the United States and the new Congo State to the effect that the latter would "assure to strangers who settled in their territories the right to buy, sell, or lease the lands and buildings therein sit-

uated, to establish houses of business, and to trade, on the sole condition of obeying the laws." The Berlin Conference also stipulated that no import duties were to be levied for twenty years.

The Congo Free State being thus founded, with the rights of natives and foreigners carefully guarded by a sacred treaty, in which all the great powers of the world had taken a hand, it now remains to be seen how faithfully the conditions of the treaty have been carried out. In dealing with this side of the question, I cannot perhaps do better than to take up in order the three important stipulations as above enumerated.

The horrors of the African slave trade had for many decades been stirring the conscience of the world, and all had bright hopes that under the philanthropic government of the King of the Belgians this dark blot on the life of Central Africa would soon be wiped out. I make bold, however, to say that after the Congo State has been in existence for eighteen years the condi-

* See General Act of the Berlin Conference, Chap. I, Arts. I., V., and VI.



A GROUP OF NATIVE SOLDIERS, TAKEN AT LUEBO, WHITE OFFICER IN CHARGE.

tion of the natives under the sway of the State is worse than it was before King Leopold began his professedly philanthropic enterprise,—the slave-raiding of the Arabs was better than the butcheries of the cannibal army of Leopold today. No sooner had the King found himself in possession of this vast domain than he began to be metamorphosed from a philanthropist into a trader and taskmaster. By various decrees issued during the years 1885–90, the natives were gradually deprived of the right to their lands, and these were turned over to the King himself personally or to the State. Not only so, but the King was not long in discovering the wealth of rubber and ivory in his domain, and in various chosen districts the natives were compelled to bring in these commodities as tribute. The story of this forced tribute system in the Congo State marks undoubtedly one of the darkest and bloodiest pages in modern history. The King, seeing visions of gain, called the Brussels Conference in 1889, and, by the usual proclamation of philanthropy, secured the right to raise a native army for the professed purpose of putting down the Arab slave trade.

OUTRAGES BY NATIVE SOLDIERY.

The government was now firmly established at Boma, and the whole territory of the State was divided up into districts, with a commissaire

and a number of subordinate white officers in each. Men from the wildest native tribes, cannibals preferred, were caught and forced into this native army, which has borne the euphemistic name of *force publique*. These soldiers, armed with repeating rifles, and hungering for pillage and often for human flesh, were scattered at various posts throughout the State, and their number has now grown to upwards of eighteen thousand. These soldiers are the terror of the regions in which they are posted. I have seen villages pillaged and devastated and desecrated, and that too when the soldiers were accompanied by white State officers; I have seen at least fifty thousand native people living for weeks in the forests, hiding from the outrages of this native soldiery; often have the helpless women and children of the villages near to our mission station at Luebo fled into my house and those of our other missionaries seeking protection; almost daily at Luebo slaves are exposed for sale, and they have been caught either by the State soldiers in their raids or by certain chiefs with whom the State has made friendship, and whom it either tacitly permits or secretly instructs to make raids for securing slaves and booty. I presume that three-fourths of the five or six thousand slaves at Luebo have been caught by one of these friendly chiefs or by the State soldiers.

SLAVE-RAIDING AND CANNIBALISM.

About three years ago, one of these chiefs, named Mulumba Nkusa, being under the surveillance of a State post at Luluaburg, made a raid into the region just east of Ibanj, one of our mission stations near the head of navigation of the Kasai River. One of our missionaries was dispatched to investigate the affair. He found the chief an amiable fellow, who confessed that he had been sent by the State officer, and that he had been given guns and powder; he said that he had already sent some slaves to the State post. He had eighty-one human hands slowly drying over a fire, and these he was to take back to the officer to show that his work had been well done. I may say here that this barbarous custom of cutting off hands when the exorbitant tribute is not forthcoming seems to prevail in several widely distant parts of the State, proving conclusively that the State alone is responsible for such barbarities. Our missionary also saw over twoscore of bodies lying near the stockade, into which the people had been treacherously invited and then killed. Many of these bodies had the flesh carved off, and the chief said that his people had eaten the flesh.

Only ten months ago, two white State officers came to Luebo and caught by force a number of men,—I saw about eighteen of them taken away with ropes around their necks in true Arab slave-raiding style. On March 25 last, I boarded the Congo railway train at Leopoldville, on Stanley Pool, and found three trucks loaded with slaves, who had been caught only a few days' march east of Luebo and were being taken they knew not where. The frightened fellows begged me for food, and asked me most piteously if I knew where they were being taken. At Boma I met soldiers from my own district, over one thousand miles distant, who said that they had been caught and forced into service, and that they had little hope of ever seeing their homes again. It is the universal custom for the soldiers to be transported to regions remote from their own homes,—this is to prevent mutiny.

UNRESTRAINED SLAUGHTER.

In the spring of 1899, a State officer made a raid at a village about five days from Luebo. I reached the place some days after the occurrence, at the invitation of the chief, and the natives reported fourteen men killed. Only a year later, another more devastating raid was made at the same place. The chief was killed, with many innocent men and women, and the village was

burned. The officer who made this raid was in Luebo some days after the affair, and he jokingly remarked that he had killed many people, and had secured a fine lot of curios. He also said that while his soldiers were firing on the villagers they ran wildly about crying "Shepите! Shepите!" They were calling for one of our well-known missionaries, Rev. W. H. Shepard, F.R.G.S., to come to their assistance. No explanation was ever made to the people of the reason for these raids, although the State has pretended that they were intended as punitive expeditions.

And so I might go on, reciting incident after incident of these cruelties which have come under my own observation or have occurred so near to my station that there can be no doubt of their having been committed. If such things as I have narrated have taken place in the very limited region with which I am personally acquainted, which up until the past year has been reserved as a free-trade zone, one can scarcely imagine the awful barbarities that have been practised up the great Congo River and in those large areas of the State which have been exploited by the State or the monopolist companies of which I shall speak later.

THE SYSTEM OF FORCED LABOR.

This forced labor and military system began as a result of a special decree of Leopold issued soon after the adjournment of the Brussels Conference, about eleven years ago. Finding that by this system, certainly the most iniquitous since the days of the Spaniards in Mexico and Peru, his coffers were being enriched and his dreams of avarice were being realized, he, on June 16, 1897, issued to his agents in the Congo State his famous Gospel of Labor Proclamation, in which he says to them: "You have to place the population under new laws, the most imperative as well as the most salutary of which is assuredly that of *work*." A fresh impetus has thus within the past few years been given to the oppressions which had already grown heavy as a result of the decrees issued in the early '90's. As a result of this forced labor system, the rubber and the ivory have been pouring into the port of Antwerp, and the blood of thousands of innocent men and women in Africa has been freely shed to satisfy the greed of the man who poses as their benefactor.

HOW COMPLAINTS ARE SMOTHERED.

Every possible means is used to keep the world from knowing the truth about the situation. The King is known to be so absolute in his power that State officials, traders, and even

most missionaries, are cowed into abject silence, and some of the latter have even gone so far as to openly lend their voices in the support of the iniquitous institution. Only last year, I appealed to the director of one of the large monopolist companies in my district to join with me in an appeal to the State government to stop the cruelties then going on in our region. His reply was that he had explicit instructions not to interfere in the least way with anything the State might do.

The King has also blinded the world by the appointment, some years ago, of a commission composed of missionaries, Protestant and Catholic, whose duty it was to protect the natives and report any cases of injustice. The two Protestant members of the commission,—I do not know about the Catholic members,—were decorated by the King with the medal of the Legion of Honor before they were put on this commission. Whether this has soothed their consciences or not, I do not know, but I do know that they have lived for the past seven years in the midst of these injustices; they have had these stories recounted to them by missionaries and others; they (at least one of them) speak boldly against the State in private, but, so far as I know, they have never reported a single case of outrage. Several times I have brought instances to their attention, and they have taken refuge behind the fact that the State has forced labor and military laws just as they have on the Continent, and therefore nothing can be done about it, and that if the villages do not furnish the tale of tribute and men, punitive expeditions are necessary. One of these men saw the three trucks loaded with slaves to which I referred a moment ago, but I know that he has never said anything to the government about it. A member of a prominent English missionary society, which has from the beginning pursued the policy of upholding Leopold and his Congo State, came down with me on the same train, but I fear he has not had the courage to tell publicly in England what he saw on that train.

Now and then the King appoints some special officer, who goes out with a great flourish of trumpets and pretends to investigate the truth of the reports of cruelty. It may be interesting to state that one of these officers was only a few miles away from the scene of the Mulumba Nkusa raid, which I have described above. Some weeks afterward, one of our missionaries, who had also visited the scenes of the outrages, sought out this officer and made a report to him in person of the affair. The officer only shrugged his shoulders, and said that he was no longer acting as inspector.



MULUMBA NKUSA.

(A chief of the Zappo Zapps, who led the raid near Ibanj. The woman is one of his wives.)

BOGUS "INVESTIGATIONS."

The State is constantly "investigating" the charges that are made against the soldiers and officers, but when it is remembered that all evidence in such cases is taken in secret by a State officer, and that no one else is permitted to be present, or even to bring out from witnesses evidence not asked for by him, and when it is remembered that the evidence thus secretly taken is left unsealed in the hands of the State official, and when it is remembered that this evidence is then sent to Boma, to be there passed upon by another State officer in sympathy with his fellows, it can be seen that there is little chance of justice being done. The King is always ready, therefore, to put this "investigation" machine into operation, for he knows that the result can only be favorable to himself. So far as I know, not a single person has been punished for the outrages that have come under my personal observation. Occasionally some subordinate officer is detained a while at Boma, but even this is only a part of the policy to keep the world blinded. It is also a notorious fact that whenever charges are made against the State there is always in every prominent country an emissary of the State, one who is now or has been

in the employ of the State, who at once, without knowing any of the facts of the case, proceeds to publicly deny the charges.

I must say, however, that I have little sympathy with the punishment of the soldiers and white officers, even if the government were honest in administering it when deserved,—it is the whole *system* of forced labor and military service which must be condemned, and not primarily the officers and soldiers who are intrusted with putting the system into execution. And this means that Leopold, and he alone, should be brought to judgment for the inauguration and the carrying on of such a system.

HOW THE LAND IS MONOPOLIZED.

Having taken up so much space in the discussion of the treatment which the Congo State metes out to the native population, there is little room left for the questions of free trade and the rights of missions to carry on their work unmolested. These two questions can, however, be easily grouped together and summed up in the one sentence: The whole of the Congo State, with the exception of a small section on the West Coast, has now been divided up among the King and a number of great land monopolies, of which the State is, in nearly every instance, the largest shareholder, with the result that all free trade is now at an end in the interior and

neither traders nor missionaries can any longer purchase land either for commercial or religious purposes. Prior to 1898, land could be bought, although under many restrictions; since 1898, the State has refused to sell land. Leases, for a short term of years, have in some cases been given, but when I state that the mission of which I am a member has made application for four land grants in the past four years, with the result that all of them have been refused, and when I state that the law of the State forbids our staying for more than fifteen days in the same place without having a land grant there, and when I state that both free commerce and missions are necessarily at a standstill, it can be seen that the Congo Free State has at last reached the highest stage of boldness and effrontery in its systematic violation of the treaties.

The King sends forth periodically his denials of the charges and his protestations of philanthropy. Such men as Sir Charles Dilke and others who have made this matter the subject of careful investigation pronounce the Congo State an "open sore," which the powers who founded it are responsible for curing, and not the least responsible among these is the United States, which, though not one of the signatory powers to the General Act of Berlin, yet played the most prominent part in bringing the Congo State into existence.



A GROUP OF SCHOOL CHILDREN AT LUEBO.

(The majority of them had been caught in slave raids by the Zappo Zapps or others friendly to the State.)



A COMPLETED VIADUCT ON THE UGANDA RAILWAY, BRITISH EAST AFRICA.

THE AMERICAN INVASION OF UGANDA.

BY JOSEPH M. ROGERS.

TWENTY-SEVEN American bridges on the Uganda Railway, which runs from Mombasa to Victoria Nyanza, is the latest record of American enterprise,—one that presents many novel and interesting features. The work was done in record time, and for a price considerably less than British competitors could put the material on shipboard for. After all the explanations and excuses that can be offered on behalf of our British cousins, the fact remains that for doing difficult work in out-of-the-way places of the earth, with cheapness and dispatch, the American takes the lead.

There is something about this task which stirs the imagination, for to most minds Uganda conjures up Livingstone's journeys, Stanley's researches, not to mention elephants, lions, voodooism, and cannibals. In truth, it was a remarkable though very prosaic piece of work, if one can take the word of those engaged in it. The American Bridge Company looks on a seven-thousand-ton job as a minor performance, even

when the bridges are almost entirely on steep grades and sharp curves. Mr. A. B. Lueder, the twenty-four-year-old Pennsylvania boy, and N. P. Jarrett, also of Pennsylvania, who superintended the construction of these bridges in Darkest Africa, look upon their task as in the nature of an outing. Even the twenty other Americans who spent over a year in the work cannot be made to speak of hardships or moving accidents. The truth is, that American men, American methods, and American machinery achieved a notable victory. The returning bridge-makers are laden with all sorts of relics of their stay, but the most valuable treasure brought home was a letter of enthusiastic praise for the men and their work from the general manager and chief engineer of the Uganda Railway. If there were pardonable distrust at first on the part of the British engineers, it soon disappeared, and complete cordiality reigned almost from start to finish.

The bridge contract, however, is only one



NATIVES SEPARATING CONSTRUCTION MATERIAL.

phase of the American invasion of Uganda, which may be said to have begun with Henry M. Stanley. It was an American newspaper man who first blazed the way for civilization. When peremptorily ordered to go and find Livingstone, he undertook a task almost unprecedented. There are several million square miles in Africa, even in Central Africa, and as there were then neither highways nor post-offices, it may be imagined that the job of hunting up an elderly gentleman was enough to pall the stoutest heart. It would have been easy to pass him unnoticed within a mile a thousand times. In fact, hunting the proverbial needle in a haystack was an easy proposition by comparison.

It happened,—if it may be said that it was an accident,—that Stanley was delayed time and again, much to his vexation of spirit; yet these delays were what made the final meeting with Livingstone possible, and eventually opened the high tableland of the vicinity to European settlement. It is barely more than thirty years since Livingstone was the only white resident of one-half the continent. Fifteen years ago, Stanley spent months and sacrificed many valuable lives to rescue Dr. Emin. To-day, the journey could be made in less than three days, from Mombasa to Port Florence, under comfortable circumstances.

Uganda, which used to be only a geographical expression, already fills a considerable place in the world's history, and seems destined soon to become of vast importance in the development of the British Empire. It is the vantage ground of Africa politically and strategically, and is the potential meat shop of Europe.

Although the British have made little noise about Uganda, they have quietly pushed forward the enterprise until to-day one can go from Cairo by steamer and rail to Mombasa, with a missing link of only four hundred miles. British East Africa is now the power in Central Africa, and is developing rapidly. It is of more than passing interest that America has, from the first, been an important factor in the development of Uganda, and is destined to have a more acute interest in the near future, since Uganda is not only to be a market for our goods, but eventually will be a rival in furnishing meats to those nations which cannot supply themselves, while strong efforts are being made to develop the cotton-growing industry. America not only cannot ignore Uganda, but must watch every movement of the future.

British East Africa at present is a rather indefinite term. On the south it is bordered by German East Africa, on the west by the Congo Free State, while to the north it extends practically to Egypt, since all the recovered provinces of the Sudan are for the present under its administration.

Uganda may roughly be described as that portion of East Africa near the Victoria Nyanza, and includes a population, all told, of perhaps



NATIVES BUILDING A RAILWAY BRIDGE.



A "BRIDGE TRAVELER" AT WORK.

six million natives. The native kings of Uganda claim direct descent from Ham, and there are some evidences that three or four thousand years ago there was commerce with Egypt by way of the Nile. Whatever touch there was with civilization made little lasting impression, unless the iron-working craft came about in this way. In nearly every tribe in Africa, it has been found that the smiths have a rather creditable proficiency in their art, considering under what handicaps they work. This, and some knowledge of pottery and weaving, make up the sum of the native arts.

It was in 1885-86 that undigested Africa was carved up on the European table. Bismarck was then in power, and, though he had little faith in German colonies, he believed in "spheres of influence,"—a term then coined which has seen much hard service in the meantime.

The present political status of the country is due to a number of causes. In one of his journeys, Stanley met Mtesa, the feudal king of Uganda, had many long talks with him, and nominally accomplished his conversion to Christianity. This dusky warrior had more than usual intelligence, claimed to be a lineal descend-

ant of Ham, and was much interested in the Bible because the deeds of his ancestors were therein narrated. He asked that missionaries be sent to teach his people. This was done, and during the life of Mtesa Christianity made considerable progress. The natives are a finely built, warlike race, with many good qualities. Polygamy is prevalent, and many of their vices are loathsome, but the Christian seed fell on good soil and flourished until the death of the king. His son, though a professed Christian, was a reactionary and a brute. He soon undid the work of his father, plunged his kingdom into war, and murdered most of his missionaries.

Now, it is an historic fact that to murder an English missionary is to court trouble for the natives and to extend the limits of the empire. In the end, the King of Uganda was exiled; the British took over the country, and Christianity was restored. Nominally, a large portion of the natives are now Christians.

The importance of Uganda to Great Britain is that it controls the sources of the Nile. Every foot of its many windings is now under British administration; no thanks to the French, whose Fashoda expedition arrived just too late to —

comply its purposes, but in plenty of time to create a diplomatic incident the echoes of which have not yet died away. Creeping up from the south, British influence has stretched almost to the north end of Lake Tanganyika, to the dividing line between German East Africa and the Congo Free State, and through one of these the Cape to Cairo Railway, for which arrangements have already been made, must run.

This section of Africa, lying almost under the equator, is one of the most fertile regions of the continent. One hundred and twenty years ago, it is said, a white man could walk across the entire continent unarmed. The natives engaged in tribal wars, but their animosity did not extend to the foreigner, unless to the slave-hunter. The Arab slave-trader wrought the great mischief that has almost despoiled the continent, and here the real original American invasion came in.

Negroes had long been taken from the West Coast, to be sold all over the earth, but it was with Whitney's invention of the cotton-gin that Central Africa's troubles really began. The Southern theory that cotton could only be raised profitably by slave labor made a demand for slaves which pierced Darkest Africa. Too late the Southerner regretted that after 1808 no slaves could be imported legally, although, as is well known, many thousands were smuggled in thereafter. When the coast supply of negroes gave out, the intrepid Arabs started their caravans to the interior, set tribe against tribe, and bought the captives of each. These men sailed up rivers, pierced forests, fought battles, and

brought their human spoil to the coasts and bartered it for Christian gold. It is estimated that ten negroes were killed for every one who was finally sold into slavery. Even when slavery was waning in civilized lands, the traffic was kept up, and the slaughter was terrible. The Arabs became the terrors of the country, and stirred up to modern warfare the tribes which had slept in more or less peace for centuries. Tippoo Tib, the faithless friend of Stanley, was the last of those great buccaneers whose careers of barbaric splendor marked the Dark Continent with streams of ruddy gore.

It was into this seething caldron that the intrepid Livingstone plunged and brought the first light of civilization. Speke and Grant followed after, but it was Stanley who really blazed the path which was the forerunner of European administration. Meanwhile, the ambitious Khedive was pushing his control up the great river. Sudan and the further provinces had long given an adherence to the government at Cairo which was purely nominal. After Ismail's meteoric career, Tewfik looked to a reign which should restore the ancient glories of Egypt. Chinese Gordon ruled at Khartum, and his officers were in nominal power south to Albert Nyanza, one of the Nile sources. Here Emin Pasha, that curious combination of erudition, administrative ability, and vacillation, had established the government. The rescue of this governor, if such it may be called, is one of the strangest chapters in modern history. The heroics of that expedition, with its many disasters, form a chapter in the annals of exploration never to be forgotten,

but in the end it was a *reductio ad absurdum*. Emin wanted no relief, left unwillingly at the last, later claimed to have been almost abducted, and at the coast met the accident which nearly cost him his life, after which he went into the German service. Once more had Stanley crossed Uganda, but this time in the service of Tewfik.

When Stanley left Uganda, the light of civilization disappeared before the hordes of the hostile Khalifa, who, under El Mahdi, had joined in the capture of Khartum and the slaughter of Gordon. Not until Kitchener captured Omdurman and killed the Khalifa



UNLOADING MATERIAL ON THE UGANDA RAILWAY.

Abdullah, farther up the Nile, did the clouds lift once more from Uganda, and by this time warring tribes had decimated one another and had laid waste a large section of the fairest portion of the country. It is believed that more than one-half of the inhabitants of the Sudan perished within these fifteen years.

But though Kitchener planted the standards of Egypt from the Atbara to Fashoda and Wadelai, the rule was that of Great Britain, and is so to this day. British steamers ply the lakes and rivers, and are developing a commerce that is swiftly expanding.

It is commonly observed that the British make many mistakes in administration, but that in the end they learn by their errors. At a time when the followers of the Mahdi ruled the Nile sources, and when travel to the interior was difficult and dangerous, plans were laid for building a railway to Victoria Nyanza. In South Africa, there was a young man planning to make the map of that great peninsula "all red." His views, singularly enough, were not always sustained by a government which was anxious in the extreme to control the Nile sources. It was a curious combination of circumstances that led all Europe to desert Great Britain in 1882 at Alexandria, when she alone made the fight against the rebellious Arabi Pasha. This desertion left Great Britain in control of Egypt "temporarily," but British premiers are no longer obliged to fix a date for evacuation to suit party opponents at home. France may gnash her teeth and the Sultan imagine vain things, but Great Britain, for the good of Egypt and the world, has reclaimed the Nile, and in a few short years will have bisected the continent with a railway, the advance agent of civilization. A great feeder to this Cape to Cairo system, and perhaps affording a link in it, is the Uganda Railway, an enterprise daring in its inception, but now a great factor,—soon to be more so,—in the rehabilitation of Africa.

Intended originally for strategic purposes, the line, only now completed, has earned yearly more than a thousand dollars a mile gross. This is, of course, small compared with the original cost of twenty-five million dollars, but the prospects



VIEW OF VALLEY THAT WAS BRIDGED.

for the future are such that in the present generation the line may become self-sustaining.

It is about 600 miles by rail from Mombasa, on the coast, to Port Florence, on Victoria Nyanza. The first half is over a very rugged country. The land rises in 360 miles to 7,400 feet above tide water, then falls sharply and rises again to 8,300 feet, and after another sharp descent, falls gradually to the lake, the last section of the line being very straight. In the rough country, the grade of one is 50 or 104 feet to the mile, which is pretty constant, with curves as sharp as 573 feet radius. The gauge is one meter, and there is only one very short tunnel on the line. The ties are of steel or creosoted wood, and the fight against rust and insects is constant.

Construction began in 1896, and was completed, after a fashion, in 1901. This was by laying temporary tracks up and down steep hills, the vales between which were to be bridged. The grading was done almost entirely by Indian coolies, who were imported for the purpose. They stuck to ancient methods in their work. Nothing would induce them to make use of the simplest devices. They carried the earth and rock in baskets on their heads, and were efficient if slow. A lot of wheelbarrows were imported and turned over to them, with explanations as to their use. The coolies were pleased, though they considered the wheel superfluous. They loaded up the barrows, placed them on their heads, and marched for the dump. This was the last attempt to Occidentalize the East.

Foundations for the bridges were made of cut



STARTING TO CONSTRUCT BRIDGE WITH THE GREAT "TRAVELER."
(Bridge, about 900 feet long, completed in 60½ working hours.)

stone and concrete, and this work the Indians did admirably. In two years, the British contractors had put up only eight bridges, or viaducts, and the outlook was so dismal that the Americans were called in. The celerity and cheapness of the construction of the Atbara bridge made a deep impression on the British Government in spite of the howls that arose in Parliament and elsewhere. The contract for the remaining twenty-seven bridges was let to the American Bridge Company at £18 (say \$90) per ton in place in Uganda. This was much less than the lowest price offered by any British firm for placing the bridges aboard ship. The contract and specifications in printed form made a sizable book. Every detail was decided on in advance. With few exceptions, the bridges were on both grades and curves, and required very particular work. The contract provided that all the bridges be in place seven months after notification that the foundations were ready. Owing to the fact that the foundations were not completed as soon as expected, the work took fifty-three weeks, through no fault of the American contractors. The Americans arrived in Mombasa December 12, 1901, and left December 31, 1902. All the work was done between these dates. Actually the work in the field occupied much less

time. The man chosen to undertake the work of construction was A. B. Lueder, a young engineer of Wilkesbarre, Pa., a graduate of Cornell, and only twenty-four years old. The bridges were built at the Pencoyd Iron Works, in Philadelphia, and were in as nearly complete portions as possible when shipped in three tramp steamers for Mombasa in the winter of 1901-02. Actual construction began in December, 1901, and was completed a year later. At no time was there any important difficulty encountered. Mr. Lueder took an assistant, a superintendent of construction, a cook, and seventeen bridge men. One hundred and fifty Indians were employed, and as many negroes, but most of the work was done by the famous American invention, the traveling crane. This was run by four men, and accomplished more in shorter space of time than the British derrick and two hundred coolies. N. P. Jarrett, of Selius Grove, Pa., was the superintendent of construction.

The British plan was to send out the bridges "knocked down" to the smallest pieces, which were to be riveted together in Africa. The American idea was to do every possible piece of work in the home shops. As a result, the crane simply lifted the great "bents" and girders into place, a few rivets were driven, and the section

was completed. One bridge, about nine hundred feet long, was completed in sixty-nine and a half working hours, to the amazement of the British engineers, who, be it said, were always courteous and cordial toward the Americans.

The American plan of work was simple. As there was a temporary railway around each bridge, the delivery of material was easy. One man stayed at Mombasa to forward the goods. Mr. Lueder was back and forth over the line, while the white men, in three gangs, with native assistants, put up the bridges.

The country being very elevated, was subject to great changes of temperature. The thermometer was seldom above one hundred degrees at noon, though the rays were directly from overhead and very oppressive, while at night it often fell below freezing. Each American was allowed ten blankets for his bed,—five above and five beneath. The food, aside from meat, was largely American. Quantities of American canned goods of all sorts were imported, and American seeds raised familiar American vegetables, to the great astonishment of the natives. The camps were carefully constructed, and this occupied more time than building the bridges,—a precaution that paid, since there was better health, as a rule, than in camps in America on similar work.

The women of Uganda are well versed in the

virtues of American cotton cloth, which is the staple currency of the country. This is nothing new; "Merricanny" goods were known all through Central Africa, many decades ago, when Arab travelers swapped them off for slaves. Stanley took no other, and British influence has not been able to supersede the demand for the American product.

The railway is operated partially by American locomotives. It was a sight to stir the emotions of the Americans to see Baldwin engines hauling Philadelphia bridges, while the native train men were clad in Lowell sheeting and smoked "Turkish" cigarettes from Virginia.

A few words about Uganda's future. Its population is estimated at about six millions, though it may be much larger. The country is probably the richest in all Africa. In an area about the size of Texas there is perennial grass, and it is thought by some that it will become the best grazing section of the world.

Indications are that the American invasion has just begun. The returning bridge-builders think that as the country develops there will be an opportunity for a very large American trade in exchange for the native products. At present the Americans have every reason to be proud of the part they have taken in developing the country.



A GROUP OF NATIVES EMPLOYED TO HELP BUILD UGANDA RAILWAY.



THE FERRYBOAT "JOHN G. CARLISLE," USED TO TRANSFER IMMIGRANTS FROM ELLIS ISLAND TO NEW YORK.

THIS YEAR'S HIGH TIDE OF IMMIGRATION.

BY SAMUEL E. MOFFETT.

THE dirty little ferryboat *John G. Carlisle* is not an imposing object to the material eye, but to the eye of the imagination she is a spectacle to inspire awe. She is the floating gateway of the republic. Over her dingy decks march in endless succession the eager battalions of Europe's peaceful invaders of the West. That single craft, in her hourly trips from Ellis Island to the Battery, carries more immigrants in a year than came over in all the fleets of all the nations in the two centuries after John Smith landed at Jamestown.

ALL RECORDS BROKEN.

We are just now on the crest of the greatest wave of immigration we have ever known, and many are asking whether we shall be able to ride the flood in safety. In April, the Hamburg-American steamer *Pennsylvania* broke all previous records by bringing 2,731 steerage passengers to New York in one day. In June, the *Batavia*, of the same line, surpassed that feat with 2,854. Until this year, the total immigration of 788,992, in 1882, has stood as the unapproached high-water mark. That included near-

ly a hundred thousand arrivals from Canada, who are not now included in the returns; yet without allowing for that element, the immigration for the twelve months, ending with April, 1903, was 803,272. The contributions from Canada and Mexico would probably bring this up nearly or quite to 850,000. The figures from Europe include only steerage passengers. Among the hundred thousand or so persons who come over in the cabin there are many foreigners who intend to become permanent settlers, but it is impossible to estimate their number. We may say, however, that immigration is giving us this year between 850,000 and 900,000 new inhabitants. There are seventeen States of this Union, nineteen states of the German Empire, and six American republics, each of which has fewer people than that all told.

Not only is the volume of immigration impressive, almost appalling, but its character is arousing grave anxiety. Instead of drawing almost all our accessions from the United Kingdom, Germany, and Scandinavia, as formerly, we are getting the bulk of them from Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia. The problem of as-



JEWISH IMMIGRANTS FROM RUSSIA—FATHER AND SON.

simulation in these directions is a new one, and it is not strange that it should excite apprehension.

A NEW TRANSPLANTING OF PEOPLES.

The American continent was colonized by small bodies of adventurers, whose numbers were not perceptibly missed by the countries from which they came. The present migration is entirely different. It is the most tremendous *Völkerwanderung* the world has known since the Goths and the Franks precipitated themselves on the lands of Rome. It is nothing less than the uprooting of entire nations and their transplanting in another hemisphere. This is no figure of speech,—it is literally true. The work has already been accomplished in one case. There are more people of Irish birth and parentage now living in the United States than in Ireland,—more, indeed, than the entire population of Ireland. In other words, the center of the Irish race has been transferred from Ireland to America. Other races are now undergoing the same process. The excess of births over deaths in southern Italy is about 138,000 a year. The immigration from that region to the United States in the fiscal year 1902 was

152,883, and the figures for the present year will be much larger,—that is to say, we are absorbing the entire increase of the population of southern Italy, and something more. The figures are subject to some deduction for the Italians who go back to their old homes; but this movement is diminishing, and, in any case, it is composed largely of people who are going to Italy with the intention of returning to this country. After all allowances, the fact remains that the natural growth of the people of southern Italy has been transferred from its ancestral seat to America. This fact appears in a much more striking light when we remember that of the Italian immigrants, both northern and southern, the vast majority are men in the prime of life. The women left behind are lost to the reproductive force of the country; the men can form alliances here, and so perpetuate the Italian stock on this side of the ocean.

For every boy born in southern Italy, two men migrate to the United States. This excess of male immigrants is characteristic of all the



UNITED STATES MEDICAL OFFICERS EXAMINING THE EYES OF IMMIGRANTS.

countries that contribute to our population except Ireland, and how important a factor in our national development it is may be judged from the fact that in 1900 we had 3,356,630 native white Americans with foreign fathers and native mothers, against 1,670,780 with foreign mothers and native fathers.

From the Italian point of view, the situation



A POLANDER.

(The pictures of typical immigrants accompanying this article are from photographs taken at Ellis Island, in June, especially for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.)

is still more serious than from the American, for beside the enormous stream of emigration to the United States there is another almost as great to Argentina and Brazil. However, that does not concern us here, except as it indicates that the source of Italian immigration must soon be reduced, like a lake drained by a bursting dam.

The Slovaks of Hungary are another nationality that is being transplanted bodily to the United States. Their natural increase at home is about 28,000 a year. In 1902, 36,931 of them entered this country. The annual surplus of births over deaths among the Russian Jews may amount to 60,000. In 1902, the immigration of that element reached 37,846, and there is hardly a doubt that the present persecutions will send it to a figure above the natural increase.

We take the greater part, but not yet all, of the growth of Austrian Poland. The people of that region would naturally increase at the rate of about 54,000 a year. They gave us 32,429 immigrants in 1902. This is a stream that is rapidly swelling. The Croats and Slovenians of Austria-Hungary are in similar case. Out of an annual increase of about 42,000 they sent us 30,223 last year.

RACIAL ELEMENTS OF THE NEW IMMIGRATION.

Attention has often been directed to the revolutionary change in the character of our immigration within the past few years. The nature of this change is somewhat disguised, however, by the form in which the statistics are usually presented. When we are told that Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia sent us over 70 per cent. of all the immigrants we received last year, we have not advanced very far toward an understanding of the real nature of the phenomenon. It is true that we should naturally assume, correctly, that most of the immigrants from Italy were Italians, but it is also important to know that six-sevenths of the Italian immigrants came from southern Italy and Sicily, one-seventh from northern Italy, and practically none from central Italy.

The influx from Austria-Hungary is almost as great as that from Italy, but it is so split up racially that the aggregate figures mean absolutely nothing. Out of 171,989 arrivals from the Austrian Empire in 1902, the largest single element was the Slovak, 36,931 strong. This nationality, as I have said, is being transplanted bodily to the United States. Next in order came 32,429 Poles, 30,223 Croats and Slovenes, 23,609 Magyars, 16,249 Germans, and 12,848 Jews. Austria sends us also perceptible numbers of Ruthenians, Roumanians, Lithuanians, Dalma-

tians, Bosnians, Herzegovinians, Bohemians, Moravians, and Italians.

The case of Russia is still more deceptive. When we are told that the Russian Empire stands third among our sources of immigration, sending us 109,721 recruits last year, the natural impression is that we are receiving a huge influx of Russians. As a matter of fact, we are getting hardly any Russians at all. Russia's principal contribution to our population is Jewish,—she sent us 37,846 Jews last year, mostly from the Polish and the Roumanian provinces. She also sent us 33,859 Poles, 13,854 Finns—a very de-



A WOMAN FROM RUSSIAN POLAND.



AN ITALIAN WOMAN OF THE NEW MIGRATION.

sirable element—11,629 Lithuanians, and 8,592 Germans. Only 1,526 Russians cared to exchange their conditions for ours.

ITALIANS THE LARGEST ELEMENT—POLES NEXT
—JEWS THIRD.

It is only when the immigrants are grouped by races, disregarding political lines, that the real currents can be distinguished. By far the largest single element at present is the Italian, numbering 180,535 in 1902,—152,915 South Italian and Sicilian, and 27,620 North Italian,—promising to reach or exceed a quarter of a million in 1903. The Poles come next, with 69,620, and the Jews third, with 57,688. The Scandinavians rank fourth, with 55,780; and, contrary to the general impression, the Germans

remain well advanced, with 51,686. The immigration from the German Empire has declined to one-ninth of its maximum of 1882, but the German Empire is not the only nursery of Germans. Austria sends us almost two-thirds as many, and we get considerable numbers from Russia and Switzerland. There are 36,934 Slovaks, 30,233 Croats and Slovenians; 29,001 Irish, 23,610 Magyars, 14,942 English, 14,455 Japanese, 13,868 Finns, and 11,629 Lithuanians. These are the only elements that contributed over ten thousand persons each to our population in 1902. The English-speaking accession may be roughly estimated at 75,000, of whom 46,036 came from the United Kingdom and most of the remainder from Canada,—the latter not being included in the immigration statistics.

GERMAN AND SCANDINAVIAN IMMIGRATION GAINING.

The returns for the ten months ending with April, 1903, seem to indicate that the immigration from Austria-Hungary has passed its climax. The total for the year is likely to run up almost to 200,000, exceeding last year's by nearly 30,000; but the tide began to slacken in March, and its volume was less in April of the present year than in the corresponding month of 1902. From Italy the stream is still in full flood, and swelling at a rate that is likely to bring the

Italian immigration for the year up to something like 253,000,—the highest mark ever reached by any nationality in our history. The influx from Russia is increasing too, and the persecution of the Jews in the south and of the Finns in the north may be expected to keep it growing for some time. There is a marked revival of Scandinavian and German immigration. The arrivals from the German Empire alone will probably reach 42,000 for the year, and the total number of German nationality will hardly be less than 70,000. The Scandinavians promise to exceed 75,000,—a figure they have never reached before except during one three-year period in the early eighties. The United Kingdom is again a heavy contributor to our national stock. It is sending us something like 68,000 people in 1903,—the largest number it has sent in eight years. Finally, Greece has become very recently a factor to be reckoned with. She sent us 5,039 immigrants in the single month of April of the present year, which is more than she had sent in her whole history down to 1894, and more than she had sent in any full year down to 1901. We shall probably receive about 21,000 Greeks in all this year.

SOUTHERN ITALIAN IMMIGRANTS—A PROBLEM.

The southern Italians constitute incomparably the greatest problem with which we have to deal.



AN ITALIAN FAMILY AS IT LANDED IN NEW YORK LAST MONTH.
(One child has been left in Italy to finish course at school.)



TWO RUSSIAN IMMIGRANTS.

They are more illiterate than any other race we receive,—they are the only race, in fact, that sends us a body of immigrants of whom the majority are unable to read or write. Out of 135,961 southern Italians, over fourteen years old, who landed in this country in 1902, 76,529 lacked this simple accomplishment. They are among the poorest of all our accessions,—they brought with them, on an average, about ten dollars apiece. More of them were deported as paupers, and persons likely to become public charges, than of all other nationalities combined. They are gregarious, clinging to their city colonies in spite of the efforts of their benevolent compatriots to distribute them through the country. A clear majority of them settled in the State of New York, mostly in the metropolis, and of the remainder a large majority settled in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts. They are clannish,

not only by race, but by locality. They trust the man from their own town, even when he swindles and abuses them, and it seems more natural to them to pay the *padrone* from home ten dollars for a job than to take one from the employment bureau of the Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants for nothing. The southern Italians are radically different from the immigrants from northern Italy. Only one in eight of the northern Italian immigrants is illiterate. They bring over twice as much money per head, and hardly any of them are deported as paupers or for any other reason.

The southern Italians are a problem, but not a hopeless one. The Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants is trying to scatter them over the land, and succeeding to some extent. For some years they have been gradually replacing negroes on the plantations of Louisiana, and they have finally given that State a white instead of a colored majority. They do much of the hard, unskilled labor that first the native Americans and then the Irish outgrew, and they are advancing like their predecessors. Their children absorb Americanism in school, and it is hardly likely that any of the defects we notice in the new-comers will survive the second generation.

THE JEWS FROM RUSSIA.

The Jewish immigration is a problem simply because of the intractability of the Jewish stock to racial assimilation. Otherwise it would not



A GROUP OF SERVIANS.

be a problem at all, for the number of the Hebrew immigrants, even after the persecutions in eastern Europe, is not great enough to cause any concern in the case of an easily assimilable element. However, the Jews have one advantage, from the American point of view, that is shared by the Irish. They do not come here with any sentimental foreign allegiance that stands in the way of their becoming loyal American citizens. The Irishman found no difficulty in promising from his heart to abjure the British sovereign, and the Jew who is escaping from spoliation and massacre does not look back with affectionate regard to the King of Roumania or the Czar of Russia. Like the Italian, the Jew is gregarious. A large majority of all the Hebrew arrivals stay in the State of New York,—principally in that vast East Side Jerusalem, which is already the hugest Ghetto in the world, and will soon be beyond comparison with any other.

It is rather noteworthy that practically no German Jews are coming to this country now. The great bulk of the Jewish immigration is Polish and Roumanian. The so-called "Russian Jews," who constitute the majority of the present arrivals of that race, come mostly from the Roumanian and Polish sections of Russia.

DESTINATION OF THE VARIOUS RACES.

Pennsylvania, thanks to the mine owners, absorbs a clear majority of all the Croats, Slovenians, and Slovaks that come to America, more than a third of the Magyars, and nearly a third of the Poles. More Finns go to Michigan than to any other State; the Scandinavians continue, as always, to drift largely to the Northwest, although many of them stay in New York; and the Irish and the English go everywhere. But New York takes heavy toll of the immigrants of all nationalities. Nearly a third of all who come,—203,824 out of 648,743 in 1902,—stay in that State, and not a single race that sends any settlers at all fails to leave some of them there. It is noteworthy that, in spite of the attractions of the South, that region is still almost untouched by the stream of immigration. There are several populous Southern counties that do not contain a single inhabitant of foreign birth; and in 1902, only 2,278 immigrants went to the nine States of Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia combined,—less than the number that has been brought to New York on several occasions on a single ship.

THE QUESTION OF ASSIMILATION.

How do the new floods of immigration affect our national safety? It is to be observed, in the



AN ITALIAN GIRL.

first place, that immigration comes, not in a steadily swelling stream, but in flowing and ebbing tides. These tides are directly related to the state of prosperity on both sides of the Atlantic. Hard times in America check immigration, prosperity here attracts it, and American prosperity, coupled with distress in Europe, brings a spring flood such as we see now. But such floods soon subside. The tide of immigration has ebbed after every American panic and remained low during the succeeding period of dull times. If it be true, as many think, that our present era of prosperity has passed its climax, then the present flood of immigration has reached its high water mark, too.

It is to be observed, further, that the body into which the immigration is to be absorbed is

vaster now than ever before, and its assimilative power correspondingly greater. When the early immigration reached high tide in 1854, with 427,833 arrivals, the year's accessions constituted over 1½ per cent. of the population of the country. When 788,992 immigrants came in 1882, the proportion was about the same. The arrivals of 1903 cannot much exceed 1 per cent. of our present population.

The 221,213 Irish who landed in 1851 formed almost 1 per cent. of our population at that time. The 250,630 immigrants from the German Empire in 1882 were nearly one-half of 1 per cent. of the population into which they flowed, and the German arrivals from Austria, Russia, and Switzerland made that race element still greater. A quarter of a million Italians this year will constitute less than a third of 1 per cent. of our present population.

THE USE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES DECLINING.

That assimilation is keeping ahead of immigration is made evident by several facts. Some German critics call us a heterogeneous collection of nationalities; yet the last census showed that there were fewer people in the United States who could not speak English than there were in Germany who could not speak German. There were fewer people in the United States of foreign birth in 1900 than ten years before. The number of newspapers printed in foreign languages had declined, both absolutely and relatively, and the number printed in English had greatly increased. The English papers were more than sixteen times as numerous in 1900 as all the rest combined, and about twenty-eight times as numerous as those in any single foreign language. Twenty years ago there were exactly as many papers in German alone, in proportion to the English, as there are now in all foreign languages put together.

WHAT RACES ARE "DESIRABLE?"

We hear much of "desirable" and "undesirable" immigration. Immigration from northern Europe and the United Kingdom, we are told, is desirable, and that from southern and eastern Europe is undesirable. There is something in that, but at the same time desirability is not entirely an intrinsic quality. It varies with circumstances. The German is intrinsically a desirable accession; but if Germany had continued to send us a quarter of a million immigrants a year from 1882 to the present time, we might have found ourselves confronted with a political problem that would have made the Emperor William's ambitions a considerably more serious matter for us than they are. As

it is, we had 2,669,164 inhabitants of German birth in 1900, but that was less than we had ten years before. The German element in our population has remained of manageable size. We had 484,703 inhabitants of Italian birth in 1900. We probably have a million now. It would take six or seven years of continuous immigration at the present high-water rate to bring the Italian population up to the German, and that is not to be expected.

As to the races of eastern Europe, no one of them is coming in sufficient numbers to threaten the establishment of a foreign state within the



A TYPICAL RUSSIAN JEW.

state. The only question with them, as with the Italians, is whether mixture with their blood will produce a harmful effect upon the American stock.

THE LEAVEN OF EDUCATION.

As to that, a sweeping condemnation might be hasty. The southern Italians, poor and ignorant as the majority of them are, sent us last

year 122 sculptors and artists, and 150 musicians. A touch of that artistic temperament might not injure the practical Yankee blood. The Russian Jews are the brightest pupils in the public schools of New York City, and are carrying off the honors in the free colleges. The Poles were not considered an altogether undesirable element when Kosciusko and Pulaski were fighting for American independence, nor are the qualities of Chopin, Paderewski, Modjeska, and Mme. Curie, the joint discoverer of radium and polonium, indicative of mental qualities that would degrade our national stock. The Croats and Slovenians are of the race to which we owe Nikola Tesla, and the Slovaks are essentially Bohemians,—the people who, under Huss, defied the temporal and the spiritual rulers of the world and blazed the way for Luther. These races cannot be cavalierly dismissed as the "offscourings of Europe." Many of their people are ignorant when they land, but their children absorb education like sponges.

European critics often fall into the error of counting the native children of foreign parents among our foreign population. The truth is that the second generation of immigrant stock is just as thoroughly American as the tenth generation. If the public schools had nothing else to their credit than this splendid work of assimilation,

they would have infinitely overpaid their cost. But assimilation makes pretty rapid progress even in the first generation, as the residents of the Twenty-third Assembly District of New York realized when they heard two hundred street piano-organs, belonging to members of the Italian Dooley Progresso Club, all serenading an Irish-American political leader with "Mr. Dooley."

It is an unfortunate fact that every great city in the North has an intense concentration of foreign inhabitants,—indeed, if persons of foreign parentage were counted as foreign, the native element would be in a small minority in almost all the important urban centers. But there are some compensations even there. These cities are mostly orderly, enlightened, and progressive,—they do not suffer by comparison with Breathitt County, Ky., in which there are 7 persons of foreign birth, 31 more of foreign parentage, and 13,985 white Americans of native descent, engaged largely in shooting each other in the back.

Our policy of excluding the diseased, the degenerate, and the incompetent has had excellent results, and may profitably be still further extended. But there is no occasion for a panic fear that the American republic will be washed away by the "scum of Europe."



IMMIGRANTS ON ELLIS ISLAND WAITING FOR THEIR RELATIVES TO TAKE THEM IN CHARGE.

THE ERIE CANAL—ITS PAST AND FUTURE.

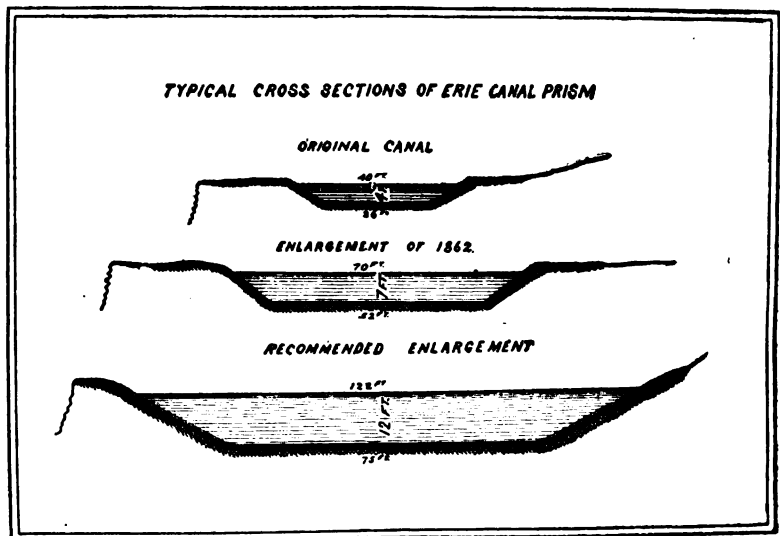
BY M. M. WILNER.

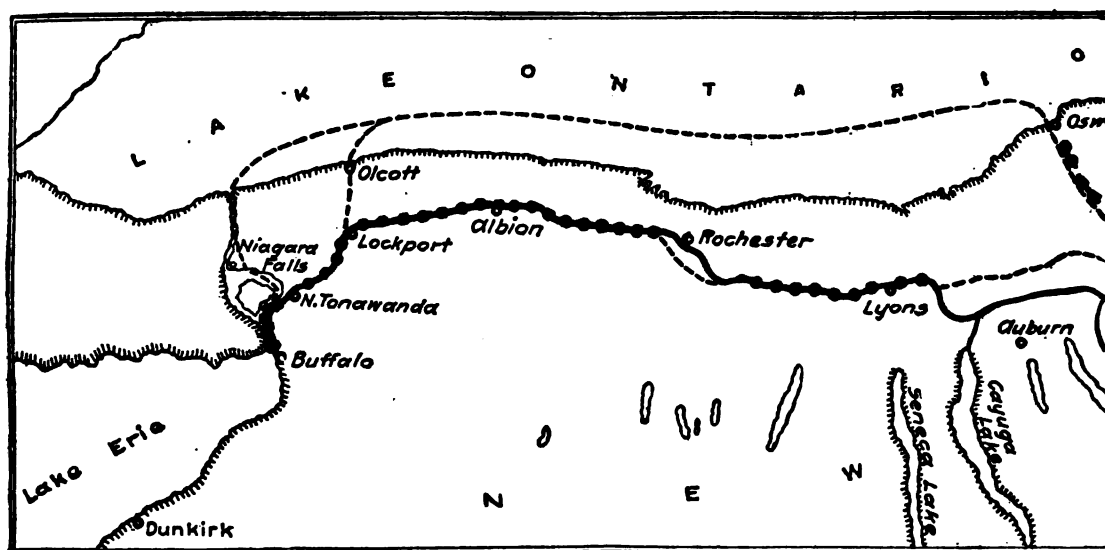
THE canal system of the State of New York now consists of one trunk and two branch canals. The main trunk canal is the world-famed Erie, extending from Buffalo to Troy, whence boats go by the Hudson River to New York. The Oswego Canal extends from Onondaga Lake, near Syracuse, to Oswego, on Lake Ontario; the Champlain, from the Hudson River, near Troy, up the banks of the river to Fort Edward, and thence to Whitehall, on Lake Champlain. Formerly there were three other lateral canals, reaching the southern sections of the State at Olean, Elmira, and Binghamton; but these have long since been abandoned, as has the Delaware & Hudson Canal, connecting the Hudson River with the anthracite coal regions, which was owned by a private company. The three existing canals, however, are the only ones which have been considered in the great scheme of improvement for which the New York Legislature has proposed the expenditure of \$101,000,000. The Erie Canal is now 352 miles long, has a depth of from 7 to 9 feet, and a width on the bottom of 52½ feet. The capacity of its boats is 240 tons. The variations in depth are due to the fact that the improvements begun in 1895 were left uncompleted. The Oswego Canal is 38 miles long, with the same varying depth as the Erie; and the Champlain Canal is 66 miles long, with 7 feet as its greatest and 5 as its governing depth.

What is now proposed is to enlarge all three of these canals to a uniform depth of 12 feet, with a minimum bottom width of 75 feet, making them capable of carrying boats 150 feet long, 25 feet beam, and with a draught of 10 feet. The cargo capacity of these boats will be 1,000 tons, or more than four times that of the present boats. This amounts practically to building a new canal system, and for considerable portions of the routes followed it will be a new canal, involving the total departure from and abandonment of

the present channels. Where the early engineers preferred to dig a ditch along the bank of a natural water course, the new plans call for the utilization of rivers and lakes as much as practicable. Boats will use the Niagara River between Buffalo and Tonawanda; instead of an aqueduct at Rochester, a pool will be formed by a dam in the Genesee River south of that city, raising the river to the canal level; the Seneca and Oneida rivers will be utilized and the canal carried through Oneida Lake, and the Mohawk River will be canalized from Little Falls nearly to Cohoes. In like manner the Hudson River will be utilized as far north as Fort Edward. This will shorten the Erie Canal to 342 miles, the Oswego to 23 miles, and the Champlain will remain of about the same length as at present.

The undertaking thus planned is almost as great an enterprise for to-day as was the building of the original Erie Canal for its day. It is a greater public improvement for the State of New York to carry out than is the building of the Panama Canal for the United States Government, and enthusiasts believe it is of hardly less commercial value. Its cost will be more than half the estimates for the Panama. The decision of the Legislature is the culmination of an agitation that has been carried on persistently by the commercial interests of New York,





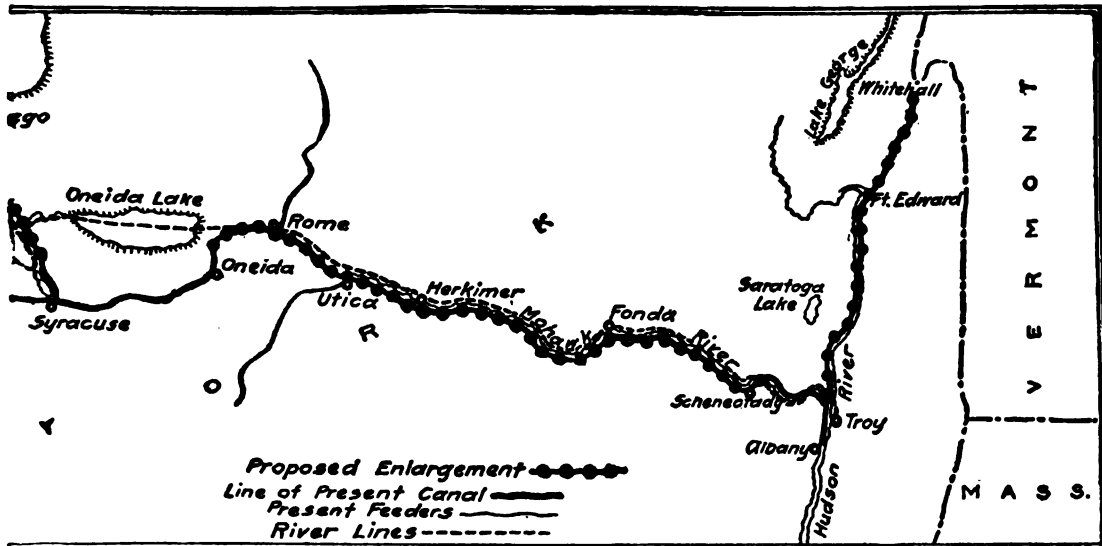
MAP OF THE ERIE CANAL SHOWING PROPOSED ENLARGEMENTS

especially in New York City and Buffalo, since a commission appointed by Governor Roosevelt reported, in 1899, that a 1,000-ton canal was the best solution of the State's transportation problem. Gen. Francis V. Greene, now police commissioner of New York, was the head of that commission. Numerous alternative plans have been considered at various times, but these were reduced by the Legislature of this year to the simple choice of appointing a commission to confer with the authorities of the United States Government and see if it would consent to assume the whole or a part of the expense of building a ship canal across the State. That proposition was rejected, and the \$101,000,000 appropriation will now be submitted to the people of the State, to be approved or rejected finally, for under the constitution a referendum is required on all appropriations for public improvement involving an expenditure of more than \$1,000,000.

GOVERNOR CLINTON'S "BIG DITCH."

The triumph of the canal bill before the Legislature invites a look backward into the history of New York's famous system of internal waterways. On the evening of October 25, 1825, Gov. De Witt Clinton and a distinguished party of gentlemen from Albany and New York arrived in Buffalo. It was a journey which public men did not make so often then as they do now, for horses furnished the most practicable means of locomotion. The following morning, October 26, was ushered in by an artillery salute. At 9 o'clock a procession, in

which marched nearly every man in Buffalo who had legs to march with, moved down Main Street, headed by a band of music and a company of riflemen, and followed by a party of workmen with spades. Governor Clinton, in a carriage, brought up the rear. The procession marched to the Erie Basin, where the governor and other eminent gentlemen boarded the canal boat *Seneca Chief*. Jesse Hawley, the first public advocate and probably the actual originator of the Erie Canal, made a brief speech on behalf of a committee from Rochester, to which Judge Oliver Forward replied on behalf of a Buffalo committee. At 10 o'clock the attached horse power was put in motion, and the *Seneca Chief* set out on its journey to the Hudson amid the wildest cheering of the assembled people. Its departure was announced by the firing of a 32-pound cannon. Other cannon, stationed at convenient intervals along the canal, repeated the shots, one after another, and thus the news was carried to Albany, 350 miles distant, in one hour and forty minutes. Up to that time this record for rapid transmission of news over so long a distance never had been equaled. Governor Clinton's entire journey to New York was a triumphal progress, unique in American history. On arriving in New York, he sailed out into the bay and emptied there a keg of water brought from Lake Erie. His boat, the *Seneca Chief*, was followed by one containing a committee of the most eminent citizens of Buffalo, who, upon their return, brought with them a keg of water from the Atlantic Ocean, which was taken out into Lake Erie and emptied.

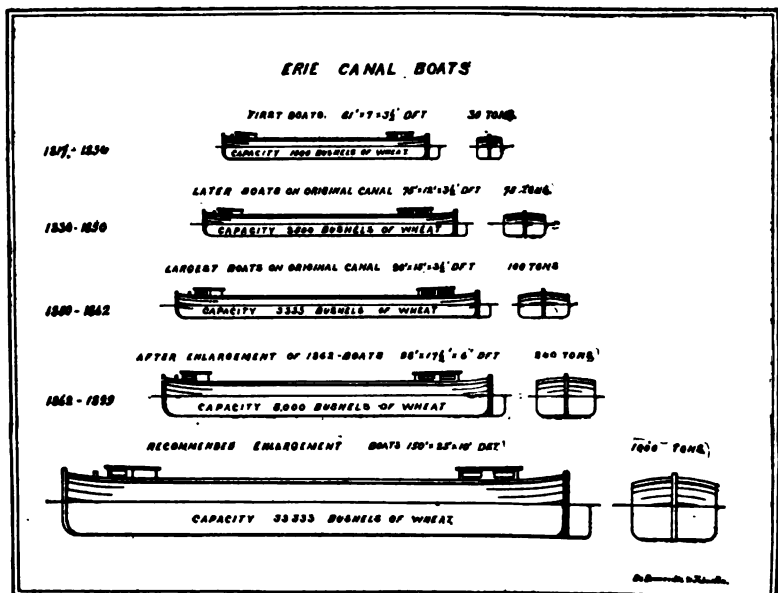


MENT, PRESENT CANAL, FEEDERS, AND RIVER LINES.

Thus the waters of the lake and ocean were mingled.

The canal opened to commerce by Gov. De Witt Clinton was and is the longest in the world, outside of China. At the time Governor Clinton traversed it, it was 70 feet wide on the surface and 28 feet wide on the bottom, and its depth was 4 feet. The boats which it was built to accommodate were 78.62 feet long, 14.46 feet wide, and drew $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet of water. Their capacity was 75 tons. A man could have waded across it at any point without having to stop a conversation for fear of getting his mouth full of water. Governor Clinton was a man of imagination and foresight, but it may be doubted if in his wildest dreams he ever looked forward to a time when his little ditch would grow to a size that would accommodate boats 150 feet long and 25 feet wide, with a draught of 10 feet and a cargo capacity of 1,000 tons. From a 75-ton boat to a 1,000-ton boat in about eighty years seems marvelous, when considered in the abstract; but when considered in connection with the general commercial growth of this continent, the conclusion must be that eighty years have

been much too long a time to wait for this enlargement. It is now acknowledged by nearly all who admit any need for canals that the day for the 1,000-ton boat has come. Both the Republican and the Democratic parties in New York, at their State conventions last September, pledged themselves substantially to enlarge the canals to this size. The fact that the party leaders would not permit a political division on the subject is a significant recognition of the popularity of the enterprise.



A PAYING INVESTMENT.

One explanation of this, no doubt, is the fact that until the last few years the canals of New York always have paid. Previous to the construction of the original 4-foot ditch it cost \$100 to move a ton of freight from Buffalo to Albany. After the opening of the canal the cost immediately fell to \$10 a ton, and even at that the profit to the boatmen was very large. The trade of the rapidly growing West, which up to 1825 had gone down the Ohio and Mississippi rivers to New Orleans, began to come down the lakes to Buffalo, and on through the State by canal to New York. The cities along the canal route,—Buffalo, Rochester, Utica, Syracuse, Albany, and Troy,—received an impetus of which their present size, as compared with the corresponding row along the southern border of the State,—Dunkirk, Olean, Hornellsville, Elmira, and Binghamton,—is an evidence. Most important of all, the great port of New York was given its proper standing as the metropolis of the country, and its position remained unchallenged and unapproachable until the decline of the canals had destroyed to a great extent their control over commerce. It was the Erie Canal which made New York the Empire State.

The immense proportions of the commerce which passed over this waterway are shown by the fact that up to 1883, when tolls were abolished, it had turned into the State treasury \$131,801,797.91. This sum exceeded the total cost of building, improvements, and maintenance by so large an amount that, if the balance had been turned into a special canal fund and invested at 4 per cent., it would now be very nearly sufficient to pay the entire cost of the proposed enlargement. In 1835, the Legislature authorized an enlargement of the canals, similar to the one now planned. This work dragged along for

many years, and was not finally completed until 1862. It nearly doubled the size of the 4-foot ditch which had been built by Governor Clinton, making its general dimensions and capacity of boats substantially what they are now.



HON. DE WITT CLINTON.

(The father of the Erie Canal.)

Commerce immediately showed the effects of this improvement. The first year after the enlarged canal was completed, the amount of produce carried increased by more than 1,000,000 tons. During the ten years following, the canals carried each year nearly double what they had averaged in the later years of the 75-ton boat.



BOATS ON THE ERIE CANAL, BEING TOWED BY HORSES.



BOAT BEING TOWED BY ELECTRICITY ON THE ERIE CANAL, AT TONAWANDA, N. Y.

That is another reason for the confidence of those who have studied the subject that similar or greater results will follow the enlargement which is now contemplated.

CANAL VERSUS RAILROAD AS A FREIGHTER.

The most attractive arguments, however, are not historical, but statistical. The estimates of engineers put the cost of carrying a ton of freight from Buffalo to New York in barges of 1,000-ton capacity at 26 cents. Compare that with the \$100 a ton from Buffalo to Albany previous to 1825, and with the \$10 a ton that was paid originally for canal transportation. This rate of 26 cents a ton is equal to .8 of a cent for a bushel of wheat, or .52 of a mill per ton per mile. On the present Erie Canal the cost of transportation averages 87 cents a ton, or 2.62 cents for a bushel of wheat, or 1.9 mills per ton per mile. The cost of railroad transportation from Buffalo to New York for the last few years has averaged about 6 mills per ton per mile. The cost of carrying wheat, which is the principal article in competition between the railroads and the canal, has been considerably lower, but it has

still kept in the neighborhood of $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents a bushel, or \$1.17 per ton, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ mills per ton per mile. Arithmetic is dry reading, but no one who appreciates the importance of commerce in developing the prosperity of a commonwealth can fail to be interested in these figures. The contention is incontrovertible that, with such a reduction in freight rates between New York and Buffalo as this canal would cause, New York would again become master of the trade of the West as absolutely as when the cost of carriage from Buffalo to Albany was cut from \$100 to \$10 a ton. The difference between .52 of a mill and $2\frac{1}{2}$ mills per ton per mile is

as great for this age as was the difference between \$100 and \$10 per ton for 1825.

THE TRAFFIC THAT WAITS ON CANAL ENLARGEMENT.

The canal which has been planned will be comparable with no other in the world. There are ship canals of more imposing dimensions, so far as depth and width are concerned, but even the great ship canals are dwarfed when the length of the New York waterway is taken into consideration. The estimated cost of this new Erie Canal, with its branches, is about the same as



TOW-HORSES BEING HOUSED ON BOARD CANAL BOAT AT END OF DAY'S WORK.



FOOTBRIDGE ACROSS THE ERIE CANAL.

that of the Suez Canal. It may safely be predicted that the tonnage which it will carry annually will much exceed that of the Suez.

The trade already brought to the borders of New York and clamoring for a cheaper outlet to the seaboard is so enormous that figures fail to give an adequate conception of it. The traffic which passed through the canals at Sault Ste. Marie in 1901 amounted to 28,403,065 tons, of which 23,087,742 tons came east. The Suez Canal, in 1901, passed 10,823,840 tons. And the trade that comes down from Lake Superior is only a part of the grand total which concentrates in Lake Erie. Almost as great a quantity originates in Lake Michigan ports. Of grain alone, flour reckoned as wheat, the port of Buffalo received, in 1902, 119,534,437 bushels, and the figures have reached as high, in 1898, as 262,912,849 bushels. That represents only a little of the great prize for which the people of New York are reaching in building this canal. But, some one asks, does not New York already get the cream of this commerce? It did at one time, and its proportion is still very large, but investigation has shown that the commerce of the port of New York has been increasing more slowly in the last ten years than that of rival ports, and its supremacy has been growing more and more doubtful. Its grain exports fall considerably below the annual receipts at Buffalo. In 1898, the Legislature of New York directed the governor to appoint a commission to investigate the causes of the decline in New York's commerce. The fundamental idea in the report of this commission was that the remedy for the decline is to enlarge the canals.

NEW YORK'S INDUSTRIAL POSITION DEPENDENT ON SHIPPING FACILITIES.

Nor is this commercial feature the only one. New York has not been getting its share in the manufacturing development that has marked the last decade of American history,—or, at least, New York has not been getting the share that should come to the State with a proper development of its natural advantages. Especially is this true of the towering giant among manufacturing industries,—iron and steel. The entire capital invested in iron and steel plants in the State of New York was shown by the census of 1900 to be but \$13,292,346, and the total value of the product was but \$13,858,553. This represented a decline from an output of nearly \$16,000,000 in 1890, and more than \$22,000,000 in 1880. Pennsylvania's output of iron and steel in 1890 was \$434,445,200; Ohio's, \$138,935,256; Illinois', \$60,303,144. Each of these States made enormous gains during the decade,—from \$265,000,000 in Pennsylvania; from \$65,000,000 in Ohio; and from \$39,000,000 in Illinois. In nearly all the other manufacturing States the gain in iron and steel production was very great. Indiana's output advanced from \$4,742,760 in 1890 to \$19,338,481 in 1900; New Jersey's, from \$11,000,000 to \$24,000,000; Alabama's, from \$12,000,000 to \$17,000,000. New York alone fell behind. It is manifest that New York's only great natural advantages are her commercial routes, harbors, and water power. There are few mines of importance in the State; no large forests remain; New York farms are too small and too poor to produce much of the raw material for manufactures, except of butter and cheese. It is commercial position alone which makes New York the first manufacturing State in the Union. If shipping facilities have developed New York's manufactures, their improvement is essential to continued progress, for in commerce and industry a commonwealth must either go forward or backward; there is no dead center for it to rest in.

The fact that the State has lost ground in such a vital industry as iron and steel is, therefore, cause for alarm. Pennsylvania's start as the great iron-producing State was due to the possession of iron and coal mines. At present, however, the great source of iron supply is northern Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. The ore either goes to Chicago or comes down the lakes to northern Ohio ports. This trade has built up iron manufacturing in Ohio and Illinois. A great part of the ore, however, is transshipped by rail to Pittsburg and neighboring points. Then the manufactured product also has to seek



VIEW SHOWING FIVE LOCKS ON THE ERIE CANAL, AT LOCKPORT, N. Y.

an outlet by rail. In 1901, the rail rates were so high that Pittsburg tried successfully the experiment of shipping its steel to Conneaut, on Lake Erie, transshipping it by lake to Buffalo, and then by canal to New York. Cleveland also has tried the experiment of shipping steel in canal boats to Buffalo, and thence to New York. It is obvious that, if a water route is of such vast importance to iron manufacturers, a locality which can combine the advantages of all-water transportation both for the raw material and the finished product affords exceptional attractions, and that is what the entire Niagara frontier of New York can offer when the canal is improved. In 1894, the people of the State voted \$9,000,000 to deepen the Erie Canal to 9 feet. The appropriation was made hurriedly, without any adequate surveys or estimates to show what sum would actually be required for the work. The result was that it failed to accomplish more than about a third of the improvement expected. Yet the prospect held out by this improvement had much to do with starting on the shores of Lake Erie, adjoining Buffalo, an iron and steel plant, with a capitalization of \$40,000,000, which promises to be one of the greatest in the world. Since then still another, though less extensive, plant has been begun.

With such object lessons, the conviction is unavoidable that a water route to tide-water capable of making a rate of 26 cents a ton will quickly put New York in its proper place among the great iron-manufacturing States.

The importance of this manufacturing development to the whole State must impress all who consider what it implies. It will not merely add millions to the trade of the metropolis and to Buffalo, at the western terminal, but it will give to all cities and towns within reach of the canal system an advantage that must have an incalculable effect on their growth and prosperity. The manufacturers of machinery through central New York can secure their raw material and ship their finished product at the same rates that will build up the terminal industries. Shipbuilding plants on the Hudson River and around New York will have an advantage unequalled by any other points in the United States. Through the Oswego and Champlain canals, the cheap transportation will extend to the northernmost limits of the State, developing especially the Adirondack iron mines, and, through the interior lakes, it will reach well into the southern portion. There is hardly a corner of the State so remote as not to feel the throb of this new business life.



LIFT-BRIDGE OVER THE ERIE CANAL AT ILION, HERKIMER COUNTY, N. Y.
(Showing canal-packet passing under raised bridge.)

CHEAP TRANSPORTATION FOR WESTERN GRAIN.

But aside from State prestige, the advantage of this reduction in transportation charge would be sufficient to make it well worth while. Its effect on the price of food products alone is a very important consideration. The price of wheat is now made in Liverpool. The New York price is, roughly speaking, the Liverpool price, less the cost of transport across the ocean; and the Chicago price, which controls the West, is the New York price, less the cost of transport from Chicago to New York. Wheat is now brought from Chicago to Buffalo by lake often for as low a rate as 1.2 cents a bushel. The average for 1902 was 1.5 cents. It costs about $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents a bushel to send the grain on from Buffalo to New York. The new canal is calculated to take $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents off this charge. Whether this means a higher price to Western farmers or a lower price to Eastern consumers is a matter for argument. But if it causes a higher price, New York farmers will benefit by it too, and if the consumers get the saving, New York has more of them than any other State.

This Western interest has led many persons to urge that New York should turn its whole canal system over to the federal government, which should build for it a canal that would enable lake vessels to go through to the seaboard without breaking bulk. Probably no idea ever has appealed more strongly to dreamers of commercial greatness or been more often rejected

by practical men after careful investigation. One great argument against it is suggested by what already has been said in this article about the effect of the water route on New York's rivalry with other States. Whatever the gain to Western grain shippers, New York would be the one great beneficiary of this canal. Its advantage would surpass that of all other States combined. Would it be reasonable to expect the representatives in Congress of other States to vote millions to build an internal trade route in New York which would directly promote New York's rivalry with their own constituencies? New York's commercial decline means the relative advantage of every other port from Portland to Galveston. Every one of them has been gaining on New York in recent years. The trade down the Ohio and Mississippi rivers fell away after the opening of the Erie Canal, and has been reviving since the canal's decline. The rivals of New York in Congress are and must always be more numerous than its friends. Could New York trust the maintenance of its commercial supremacy in such hands?

WHY A SHIP CANAL IS IMPRACTICABLE.

That is the local view. There is a broader and more convincing one. Every argument that has been made on behalf of a ship canal has this fatal weakness,—that it fails to give proper weight to the great length of the waterway and the time required to traverse it. From Buffalo to West Troy is 352 miles. A lake vessel go-

ing at the rate of four miles an hour, which is reasonable speed in a canal, would require three days and sixteen hours to make that journey, supposing it traveled twenty-four hours a day, which, in practise, would be impossible. Then there would be the trip down the Hudson to New York, much of which would require nearly as slow progress, and the same time for the return voyage to Buffalo. In a word, the lake vessel could make at least two, and very likely three, round trips of the lakes in the time it would take to go to New York and return to Buffalo by canal and river. Not only is the time of the lake vessel valuable, but the ship also represents a heavy investment of capital, on which it must pay dividends. In order to make a canal voyage pay, therefore, the lake boat would have to charge at least three and probably four or five cents a bushel for wheat, and a proportionate rate for other commodities. That is more than it costs now to ship by rail. As an illustration of the value of time to a lake vessel this incident may be mentioned: during a strike at Buffalo in 1900, by which the unloading of vessels was delayed, a lake captain, who had reached port with a cargo of 175,000 bushels of corn, said that he was losing \$350 a day for every day he was held at Buffalo. Would that captain have cared to take his vessel on to New York and back under such circumstances?

Whoever advocates a ship canal across New York meets with a very discouraging reception when he talks with a practical lake seaman. The

men who would be expected to use such a canal know that it would not pay to do so. If built, a special barge would have to be designed for the ship canal, and the transshipment of cargoes would continue as at present. Doubtless the immense barges that a 22-foot canal could carry would reduce still further the transportation charge, but the reduction would not be enough to compensate for the difference between a \$101,000,000 and a \$200,000,000 canal. This will be still better appreciated when it is remembered that the labor and power cost of operating the larger boat would be at least as great as for the smaller, and the investment of capital considerably greater.

The plain fact is that there is a limit beyond which it would not pay to enlarge a canal so long as the Erie. That limit would probably be passed if anything greater than the 1,000-ton canal were attempted. At least the 1,000-ton canal represents the greatest economy in transportation that the best engineers who have studied the subject can compute. That is why it has finally been preferred to all other plans. Up to this year a considerable element in New York believed the completion of the 9-foot waterway, upon which \$9,000,000 already has been spent, would be the wiser course, but discussion and study appear finally to have convinced all that the truest economy is to enlarge to the greatest practicable limit at once, and let the lost \$9,000,000 be charged to unhappy experience. A channel 12 feet deep will be a ship canal for all practical purposes.



THE ERIE BASIN, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
(The winter haven of the canal boats.)



FIGHTING FOREST FIRES IN THE ADIRONDACKS, NEW YORK STATE.*

FOREST FIRES IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY H. M. SUTER.

(Editor of *Forestry and Irrigation*.)

FOREST fires in the United States destroy annually at least fifty million dollars' worth of timber, buildings, and other property. This is a conservative estimate, based on the opinions of persons who have given the subject long and close attention. This estimate, large as the figures are, takes no account of the indirect, and often the more serious, losses resulting from forest fires,—losses which are, by their very

nature, not easily reduced to terms of dollars. Among these results may be counted the destruction of young trees which must furnish the timber-supply of the future, and the destruction of the forest floor, which has been centuries in forming, with a resulting liability to periodic floods and a reduction of the water-supply either for cities' use, for power, or for irrigation, for forest soil, with its spongy composition, holds moisture in suspension and gives it off gradually. Other losses, intermediate between the far-reaching and the immediate, follow from the fact that

* The photographs used to illustrate this article are supplied by the Bureau of Forestry, at Washington.

even where forest regeneration takes place after a fire, the new growth is, in many cases, of inferior scrub species, or "weed" trees; and there is a great industrial loss in future products, wages, or to the tourist and hotel business, which in Maine and the Adirondacks is no small item.

It must be understood that fires such as those which have recently burned in the New England and middle Atlantic States are not of rare and spasmodic occurrence. They are visitations of perennial regularity, two annual fire seasons being easily recognizable. These occur in the spring and the fall, and are the results of dry weather such as that which has lately prevailed in the East, and it is noticeable that fires at this season do their greatest damage in the East and the South. The great fires of the fall, more severe than the spring burnings, extend over a period of time from the middle of August to the 1st of November, and have their geographic range in the middle and extreme West, and in the South.

EARLY METHODS OF FOREST CLEARING.

Forest fires began with the advent of the first settlers, and were legitimate when a home and its surrounding cultivable fields had to be wrested from the wilderness; but there is a limit to all things. Year after year, this burning went on, with no thought other than the conquest of the woods, which were considered of value only as furnishing fuel and building material to the individual consumer. Forested land was cleared at any cost, and the result is seen to-day in the stony, water-washed hillsides of New England's abandoned farms, which, had they been preserved in forest, would now be yielding good incomes from conservative lumbering.

This form of forest clearing is still practised widely in the United States, and in the South immense areas are each year "girdled" and fired, the land planted in corn and later in cotton, with the blackened poles of the trees scattered everywhere through the "new ground." Hurry to get use of lands, ignorance of the value of timber, and lack of present means of

transportation are all factors in this destruction, which sooner or later results in serious loss to any community.

HISTORIC FOREST FIRES.

In this connection may be noted several forest fires of historic importance which show the magnitude sometimes attained. One of the earliest recorded of these is the Miramichi fire of 1825, which occurred in New Brunswick. It started early in the afternoon of October 7, about sixty miles above the town of New Castle, on the Miramichi River, and in nine hours it had reached a point twenty miles below the town, devastating a strip of country eighty miles long and twenty-five miles wide. Over this area of fully two thousand square miles,—a space as large as the State of Delaware,—practically every living thing was killed. This fire caused the loss of one hundred and sixty human lives and nearly one thousand head of live stock; several small towns were destroyed, and five hundred and ninety buildings burned. In the same year, and on the same day, a fire started near the Piscataquis valley, in Maine, and burned over an area of thirteen hundred square miles.

In point of loss of life, the Peshtigo fire in Wisconsin, in October, 1871, was the most severe this country has known. This fire burned over two thousand square miles, destroying millions of dollars' worth of timber and other property. The number of lives lost was between one thousand and fifteen hundred, including nearly half of the population of the town of Peshtigo. About the same time, a series of fires occurred in Michigan in which several hundred persons perished. The property loss was about ten million dollars.

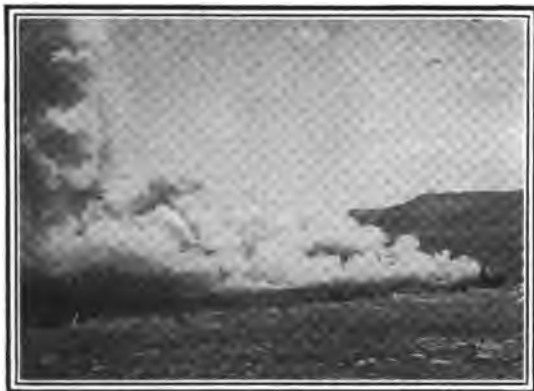
During the early part of September, 1881, great forest fires again swept Michigan, and the aggregate of the various areas burned was more than eighteen hundred square miles. The miscellaneous property losses in addition to the timber destroyed amounted to two million dollars. Fully five thousand people were left destitute, and the number of lives lost has been variously estimated at from one hundred and fifty to five hundred.

Still more recent, and one of the most destructive, was the Hinckley, Minn., fire of September 1, 1894. The burned area was less than in some of the others, but the life and property losses were unusually heavy. Hinckley and six other towns were destroyed, nearly five hundred lives were lost, and more than two thousand persons rendered destitute. The estimated loss of property was twenty-five million dollars.

The most recent great disaster from forest



FIRE SCAR ON TRUNK OF TREE, RENDERING IT UNFIT FOR LUMBER PURPOSES.



FOREST FIRE ON TENSLEEP CREEK, WYOMING.

fires was that of September, 1902, in Oregon and Washington. It resulted in a loss of eighteen lives and twelve million dollars in timber and property of various kinds.

THE FIRES OF 1903.

The attention of the nation has been drawn to the East during the past two months by fires which for days cast a veil of smoke over the country from Maine to Virginia; and this was only from one series of fires in one section of an immense country, and in the less destructive of the two seasons when fires are to be expected. Before the end of the year, we shall have serious fires in the middle and far West, unless 1903 shall prove a notable exception to a prevailing rule. And destructive as these recent fires have been, there is reason for congratulation that they were no worse, as conditions were really favorable for much greater damage than was done.

Those in Pennsylvania occurred late in April, the most destructive being in the oil regions of the northwestern part of the State; others throughout the State consumed timber, sawed lumber, sawmills, and railroad property, and several towns were saved only by hard fire-fighting by hundreds of men.

The New York fires occurred in a number of sections, but the Adirondacks suffered most. A drought of unusual duration, said to be the most prolonged in seventy-five years, made the woods exceptionally inflammable. Estimates of the burned areas and the resulting damage have been placed at enormous figures. A conservative judgment, from a dependable source, places the amount of timberlands burned at fifty thousand acres. This does not include waste land, of which an unusually large area was traversed by the flames. The most trustworthy reports obtainable make five hundred thousand acres of

land of all descriptions burned over in this region a safe calculation.

Maine and New Hampshire were also visited by many scattered fires, which did much damage to standing timber, and especially to young growth. Railroad lines were burned along for miles.

Altogether, the damage from forest fires in the Atlantic States north of Maryland in the two months from April 15 to June 15 amounts to fully five million dollars, most of it in the four States enumerated above.

THE MENACE OF LOCOMOTIVE CINDERS.

Carelessness in one form or another is the cause of nearly all forest fires in the United States. A few are started by malicious, wanton, or revengeful persons, and there are scattered instances of fires from lightning, but the number proceeding from these causes is decidedly insignificant.

Of those proceeding from carelessness, fully one-half are due to railroads and their employees. Indeed, an experienced forester, who for a number of years was a locomotive engineer, is authority for the statement that at least 65 per cent. of this country's forest fires are due to railroads. Sparks thrown from an engine proceeding through a forested country during dry weather are almost sure to start fires. In this connection it is noteworthy that the first serious fires in the Adirondack region, this spring, were directly due to the hot cinders thrown out by a locomotive when a heavy wind was blowing across the tracks. The forest was in a highly inflammable condition, due to the long dry spell, and these fires burned for days. Another fire in the same region was caused by an engineer who, in order to improve the draught, took the spark-arrester out of his engine while going from Saranac to Lake Placid. Section hands, too, in burning old ties, brush, weeds, and rubbish along the right of way, are apt to let the flames escape into adjoining wooded lands.

RESULTS OF PURE HEEDLESSNESS.

Still another form of carelessness responsible for many fires is that of lumbermen, farmers, and settlers in burning "slashings," brush, or clearings. The Oregon and Washington fires of last year started from this cause, a number of them being directly traceable to carelessness in burning "slashings" and brush after two years of wet seasons of very slight precipitation and a particularly long dry season. Strong winds carried the fires into the dense tinder-like forests, where they raged unchecked until heavy rains extinguished them. Hunters cause fires

by leaving camp fires burning. A match ember or a lighted cigar will cause a blaze in dry weather, the menace to the Maine and Adirondack forests being particularly serious from this source, because of the number of tourists, unused to woodcraft, who frequent these wildernesses during the dry season.

Berry-pickers will fire certain areas in the forest to increase the next season's crop; sheepherders in the West, at times, do this to improve pasturage, and to clear away the brush to facilitate driving their flocks. From both sources, fire escapes control, adding another source of danger.

Boys may wantonly set fire to the woods to see them burn; malicious or revengeful persons will cause fires, to "get even" on a grudge against the owner, or will try to destroy large game preserves owing to strict hunting rules. During the recent Adirondack fires, the State and private owners employed men to fight the flames, and some of these men were guilty of starting new fires in order to keep the work going. Indians have caused damage by firing the woods to drive out game, especially where they feel that they have suffered deprivation by the whites. The Utes of western Colorado, in 1887, being moved out of their country, set fires that laid low an immense amount of forest, out of revenge and because they felt that the whites wanted the country for hunting.

Carelessness is responsible not only for the start of forest fires, but in many cases for their continuance and serious disaster. The Hinckley fire burned for a number of days near the edge of the town, and during that time could have been extinguished with little trouble. Suddenly

a high wind put it beyond human control, and it swept the country, carrying everything before it.

EFFECTS OF FIRES ON FORESTS.

In fact, it can be said that the only way to deal with forest fires is to prevent them. Fighting one which is well started is a discouraging and well-nigh hopeless task. Light surface fires, however, may be checked by beating them out with green branches or wet gunny-sacks, or by raking the leaves away from a narrow strip of ground across their course.

The direct effect of fire on the forest is varied. Light surface fires, the kind that visit a hardwood forest, do no great damage to mature trees, but work havoc among the young growth, on which the future of the forest depends. The terrific flames that rush through the soft-wood (coniferous) forests tell a different tale. Mature timber is destroyed as well as the young trees, and the burning of the forest floor, formed through hundreds of years and the very life of the woods, is a still greater catastrophe. In addition, all life is swept from the region of such a fire.

And even if the "stumpage" loss were the only direct one, there would still be the loss of the lumbering wages, supplies purchased for lumber camps, mills, or settlements, and taxes from profitable lands, which must be added to the costs of a region that suffers a serious fire.

THE FORESTS AND THE WATER-SUPPLY.

The question of water-supply hinges on forests. Denuded hillsides mean floods after heavy rain, and while a mountain may be lumbered without destruction of the undergrowth and the forest floor, a sweeping fire following such operations will destroy even the humus, leaving bare rock or soil. Rain is no longer retained to be let out gradually, but dashes down in torrents, no longer a benefit, but an added agent of harm, carrying away the soil and flooding the lower valleys. The increase of damaging floods in late years is due in great measure to fires that follow reckless lumbering.

In the far West, the relationship between forests and water-supply is intimate and far-reaching. Here agriculture is mainly carried on through irrigation. The question of water-supply is a question of life, and a forest fire in a watershed means not alone the loss of the timber, but the removal of the covering that protects the snow from rapid melting with the warm spring sun, and a consequent rapid run-off of rain and melted snow, filling reservoirs with sediment, carrying away storage dams, and causing



FIRE IN A TURPENTINE FOREST, NEAR OCILLA, GEORGIA.

the streams to dwindle to nothing in the late summer, when water is most needed.

A single illustration will show this. One of the accompanying views shows a steep mountain-slope in the San Gabriel Forest Reserve of southern California. When the first settlers came, these slopes were well forested, there was an abundance of water, and agriculture developed rapidly. This is the famous orange district around Redlands and Riverside, where orange orchards are worth as much as two thousand dollars an acre. Soon after, settlement fires started the denudation of the San Gabriel and San Bernardino mountains, sweeping them repeatedly. Then streams began to fail in late summer, and flowing artesian wells made up the deficit; more fires, and the wells had to be pumped. Later, lateral tunnels were dug to develop every drop of seepage water, and now the supply is barely holding out. Lands adjoining the immensely valuable orange groves have the same fertile quality, but are worthless through lack of water. In short, the development of what is probably the richest agricultural spot of the country has been effectually arrested by forest fires, and it will remain at a standstill until the replanted forests are developed.

The story is repeated with but trifling variations elsewhere. The turpentine forests of the South, the lumber and tourist regions of Maine and the Adirondacks, the irrigation and mining districts of the arid States, suffer annually, fight the flames doggedly while they are raging fiercely, and, with few exceptions, sin in the matter of prevention in the first place.



FOREST ON MOUNTAIN-SIDE RUINED BY REPEATED BURNING; NESQUALLY VALLEY, WASHINGTON.

The Bureau of Forestry of the United States Department of Agriculture has this year started a thorough investigation, through its many field assistants and agents,—an exhaustive study of the forest-fire problem, including all methods of prevention and control, and this will be a first step in an aggressive campaign to reduce the damage which annually accrues from this source. Carefully collected facts will correct the present conjectures and vague general notions which prevail concerning forest fires, and all possible means will be taken to protect private as well as public lands.

THE MINNESOTA FIRE SERVICE—LAWS OF OTHER STATES.

There are at present many laws to govern a matter of such great import, though this fact is not generally known. In many States these laws are defective, not enforced, or non-enforcible. Yet in spite of much indifference on the part of the people, several States,—notably New York, Pennsylvania, and Minnesota,—in their effort to better forest conditions, have adopted effective fire laws. Minnesota, profiting by the example of Hinckley, adopted, in April, 1895, an effective service based solely on the idea of prevention. This law has worked admirably and at little cost to the State. As it is our best example of forest-fire law, its salient features are worth noting: It makes town supervisors fire wardens, three to each town. These men post fire warnings, and can call upon any able-bodied male citizen over eighteen years of age to assist in extinguishing fires. The chairman of each board must investi-

gate each fire, and report its cause and details to the chief fire warden, who is the central officer to enforce the law. He can mass the warden force at any danger-point. Mayors of cities and presidents of village councils are also constituted fire wardens under the law, with fixed duties and responsibilities. There is an emergency fund of five thousand dollars a year, on which the chief fire warden may draw in a dangerous season, when fires are occurring or are likely to occur. In seven years, only five thousand dollars of this has been expended.

New York and Pennsylvania have adequate laws

governing the treatment of their forests, which include some effective clauses on the fire question. This year, under unusually adverse circumstances, the State lands of New York have suffered severely in spite of the splendid efforts of the State fire service, which should be enlarged. It has been a case of a thoroughly capable service developed on too small a scale, the same being true of the forest system of Pennsylvania.

Maine's service is inadequate, especially when the industrial importance of her forests is concerned. New Jersey, with great forest resources, pays practically no attention to fires which consume property and are, according to the report of the State commission, responsible for such disasters as that which wrecked Paterson in 1901. Michigan and Wisconsin are giving the matter some attention, though the urgent need of thoughtful legislation is not yet properly recognized.

THE LUMBER INDUSTRY.

Yet, in spite of legislation and investigation, forest fires have annually increased. Carelessness is coupled with an ever-present ingrained notion of that "inexhaustible timber-supply" feelingly referred to by the campaign orator di-

lating on the resources of a "great and glorious country." That there is a wealth of national forest resource cannot be gainsaid, for statistics show that the lumber industry ranks fourth among the great industries of the country, with an invested capital of six hundred million dollars, representing an annual wage of one hundred million dollars. The future welfare of this industry, in a great measure, depends on the prevention of forest fires, for experts are even now predicting an almost complete forest destruction, while the nation is annually increasing its *per capita* consumption of wood, ignoring many substitutes.

It must be understood that the lumberman does not directly destroy forests. The axe and saw are rightfully employed in harvesting the forest crop, and only a mawkish sentiment raises a cry against such a harvest. Lumbermen themselves wish for forest preservation, and, realizing that a continuance of their business depends on a preservation of the forests, they are working, in many cases, shoulder to shoulder with State and national governments for such a preservation to wise use. Moreover, the lumberman takes only "ripe" trees, and ordinarily leaves enough standing timber to insure reforestation if fire is kept out. But he is un-



MOUNTAIN-SIDESAN GABRIEL FOREST RESERVE, CALIFORNIA, ONCE FORESTED BUT COMPLETELY DENUDED BY REPEATED FOREST FIRES.

doubtedly careless of fires which follow his operations, and until he takes cognizance of the grave danger from this source his forest methods will count for little. The solution of the forest-fire problem rests on prevention.

NOTHING SHORT OF PREVENTION CAN SOLVE THE PROBLEM.

Besides general preventive methods, specific precautions are recommended in the following instances: Railroads should not only be required to use spark-arresters, but inspectors should be appointed to see that the requirement is enforced. The clearance of the right of way of all inflammable material is of vital importance, and, where it is feasible, the use of petroleum as a fuel on railroad locomotives should be insisted upon.

Yet all of the interests and precautions of

State and national governments, of lumbermen and foresters, will avail nothing without a proper education of individuals to the realization of fire dangers and the enlistment of the coöperation of all. The stroller through the woods, with an ounce of prevention in the shape of trampling out a smoldering ember instead of passing it by unheeded, may be saving thousands of dollars to a community. While city governments devote millions to the perfection of a city's fire service, and justly so, it might be well if State and federal legislatures spent some of the same thought, care, and money on the protection of the forests of the country, and thus helped toward the solution of a problem which lies close to the welfare of the nation. And all measures, legal, educational, and personal, will be most productive of results when directed along the single, oft-reiterated line of prevention.

THE RECENT FLOODS OF THE MIDDLE WEST.

BY CHARLES MOREAU HARGER.

THE middle West has experienced disaster through excessive rainfall. Over the section included in eastern Nebraska, eastern Kansas, Oklahoma, western Iowa, and western Missouri the annual rainfall is from thirty-five to forty-eight inches. During the last week of May, one-fourth of this amount fell upon soil already saturated by generous spring showers. In places, ten inches fell in twenty-four hours,—and the inevitable happened.

The storm center was the valley of the Kansas, or Kaw, River, which reaches two hundred miles due west from Kansas City. Into it come the Solomon, Blue, Republican, Smoky Hill, and minor rivers, upon whose slopes gathered the downpour. The thriving Kansas towns on the banks of these streams, such as Salina, Clay Center, Manhattan, Abilene, Junction City, and Minneapolis, were first water-swept. Other little cities in the rain region, such as Emporia, Council Grove, Hutchinson, Lawrence, and McPherson, had similar experience. Havoc resulted in the villages,—buildings were moved from foundations, stores collapsed, homes were flooded, while here and there life was lost.

When the waters of these branches were gathered into the Kaw itself, and that usually lazy, aimless, prairie river became a raging waste of destruction, the real danger began. Topeka and Kansas City were to be the victims of the current.

DISASTER IN THE VALLEY OF THE KAW.

Topeka, lying sixty-five miles west of the mouth of the Kaw, is located on both sides of the river, the capitol and principal business residence blocks high and dry on the south, the railroad town factories, mills, and many dwellings on the north. The river broke the embankment and flooded the lowlands, rising to ten feet deep in streets and driving families to the second stories. It reached even to the roofs in some sections. On the spot where, one month before, President Roosevelt had slept in his car the muddy current was ten feet deep. Fire starting from the combination of water with the



SHOWING THE FORCE OF A PRAIRIE FLOOD, ABILENE, KANSAS.



THE FLOOD IN THE KAW VALLEY, AT LAWRENCE, KANSAS.

lime in a lumber yard added to the excitement, and while the ten thousand people, one-fourth of the city, were fleeing to high ground, the flames lighted the scene.

Kansas City, too, has low suburbs,—Armourdale, Argentine, the east and west bottoms,—all lying in the sweeping bend of the Kaw as it turns to the south before entering the Missouri. In these suburbs live fifty-five thousand people, and here are located the packing houses, manufacturing, railway yards, union depot, and hundreds of small homes and business houses. When the flood reached here and encountered the Missouri, swollen by the rains in its own territory, there came the most calamitous experience of the city's history. Six fine railway bridges were swept away; buildings standing in the current were carried off by the stream; brick buildings collapsed; railway cars floated about the yards like boxes; cattle were caught in the stockyards; five thousand hogs were fed for four days in the second story of one of the packing houses. For two days, the city was without gas, electric light, water, or street-car service. The danger of the submerged section, the struggle to rescue the people, the whirling desolation of waters, all combined to throw the city into a sort of panic. When it was over, it was found that only one railway bridge remained, and that five hundred houses and small stores were destroyed; but, owing to the warnings and the

rescue work, less than a score of lives were lost.

OTHER TRIBUTARY FLOODS.

On the northeastern portion of the rain area the Platte and Des Moines rivers shared in the high waters. Omaha, Lincoln, Des Moines, and Keokuk had their streets turned into canals and their lawns made ponds. All this heaped-up rainfall came pouring into the Missouri and the Mississippi. Jefferson City and Hannibal took their turn at high water. Boats went across country twelve miles near the former place.

THE ESTIMATED LOSSES.

The daily papers greatly exaggerated the losses to farmers. It was assumed that something like a third of Kansas and as large a portion of Iowa and Missouri were devastated. In the first-named State was the greatest loss. For two hundred miles, over a strip of valley land two to five miles wide, the water rushed for five days. In the currents the crops are gone. Not more than one-half of this was tilled land, on which the crops were wiped out. If the crop loss amounts to \$3,000,000, the probable maximum, it will be but a trifle in a State which markets \$220,000,000 of farm products annually. A dozen towns lost from \$35,000 to \$100,000 each. Topeka's loss,—by far the largest, proportionately, of any of the afflicted communi-

ties,—probably was \$1,000,000 or more. Here was the greatest loss of life,—seventy-one. In Kansas City, the property loss is greatest on the railroads, and will reach to \$7,000,000 or more. The losses farther down the streams are lighter, proportionately, because of the preparation time given. The Governor of Kansas issued an appeal for aid for the thousands who lost homes and property. The generosity of the nation has been manifest in the abundant donations pouring in for the sufferers, who are especially in distress, as there is no insurance to assist them.

COMMUNICATIONS CUT OFF.

A curious incident of the flood was the total destruction of means of communication. Cities in the Kaw valley with daily papers, three trunk railway lines, and rural delivery routes were for from nine to twelve days without a train, and many went a week without mail from the outside world. The city newspapers brought in by overland travelers were read aloud on street corners, and the first trains to arrive were received with cheers and band music. Several towns of five thousand population and over were for days without even telegraphic communication with the world. It brought to the people a realizing sense of the every-day enjoyments.

RAPID RECOVERY.

The flood of 1844 is said, by the Indian traditions, to have exceeded this in its inundation of the Kaw valley,—but none since has approached it. The problem of prevention by means of



WHAT THE FLOOD DID TO THE PRAIRIE TOWN OF ABILENE, KANSAS.

building receptive reservoirs far up the valleys for the rain-waters is being agitated throughout the West. It is argued that it would not only prevent floods, which to some extent injure the West every year, but would furnish irrigation advantages for a wide area. Western Congressmen will present bills therefor to the next Congress.

Recovery in the stricken region has been rapid. Corn has been planted on fields water-swept; wheat has been harvested where waves rolled for many hours. The losses of stock and the damage to buildings are, of course, yet serious, but the characteristic Western pluck has been



NINE MILES OF FARMS UNDER WATER, SALINE COUNTY, KANSAS.



WEST BOTTOMS, LOOKING SOUTH ON MILL AND SANTA FE STREETS, KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI.

put to the test and has proved itself capable. It is no light thing to a thriving section to have ten million dollars or more swept away ; but already the people are saying that the sediment deposited has, as in the Valley of the Nile, left a compen-

sating fertility,—a promise of greater harvests next season.

THE DAMAGE AT AND NEAR ST. LOUIS.

As compared with the earlier floods of the season in the Ohio Valley and on the lower river towns, this overflow was far more destructive. It affected a greater territory and was more sudden in its movement. When a river backs up slowly into a town, there is opportunity for escape and protection of goods ; when, as in the case of this rushing of the prairie waters toward the sea, there is practically a wall of water surging through the valley, it becomes serious. In some of the afflicted towns the streams rose five feet in a single hour ; in others, as on the Lower Missouri, levees broke with such suddenness as to overwhelm laborers and to crush the smaller dwellings in the water's path.



THE WATER POURING THROUGH THE FIRST BREAK IN THE LEVEE AT THE NORTHERN END OF EAST ST. LOUIS.
(Two "Clover Leaf" tracks shown in wreck.)



RESCUING A FLOOD VICTIM IN EAST ST. LOUIS.

The Lower Missouri country was under water for several days in the first weeks of June, and then came the turn of East St. Louis and the towns around the mouth of the Missouri. The Missouri is, at its mouth, of more importance, from the point of volume, than the Upper Mississippi. It drains a vast territory and reaches

farther. In this instance, it was swollen beyond any previous season for a half-century, and the effect was great. At St. Louis, the river reached 37.75 feet, or practically the highest point known since 1844. Thousands of men working on the levees could not hold it back from the low-lying country surrounding the city on the east and south. It is almost a miracle that more lives were not lost. Records of past high-water marks are: June 27, 1844, 41.4 feet; May 19, 1858, 37.5 feet; May 10, 1876, 32.5 feet; May 5, 1881, 33.7 feet; July 5, 1882, 32.5 feet; June 25, 1883, 34.7 feet; May 19, 1892, 36 feet; May 3, 1893, 31.5 feet.

The most significant fact in the destruction caused by these floods is that the currents of the variable Western streams changed their courses in many places, and, rushing through the populous towns, tore away the buildings. After the waters subsided, many collapsed. The great railway bridges, some of them weighted down by locomotives, were as chaff before the strength of the prairie waters. It was a vicious rush toward the sea of the prairie rainfall.



LOCOMOTIVES AND CARS CAUGHT IN A SUDDEN RISE CAUSED BY BREAK IN LEVEE, EAST ST. LOUIS.

"WELFARE WORK" IN A GREAT INDUSTRIAL PLANT.

BY JOHN R. COMMONS.

(Statistician, National Civic Federation.)

THE term "industrial betterment," or "welfare work," is used in a wide sense to include all of those services which an employer may render to his work people over and above the payment of wages. It has even been used to include the provision of homes for employees, kindergartens, schoolhouses, amusement halls, churches, insurance, and coöperative stores. In addition, employers go so far as to provide recreative features, such as field days, dancing parties, lectures, clubhouses. In a more limited sense, the term applies merely to the common decencies and recognized necessities of the ordinary equipment of the factory, workshop, or mine, such as toilet and sanitary conveniences, ventilation, elevator service for women, lunch-rooms, medical attendance, and the guarding of machinery.

The activity of various employers, in recent years, in this matter has been met by labor unions and workmen often with indifference or with suspicion. It is seldom that a labor union has ever entered upon a strike to secure "welfare" advantages, but a novelty in this line occurred recently in the great harvester establishments of the McCormick and Deering companies, at Chicago, after their consolidation in the International Harvester Company. Members of the McCormick family have for many years been deeply interested in plans for social betterment, and have been active in philanthropic work in Chicago. Mr. Cyrus McCormick, some two years ago, happening to attend a meeting of the Chicago Business Woman's Club, organized by Miss Gertrude Beeks, conceived the idea of asking Miss Beeks to introduce betterment work in the reaper factory.

HOW A "SYMPATHY" STRIKE WAS FORESTALLED.

The consolidation of the McCormicks and the Deerings took place last fall. The management of both establishments had always been strongly opposed to labor unions, and had prevented their gaining a foothold. But at the beginning of April of this year the employees of one department in the Deering plant went on strike, and so crippled the institution that it closed down. Thereupon organizers went among the employees of all departments and succeeded in unionizing

four-fifths of them. This impromptu union presented to the company three demands, one of which was unique,—namely, increase of wages, shorter hours, and "what Miss Beeks had done at the McCormicks." Not being successful in their appeal to the company, they organized themselves into a force of pickets to persuade the McCormick employees to come out in sympathy. The Chicago Federation of Labor, however, which had general charge of the new organization, appointed a committee to investigate the conditions at the McCormick plant. They reported that the conditions were ideal, and recommended only that the employees be given the right, in both establishments, to organize. The pressure upon the McCormick employees by the threatening crowds from the Deering plant, and the difficulty in going to and from work, were such that very few workmen would have stood out against it. But the McCormick employees did not yield. They told the Deering employees to "go and get their own towels," etc., that they could not be of any help by coming out in sympathy. It is generally recognized that they were held together by the welfare work. The pickets were withdrawn when the company conceded to the McCormick employees the right to organize, and in the agreement whereby the Deering strike was settled the sanitary features were promised, and the hours of work were reduced in both establishments. Miss Beeks, who had been compelled, some six months before, on account of ill health, to discontinue work at the McCormicks, was invited to return and introduce the same at the Deerings, and this she has since undertaken.

PRIMARY IMPORTANCE OF THE WAGE SCALE.

The peculiar feature of Miss Beeks' work which distinguishes it from much that is sentimental in this line is that she gives industrial betterment a subordinate position, and insists that its successful introduction depends upon such preliminary attention to the scale of wages and the hours of work as competitive conditions will permit. This is necessary in order to insure a feeling of fairness on the part of the employees. It would be useless to introduce these features and expect them to be taken advantage

ain, and Professor Neumayer and Professor von den Steinen, of Germany, gave an impetus to the movement which resulted in placing four expeditions around the South Pole, at a total cost of about seven hundred thousand dollars; all working on common lines, but each occupying its own field, two on the South American and two on the Australasian side of the Antarctic; three advancing on the unknown area in the region of the largest known land masses; one steaming south into a region where no land was known, but where Weddell had made the greatest southern advance in waters unobstructed by ice. One expedition was returning home last month, and some tidings have come from all the parties, bringing news of brilliant success, of hopes deferred, of future plans, and of heroic battling with tremendous obstacles. The news is still fragmentary, but enough is at hand to give an idea of the main achievements, of the causes of some disappointment, and also to excite a little anxiety for the welfare of the explorers still in the field.

THE "DISCOVERY'S" STORY.

The greatest advance toward the Pole, and on the whole the largest contribution to geographical knowledge, has been made by the British expedition, which sailed from England on August 6, 1901, on the steamer *Discovery*, specially built for ice navigation, and with a large scientific staff, under command of Captain Scott. Its destination was Victoria Land, which is two thousand miles due south of New Zealand. This is the Switzerland of Antarctica, and, as has been proved, the greatest land mass yet seen in southern latitudes, whose high coasts and towering mountains were discovered by Capt. James Ross sixty-one years ago. Victoria Land was the choicest of the Antarctic fields, because the discoveries already made there gave promise of a richer harvest than any other area.

The *Discovery* reached the coast on January 9, 1902, followed it southward to lofty Erebus volcano, which Ross discovered, and then skirted the Great Ice Barrier, which extends far to the east, rising above the sea, several miles from the land, to a height of from 130 to 280 feet. Scarcely any other natural feature of the Antarctic world has so stirred the imagination and aroused scientific interest as this great ice wall, behind which the British expedition saw mighty glaciers between the high mountains of the coast.

A REGION OF LOFTY MOUNTAINS.

The greatest results, however, were achieved after the *Discovery* had spent the winter at the foot of Mount Erebus. The sledge expeditions

were started as soon as the rising sun announced the Antarctic spring (September, 1902). A party led by Captain Scott, dragging their sledges over the snow-fields for ninety-four days, reached 82° 17' S. Lat. The longitudes of this journey are not yet definitely known, but the party followed the coast as it trended to the southeast. The explorers saw everywhere mountains wrapped in snow, and rising from 3,000 to 10,000 feet above the sea. Victoria Land, apparently, is not covered, like Greenland, with an ice cap so thick as to mask all the irregularities of the surface. The mountains rise above the ice mantle, and the country seems to be more rugged in its topography than any other known polar land. Lieutenant Armitage, with another party, sledging westward for fifty-two days, reached an altitude on the inland ice cap of 9,000 feet, and found crevasses like those near the edge of the Greenland ice cap. The details of his journey should be of special interest, as he apparently traveled at right angles to the coast followed by Scott, and must have penetrated into the very heart of Victoria Land.

IS THERE AN ANTARCTIC CONTINENT?

These two sledge journeys were rich in geographical results, but they did not prove the existence of an Antarctic continent. Though geological evidence points to this conclusion, the Antarctic continent, in a geographical sense, has not yet been discovered. Victoria Land has been shown to extend far toward the Pole, and, for all that is known, it may reach and extend beyond it; but we do not know that it is as large as Greenland, which is classed, not as a continent, but as the largest island in the world. Scott's splendid feat of sledging took him 292.10 miles nearer to the South Pole than the point reached by Ross, and surpassed Borchgrevink's record by 238.05 miles; but when Scott turned back to his ship, he was still 532.45 miles from the South Pole. It may be many years yet before explorers advance as near to the southern apex of the world as Nansen and the Duke of Abruzzi's party were to the North Pole; when these Arctic explorers turned back they were, respectively, 261 and 239 miles from the Pole.

THE GERMAN EXPLORERS FROZEN IN.

An unfortunate circumstance prevented the German expedition from rivaling the British explorers, at least in the brilliant and spectacular phases of their work. The Germans left Kiel on August 11, 1901, in the steamer *Gauss*, which had been specially built for ice work, under the command of Dr. von Drygalski, reached Kerguelen Island, where their stores

had been landed, in the southern part of the Indian Ocean, on January 2, 1902, and on January 31 started with high hopes for a part of the unknown area which, it was believed, would richly reward the explorers. Sixty-three years ago, the American sailor, Captain Wilkes, discovered, a little south of the South Polar Circle, certain land masses which he thought might be parts of a continental coast line, stretching east and west between 90° and 160° E. Long. It was Drygalski's purpose to establish a station on Termination Land, the most westerly of Wilkes' discoveries, and to solve the mystery of the so-called Wilkes Land, which lies due south of Australia. So the *Gauss* steamed westward along the edge of the floe ice till it reached the latitude of Termination Land, when it pushed into the floe. It had the great misfortune to be frozen in, and remained a fast prisoner for nearly a year, in Lat. 66° 30' S. and Long. 90° E., less than one hundred miles southwest of the supposed Termination Land. The latest dispatch says that the *Gauss* steamed directly over the position indicated for Termination Land, and that it does not exist. This will surprise no one. Wilkes reported only "an appearance of land," and he was sixty miles from it. Other lands he mapped undoubtedly exist, for he saw them at short range, and his statements are borne out by Bailleny and D'Urville.

The vessel was frozen in only twenty-three days after the *Gauss* left its base at Kerguelen Island. New land was discovered and named Kaiser Wilhelm Land, but its extent was not learned, as the winter storms defeated the sledge expeditions. The winter was spent in scientific investigations, and it is probable that the *Gauss* is bringing home the richest collection of scientific data yet obtained in the Antarctic. This is likely, because Drygalski is one of the most scientific of explorers. His study of Greenland glaciers is the most thorough and profound contribution to glaciology that has been made. He undoubtedly improved to the utmost his opportunity to study the magnetic and meteorological conditions in Antarctica, and in these respects, at least, the German expedition will prove to have been a brilliant success. The *Gauss* started for home as soon as she was free from the ice.

ADVENTURES OF THE SWEDES AND THE SCOTCH.

Of the Swedish and Scottish expeditions, there is as yet little to say. The Swedish expedition left Europe under command of Dr. Otto Nordenskjöld in October, 1901. The destination of the ship, the *Antarctic*, was Graham Land, south of South America, a large land mass whose extent is still unknown, and which has

been conjectured by Sir John Murray to be a great northern promontory of the Antarctic continent. The expedition proved, as it approached its field of work, that Louis Philippe Land, which had been supposed to be an island, is, in fact, the northern extremity of Graham Land. On February 12, 1902, Dr. Norden-skjöld established his winter quarters in Admiralty Inlet, on the east coast of Graham Land, and the *Antarctic* returned to South America with the news here briefly outlined. It was the leader's purpose to make sledge journeys over Graham Land and endeavor to ascertain its extent.

In November last, the *Antarctic* returned south to take part in the work of the South Polar summer season. She was to return in February this year, bringing the entire expedition, but she did not come back, and Sweden is about to send out a relief party with three years' supplies. It may be that the return of the *Antarctic* was too long delayed, and that the ice detains the explorers in Graham Land. If no greater misfortune has overtaken the party, they may eventually bring home the solution of this most interesting problem of the extent of Graham Land and its possible connection with other Antarctic land masses. A relief expedition is also to be sent by the British to Victoria Land, where, at last accounts, the *Discovery* was frozen in the ice near Mount Erebus.

The Scottish expedition, in the *Scotia*, under Captain Bruce, did not start on its mission till October, last year. Its purpose was to engage in oceanographic researches in Weddell Sea, south of the Atlantic. It was not intended at first to spend the winter which now darkens the Antarctic in that region, but at last accounts Captain Scott had decided that possibly he might go into winter quarters if he found a suitable place. If he has prospered, it is probable that he will carry out this plan.

Summing up the results of the recent work, it has been discovered that Victoria Land extends far toward the South Pole, and is one of the large islands of the world; a new land has been discovered near Wilkes Land, a supposititious land has been wiped out, and the magnetic and meteorological investigations, for which all the expeditions were splendidly equipped, promise largely to enrich these sciences. It might be wished that the purely geographical results had been greater, but much has been achieved. The field, in all its aspects, is far more difficult than the Arctic regions, and on the whole, the amount of achievement reported in a short space of time has seldom been exceeded in any field of polar work.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

BRITAIN'S IMPERIAL ZOLLVEREIN POLICY.

AS was to be expected, the proposals of Mr. Chamberlain have thrust the question of a British imperial zollverein into the forefront of public discussion. But as was by no means to be expected, the English magazines are either silent on the subject or are wholly favorable to the preferential treatment of the colonies! It is hard to find any article of importance which opposes the new fiscal departure. Whether free traders were caught napping, while zollvereinists were ready-primed, there is, in any case, something of a portent in the fact that the magazine-dom of Great Britain,—the historic home of free trade,—has at this crisis scarcely a word to say in defense of orthodox free trade, but is loud in applause of Mr. Chamberlain's policy. Next month, doubtless, the big guns of economic orthodoxy will open fire on the new heresy. But the other side will have had a month's start. Mobility in argument, as in war, counts for much.

The Case for Canada.

As so much in the current discussion turns on the case of Canada, it may be well to present it as stated by a Canadian, Mr. Albert Swindlehurst, in the *Empire Review*. His aim is to show "why Canada should be granted a preference in the markets of Great Britain." He proceeds:

"Will this request be complied with? Upon the answer the future policy of the Dominion depends. There seems to be a widespread impression in the United Kingdom that the granting of a preference would cause a permanent increase in the cost of the thing protected. This is clearly erroneous in this case. Take wheat as an example. If a preference be given to Canadian wheat, the immediate result would be a wonderful increase of production in the Dominion, all of which would be sent to the world's market, Liverpool. What economist will deny that this increase in the supply, with no possible proportionate increase in the demand, will result in a fall of prices, and cheapen breadstuffs for the English consumer? A good crop now lowers prices. Would not an increase in the wheat-growing area have a similar effect? Another result would follow. The United States wheat-grower, with land worth from fifty dollars to one hundred and fifty dollars an acre, as prices dropped and he received a reduced return upon his capital, would investigate Canadian conditions. It would not take keen West-

ern men long to realize that it was to the interest of themselves and their families to move across the border and share the prosperity of the Canadian farmer, and in a few years Canada would become the great wheat-exporting country of the world.

"Moreover, the duty imposed on foreign wheat goes into the national exchequer, not to the foreign producer. The British public, therefore, by merely paying taxes indirectly instead of directly, will get cheaper wheat, will increase amazingly the population and wealth of one of their own colonies, and earn the lasting goodwill of Canadians.

"They will also be building up a market of ever-increasing importance to themselves, and the only one on the North American continent in which their goods receive a tariff preference. Canadian imports from Great Britain amounted to \$29,412,188 in 1897 and \$49,215,693 in 1902; an increase of 67 per cent. in five years. In the same period, the imports of the United States from Great Britain decreased from \$167,947,820 to \$165,865,720. Stating these figures in another form, and taking the census of 1901 in both countries as a basis, each Canadian bought from Great Britain goods to the value of \$5.47 in 1897, and \$9.16 in 1902, while United States purchases from Great Britain only averaged \$2.16 *per capita* in 1897 and fell to \$2.13 in 1902. The *per capita* purchases of Canada from Great Britain in 1902 were therefore more than four-fold those of the United States."

The writer does not hesitate to put the other side:

"If Great Britain refuses a preference, what then will result? Everything points to a treaty of reciprocity with the United States and the withdrawal of the tariff advantage now enjoyed by Great Britain. United States interest in Canada, once almost confined to the official class, has now become national.

"The newspapers of the republic are pointing out the advantages of a political union. United States diplomacy advocates absolute free trade between the two countries, believing the identity of commercial interests created by such a policy would bring about identity of political interests and a union of the two countries at no distant date. Hawaii is pointed to as an illustration."

What the Empire Wants.

The editor of the *Empire Review*, discussing "Mr. Chamberlain's New Chapter," says:

"What the empire wants is a well-organized scheme of naval and military defense in which all parts are properly recognized, and to the cost of which all parts are in one way or another contributing their share; a state department of emigration in London, acting in conjunction with the governments oversea; preferential and reciprocal treatment for home and colonial produce, and the imposition of countervailing duties where the fiscal policy of foreign powers affects injuriously the industries of our colonies and the manufactures of the motherland. In short, we want an empire in being, not a paper empire. And, thanks to Mr. Chamberlain, there seems at last to be a probability of steps being taken to secure the necessary change in our fiscal policy, which is the first reform to be carried out before these wants can be adequately supplied."

The editor urges that the time for free trade within the empire has gone by. The chance of establishing preferential trade is offered now or never. He does not expect that Great Britain will renew the *modus vivendi* with Germany, and she will have abolished the most-favored-nation treatment. He insists that the issue is immense,—life or death to the commerce of the empire.

Four Voices in the "Nineteenth Century."

The *Nineteenth Century* opens with three papers in defense of imperial reciprocity. Sir Herbert Maxwell is displeased with Mr. Balfour's speech on the repeal of the corn tax, but rejoices in Mr. Chamberlain's speech later in the day. The latter, he says, came in the nick of time to save a great party from going to pieces. He insists that it is not the unfurling of the protectionist flag. He also repudiates the idea of a hard-and-fast zollverein overruling and interfering with the fiscal regulations of the colonies, but urges that Great Britain must be prepared to meet the overtures of the colonies and give preference to her own kith and kin. Launched by the "greatest colonial minister in English history, this mighty project must occupy the chief place in political controversy till it is disposed of." The question, which can neither be shirked nor shelved, is one upon which the old frontiers of party are likely to undergo considerable change.

Sir Gilbert Parker, M.P., puts Mr. Chamberlain's policy in a nutshell by saying: "It means reciprocity between the British nations and sufficient retaliation against our foreign rivals to make that reciprocity possible and profitable," or, "Stand by your own, and make the outsider pay." He is by no means sure that the removal of the corn tax was not a carefully arranged

preliminary to secure the psychological moment for Mr. Chamberlain's appeal. The corn tax was too small to be reckoned as a policy.

Mr. Benjamin Taylor says that if Englishmen feel sure that reciprocity will bind the mother country more closely with her colonies the change can be made with equanimity and alacrity, and "we need not fear foreign reprisals, because the British Empire will then be the largest consumer in the world,—too good a customer for any country to quarrel with." He argues, "A small duty on foreign wheat, for instance, may make all the difference between marketing the crops of Canada as compared with the superior facilities of the United States and yet have no appreciable bearing on the cost of food."

Sir Wemyss Reid, in his monthly survey, thinks that Mr. Chamberlain's plea for a British zollverein opens the lists for the renewal of the old tournament between protection and free trade, but it must be renewed under new conditions and with new motives. "How it will end no one can see."

Enthusiastic Support of Mr. Chamberlain.

The editor of the *National Review* is jubilant. The Birmingham speech is declared to be an utterance destined to open a new era in the development of the empire and in the prospects of the home country. He urges that the gravest doubts of the Cobdenite creed exist in the minds of a great and growing body of opinion. Free trade only worked well while other nations were absorbed in war. About 1880, rival systems of free trade and protection began their struggle for existence. Almost each succeeding year has shown the advantage to rest with protection. He says that England's attitude for the last sixty years has only encouraged other powers to raise their tariffs, and Mr. Chamberlain's speech, by causing the Germans to hesitate in their retaliation on Canada, has worked for freer trade. At the same time, the editor recognizes that the new policy appeals to very many Englishmen who would repudiate the name of protectionist.

"Elector," in the *National Review*, who asks, "Is the cabinet riding for a fall?" bemoans the repeal of the corn tax. Students of modern economics had predicted that it would not in the long run affect the price of bread, but would be chiefly paid by the foreign producer. He claims that that prediction was fulfilled. The price of wheat per quarter only rose 3d. Less than one-quarter of the tax fell on the British consumer. The foreigner paid the rest. The same infinitesimal advantage revived British milling industry. These are statements of which much may be heard during the controversy.

Dr. Dillon's Applause.

Dr. E. J. Dillon, in his chronicle on foreign affairs in the June *Contemporary*, gives his support to the Zollverein scheme:

"One of the most efficacious means which our government disposed of for reciprocating the preference bestowed upon us by Canada was in embryonic form,—the corn duty,—and that is now to disappear without rhyme or reason. For, as Mr. Chaplin pointed out, the tax is neither a burden to the consumer nor a benefit to the farmers, though if raised to protection level it would confer an inestimable boon upon the agricultural interests of the country. Moreover, the government, in the person of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, laid it down a twelve-month ago that it is not the custom of the House of Commons to impose a new indirect tax for one year only, seeing that a short-lived measure of that nature would merely interfere with trade and inflict harm instead of working good. Fortunately, Mr. Chamberlain's timely and statesman-like speech has placed the issue on a much broader basis, and will compel the nation to decide once for all whether it will become a world empire in the fullest sense of the word or sink to the level of Holland. Between those alternatives there is no third course, nor will the favorable moment, if once allowed to pass unutilized, ever return."

"The prospect which inspires Mr. Chamberlain is, in truth, the most attractive that has ever yet been held out to any people known to history. Its realization, therefore, would be worth a heavy sacrifice on their part were any such needed. In turning over the advantages and the drawbacks which such a vast political creation as a self-sufficing British Empire would bring in its train, due weight among the former should be given to the *imponderabilia* which the too practical minds of men of business are liable to brush aside as unworthy of consideration. Moreover, the truth would seem to be that, viewed from the right angle of vision, no real sacrifices are demanded of the nation. That of free trade is but apparent. When all the other states compete from behind a Chinese wall of tariff protection, and are armed with subsidies and trusts, while we can neither strike them nor shield ourselves, trade is no longer free,—the struggle is no longer equal. Our people are heavily handicapped, and must now compete on terms which are superlatively unfair. And the results of this competition have been telling against us. Even as a business venture, therefore, a commercial inter-imperial union cannot but prove profitable to motherland and colonies alike. In casting up the items of profit

and loss, however, we should not assume that the trade returns of to-day are alone decisive."

Effect on Wages.

The *National Review* contains a paper by Mr. G. Byng which will probably be much heard of in popular controversy on "the influence of free trade on wages." He divides workingmen into four classes, according as they are (1) manufacturing, (2) agricultural, (3) employed on distinctively home trades, as building, and (4) employed by middlemen, as railway men, sailors, etc. He admits that the last benefit under a free-trade system, but argues that as the producing class is squeezed out by foreign competition, the non-producers will in the long run also come to grief. The third class—builders, etc.—will, he says, be indirectly benefited by the general improvement in manufactures and agriculture which, he avers, protection would introduce. Agriculture is being ruined by free trade. From 1875 to 1901, the acres under wheat in the United Kingdom have sunk from 3,707,700 to 1,746,000. The acres under corn of all kinds have dropped by 3,000,000. And yet the head of cattle has only increased during the same period from ten to eleven and a half millions. For every three acres which go out of cultivation, one agricultural laborer falls out of work. Workmen engaged in manufacture would under protection be freed from the deadly competition of foreigners, who are really "black-legs," as they work,—men, women, and children,—at lower wages and longer hours.

"WAGES WILL RISE," *teste* JOHN BRIGHT.

Mr. Byng emphatically declares that wages will rise under protection. He quotes John Bright, who wrote to an American: "Protection will be called in to give high wages and shorter hours of labor to your workmen." He grants that wages have risen under free trade, but refers that fact to other causes. He says that the effect of foreign competition is now being seriously felt, and, as a consequence, England is faced with the prospect of lowered wages and bad trade. He points out, too, that though wages have increased, the unemployed have also increased, under free trade—from 2.71 per cent. in 1860–64 to 6.04 in 1890–96.

WILL COST OF LIVING? HARDLY AT ALL.

As to cost of living, Mr. Byng puts the question, "Can the worker live better and put more aside for a rainy day earning thirty shillings a week under free trade or forty shillings a week under protection?" Protection suddenly and generally imposed would, he admits, raise the

cost of living for a time, though the development of home industries would soon reduce prices. But protection would only come in gradually, and the consequent readjustment equally gradually; so the workman's domestic accounts would not be disturbed. Even if the necessary protection of agriculture did raise the price of the artisan's food, it would be a natural insurance premium and a guarantee of high wages and regular employment.

A SUGGESTED SLIDING SCALE.

Mr. Byng proposes a sliding-scale tariff on wheat beginning at thirty-five shillings a quarter. That is, wheat at thirty-five shillings would be admitted free; at less than that amount, would be charged the difference. This would still, the writer avers, mean cheap bread; for it was the average price of wheat in 1882-91. It might now involve a farthing or a halfpenny more on the loaf. This comparison with the price of wheat a dozen years ago may play an important part in the coming debates.

RUSSIA AND MANCHURIA.

RUSSIA'S position in Manchuria is assured, not so much by the presence of her army, which she may withdraw or concentrate upon the railway, as by the Russo-Chinese Bank, which holds the concession for the construction of the railway from Siberia to Port Arthur. Mr. Alfred Stead contributes an interesting article to the *Nineteenth Century* on the Manchurian question, entitled "Conquest by Bank and Railways." It is a study of an up-to-date method of annex-

ing, which is a system of conquest by banks rather than by battalions, by the building of railways rather than by the winning of battles. The Chinese Eastern Railway has been built by bonds guaranteed by the Russian Government. Russian letters and parcels are carried over the railway free of charge. The railway, like the bank, enjoys the protection both of the Russian and the Chinese flags, and, in Mr. Alfred Stead's opinion, the bank is a much more potent instrument of conquest than parks of artillery. While the Chinese in Manchuria may fear the military strength of Russia, it is the bank that has won their respect and allegiance. It receives the taxes and pays the wages, and has thus succeeded to the position formerly held by the Chinese authorities. It is extending its agencies into comparatively small towns, and the day when the evacuation convention was signed it was announced simultaneously that five or six new branches of the bank would be opened throughout Manchuria.

"The Chinese Eastern Bank is to Manchuria what the Nile is to Egypt; the Russians have, in fact, constructed through this valuable Chinese province a Nile of steel, capable of being extended in any direction desired. In this respect the Nile of steel has a distinct advantage over its watery prototype. And so subtly and carefully have the Russian authorities moved in stretching out this forerunner of an enforced civilization, so perfectly have they understood that a Chinaman who is allowed to 'save his face' will accept subjugation when he would not take it,—at least quietly,—were he forced to open confession of his defeat, so graciously have they paid market value for the land occupied by the railway, that this steel girdle has been put around their world without a murmur."

The Russians have found it much better to allow the Chinese to administer the country, while they administer the Chinese.

Besides the parallel forces of the railway and the bank, the Russians have in Manchuria a valuable instrument in the Greek Orthodox Church. This pacific method of obtaining control of a country without annexing it is, after all, little more than the adoption, under official patronage, of the system by which English traders, English speculators, and English missionaries have secured control of many countries which are not under the English flag. The net result, in Mr. Alfred Stead's opinion, is good for Manchuria; from the financial and sanitary point of view, the Manchurians are better off than they were before, and the railway has contributed materially to the improvement of the social condition of the people.



A CHINESE PUZZLE.

JOHN BULL: "By Jove! he's going out!"
JONATHAN: "Gee whiz! he's coming in!"

From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).

As to the Newchwang question, the writer points out that if Russia evacuated Newchwang, she could starve out the port by constructing a new emporium three miles farther up the river at a place called Inkou. Special advantages would be offered to ships engaged in the import trade if they would stop at Inkou instead of going down to Newchwang. The Chinese merchants would probably migrate without reluctance to the new port where they were offered special privileges, and Newchwang, the treaty port, would be transformed into a collection of consulates. If this be so, how very foolish must appear the hubbub which has been raised about Newchwang in the papers lately! The writer sums up the net result of the policy by banks and railways as follows:

"The work accomplished by the Russo-Chinese Bank and the Chinese Eastern Railway, the modern substitutes for the fire and sword of the old-fashioned conqueror, is indeed profitable. In return for the expenditure of perhaps £50,000,000, Russia has acquired the economical control of a rich province more than three times the size of the British Isles, and has done it in such a way that nearly all the expenditure has been applied directly to the development of its wealth. The inhabitants now 'think Russian,' and almost recognize the Russian flag as being as much their own as the Dragon banner. Besides the province, the expenditure of this £50,000,000 has brought one thousand miles of well-built railway, two large towns, and all the mining rights throughout the whole country. Not a



THE EVACUATION OF MANCHURIA.

Let any one who is not convinced of the honorable nature of Russia's intentions in Asia buy one of these patent toys in order to be reassured.—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

bad bargain, especially when one reflects that such a successful war may cost nearly £200,000,000, and leave the conquered territory in such a state that immediately another thirty or forty millions have to be expended to make a fresh start."

THE COLLAPSE AND UPHEAVAL IN RUSSIA.

THE *Fortnightly Review* publishes twenty pages of a very important and extremely interesting survey of the present position in Russia, by Mr. R. E. C. Long. It is entitled "The Czar. His Ministers, and His Manifesto," and is in form, at least, an examination of the causes which produced the manifesto, coupled with a very destructive criticism of the practical value of the manifesto itself. Without following Mr. Long in the whole course of his survey, we may call special attention to three or four points which should be kept well in mind by all those who are interested in watching the evolution of events in Russia.

RUSSO-ASIATIC POLICY.

The first is the significant fact that M. Witte has anticipated, in some features, Mr. Chamberlain's colonial policy. M. de Witte, in defining Russian colonial policy, states that while other empires exploited their conquests as sources of revenue for the increase of their own prosperity, the Russians adopt the diametrically opposite principle, even in the case of their richest Asiatic possessions; they expend upon them incalculable sums, while they lay the whole burden of taxation upon Russia proper. This policy, which Mr. Chamberlain would emulate, is declared by Mr. Long to be the original basic cause of the present discontent, and to have resulted in the ruin of central Russia. Outside Russia, the empire progresses; within, it is impoverished and despoiled. An ever-extending circle of beggary embraces the richest central provinces, which all the panaceas of St. Petersburg barely preserve from final dissolution. The ring of chronic starvation, already embracing most of Great Russia, marches irresistibly outward, and threatens to overwhelm the whole empire in irretrievable ruin. Russia has deliberately adopted a policy of self-exhaustion, with the result that she is not only behindhand in culture, but lacks altogether the economic preponderance which alone could perpetuate her present uncemented union.

THE REVOLT OF THE COUNTRY GENTLEMEN.

A year ago, M. de Witte, snubbing the Zemstvos, appointed temporary agricultural committees in the provinces for the purpose of discussing the causes of the existing distress. It was hoped that these committees, the members of which were nominated by the government, could be relied upon to confine themselves to what M. von Plehwe called "a policy of spades and potatoes." But so far from this being the case, the committees, composed largely of the country gentlemen of Russia, drew up memorials which would

seem to indicate that the downfall of the existing system is near at hand. The most notable of these reports was that of the Voronezh District, which met under the presidency of the local marshal of nobility. This report set forth half a dozen preliminary demands which amount to a Petition of Rights much more revolutionary for Russians than was the English Petition of Rights of two centuries ago :

"1. To extend to all classes a universal, unqualified law. No man may be deprived of personal freedom or property without trial, under danger of criminal and monetary responsibility for breaking this law. 2. To abolish imprisonment and sequestration of property by administrative order. 3. To abolish administrative punishments, penalties and restrictions such as arrest, fine, exile, supervision, and deprivation of the right to participate in public work. 4. To abolish corporal punishment. 5. To abolish the passport system. 6. To insure freedom of conscience, which derives logically from personal freedom."

They then proceeded to demand universal education at the expense of the state, the opening of the universities to all classes, the creation of local parliaments, and finally crowned the edifice by demanding a permanent organ of self-government in the shape of an all-Russian Zemstvo, composed of elected representatives of the local Zemstvos, with the right of legislating on questions involved in rural economy. Added to this, they protested against the financial policy of M. de Witte, and asked for a progressive income tax as a substitute for indirect taxation. Every effort was made to secure the withdrawal of the report ; the leading members of the committee were reprimanded, and the report was suppressed. Its recent publication in Germany enables us to gain a glimpse of the ideas that are fomenting in the minds of the educated classes in Russia.

THE CONVERSION OF M. NOVIKOFF.

Another symptom which is in its way quite as remarkable is the extraordinary confession of Mme. Novikoff's son as to the utter futility of attempting to govern the Russian people on the present system. M. Alexander Novikoff published, in 1899, a remarkably able and honest book entitled "Recollections of a Rural Chief," in which he set forth the result of seven years' experience of rural life. In the fervor of his youth, and full of faith in the virtues of the autocratic system in which he had been reared, he set about governing his district in absolutist fashion. The rural chief, or *zemski natchalnik*, has almost unlimited power over the peasants,

and M. Novikoff settled on his country estate with the intention of using this power for the purpose of "beating into the peasant the practical wisdom which he lacks, and beating out of him his detestable intemperance and idleness." After seven years' experimenting with this theory, he emerged as the author of the best description of peasant life and peasant economy published in the Russian language for many a year. M. Novikoff, after testing his theory, came forward to declare that it had hopelessly failed, and that the only hope to be found was in education, leniency, individual freedom, and non-interference from without. "The universal wail over the disintegration of village life, the muzhik's poverty, his savagery, have only one cause,—that is, the immemorial custom of holding him with a tight rein and depriving him of all independence. . . . I leave the service," he said, "with the deep conviction that with beating and hammering you will achieve nothing." So far from admitting that the peasants are idle, he declared that they work joyfully for the most trifling wages,—even for bread. The whole system of tutelage must be swept away. "Education, education, education," is the only hope.

M. DE WITTE'S ALARM.

It is not surprising, therefore, in view of this general conviction on the part of the rural gentry that the despotic system has broken down, that M. de Witte should have taken alarm. In a secret memorandum written by him in 1899, he met the attempt of M. Goremuikin to extend the Zemstvos to provinces where they did not exist by an emphatic declaration in favor of abolishing Zemstvos altogether. His argument, in brief, was that politics in Russia resolved itself into a contest between autocracy and local self-government, and that if autocracy did not crush the Zemstvos, the Zemstvos would crush autocracy. He would substitute for these elected assemblies a universal bureaucratic system such as at present exists in Poland and other non-privileged governments. Once get rid of local self-government, and establish a system of bureaucracy from above as absolute as that which exists in India, and the government could dispense with exceptional measures, and could observe without fear all the phenomena of public and private independence, such as freedom of speech and of thought. Mr. Long says that M. de Witte, in order to attach the people to the autocracy and create a substitute for the local self-government of which he wishes to deprive them, has been attempting to build a vast edifice of state patronage under which the whole

population will be reduced to the position of civil servants.

Mr. Long concludes his paper by hinting that M. de Witte, finding that autocracy is perishing, is now engaged in compiling a memorandum to prove that despotism is on its last legs. It would need a somewhat rapid turn-over for him to come out in this last new rôle; but the situation in Russia is so serious, and M. de Witte's position in particular is so difficult, that no one need be very much surprised at any move which he may make to regain his equilibrium and prevent what would seem to be the inevitable collapse of the present system.

THE MODERN DISPERSION.

IN connection with the remarkable influx of eastern Jews into the United States which is now in progress, it is interesting to get the view-point of the American-born Jew on this great world-movement of a race. In the *Menorah* for June, there is published an address recently delivered at Cleveland by Mr. Leo N. Levi on "The Modern Dispersion," in which are set forth with evident candor, impartiality, and moderation the respective views and prejudices held by eastern and western Jews in regard to each other.

Concerning this great change in the situation of the Jews, which he calls "the modern dispersion," and which began about twenty-three years ago, Mr. Levi says:

"During many generations, the majority of the Jews have dwelt in Russia, Galicia, Roumania, and Hungary. In Russia and Galicia alone, their number reached to almost five millions. It is needless to dwell on their condition; the story is well known. Suffice it to say that a little over twenty years ago the Jews began to leave these countries in large numbers, and that since then there has been an uninterrupted flow of immigration to the Orient, to western Europe, to South America, and last, but not least, to the United States.

COMPARED WITH THE EXODUS FROM SPAIN.

"During the period under consideration, 10 per cent. of the Jews of the world forsook their native homes in eastern Europe and took up new abodes in this country. At the present time, this influx to the United States equals or exceeds annually one-half per cent. of the world's total Jewish population. Add to this number those who settle in western Europe, the Levant, the West Indies, Central and South America, South Africa, and Canada, and we can readily foretell that within the first half of the twentieth

century the Jewish center of gravity will be far removed from eastern Europe. Indeed, since the stream to the United States grows larger with the passing years, we may count with some confidence that in this century the majority of the world's Jews will have established their domicile here, or certainly on the Western Hemisphere. The migration from eastern Europe in our day is strikingly like the migration from Spain at the end of the fifteenth century, except that in the expulsion from Spain not over 3 per cent. of the world's Jews were, while now considerably more than one-half are, involved.

"In short, the present dispersion has all of the tragic and romantic features of the Spanish expulsion, is impelled by an equal intolerance, endured with equal martyrdom, but exceeds it in interest and importance, because Spain only had, at most, three hundred thousand Jews, while eastern Europe is driving forth five millions."

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EASTERN AND WESTERN JEWS.

Certain sharp distinctions are drawn by the Jews themselves between the different sections of the race.

The Jews do not regard anti-Semitism with contentment or patience. On the contrary, they resent it as a gross injustice. But they have grown accustomed to it, and meet it as an inevitable evil. United against the hostility of the world, the Jews draw comfort from one another and the splendid heritage left by their ancestors. There exist, however, prejudices among the Jews themselves which, to the Gentile, at least, must appear marvelous.

"These prejudices are based on many classifications not now necessary to be considered. The one classification of greatest importance is that which sets on one side the Jews of western Europe and the United States, variously called the Reformed, the Modern, and the German and American Jews, and, on the other hand, the Jews of Russia, Galicia, Roumania, and other eastern European countries, variously called Russian, Polish, or Orthodox Jews. For convenience, let us call the former western and the latter eastern Jews.

"As a rule, the western Jews have absorbed Western civilization, and bear lightly or not at all the yoke of the Torah. As a rule, to the eastern Jews western civilization is yet unknown, and they adhere to the same religious views and practices which prevailed centuries ago. The western Jew has a modern education, and speaks with facility the language of his native land; the eastern Jew's education is largely

religious, and his mother-tongue is the jargon known as Yiddish. The points of difference between the eastern and western Jews are numerous and important, but not so much as each believes. The prejudices of each against the other magnify the differences and the faults which each ascribes to the other on account thereof.

"The western Jew treats his coreligionist from eastern Europe as an inferior. He considers him ignorant, superstitious, bigoted, hypocritical, cunning, ungrateful, quarrelsome, unclean, and in many other ways abominable.

"The view of the western Jew is superficial, hasty, and wholly unjust. It is based largely on hearsay, and otherwise upon loose generalizations made from very limited observations. The eastern Jews are looked upon *en masse*, and not as individuals. Each is considered as possessing all the faults charged to the class, and all are misjudged by the failings that are noticed in a few individuals. Those who like the eastern Jews least know them least; their best friends are those who know them well."

THE GOSPEL OF SYMPATHY AND HUMANITY.

Admitting the worst that can be said against the eastern Jew, Mr. Levi declares that "the American Jew who in this crisis is less humane and sympathetic than the whole American people is neither a good American nor a good Jew.

"Unfortunately, however, there yet remain many who, either because of ignorance or injustice, look with cold indifference or hot hostility upon the arrival of their suffering coreligionists. This is true even in the United States, where it might be expected that American birth, American training, and American ideals would engender extraordinary tenderness toward brethren who suffer martyrdom for conscience' sake.

"If it were necessary to choose between the welfare of the one million Jews in this country and the millions who must ultimately come here, justice would turn to the greater number. The millions are on the march. The dispersion is on in its full force. No power on earth can stop it. Potentates and legions are powerless to stem the tide. The few Jews who selfishly deplore the immigration to this country may as well resign themselves to the inevitable first as last. The current of the Mississippi cannot be reversed by imprecations; the onrush of the Niagara stopped by making faces at it.

"It is, however, a grievous error to spell danger or misfortune to the western Jews from the dispersion of the eastern Jews. If the former have in the course of generations thrown off many useless impediments, they have suffered

along with them the loss of many family jewels. The idealism, the poetry, the ascetic virtues, the family sanctity, the religious fervor, which were formerly so accentuated in Jewish life, have been, in a measure, lost in the process which eliminated certain Orientalisms that are found and decried in the contemporary eastern Jews. The American Jew will profit by contact with the repositories of ancient Jewish virtues. For this advantage they can make an adequate return by aiding the new-comer to throw aside the faults which the western Jews have gotten rid of. The two classes must be complementary. Each has its faults and its virtues. If folly prevails, the virtue of neither will survive; if wisdom governs, the contact of the classes will minimize the worst qualities of each, and start from the Modern Dispersion a chapter of Jewish history as glorious as any that precedes it. And this wisdom is to the fore. Broad men in both classes are assuming the leadership. The gospel of hate and discord is giving way to the gospel of harmony and love. The monger of sneers and denunciation has had his day. The forces of destruction are spent and those of construction are growing. The condemned beggar of twenty years ago is the man of affairs to-day; the beggar of to-day will be a man of substance in the future. The arrogant and shallow-minded inheritor of his father's wealth without his father's thrift will pass out with the wealth he has not the wit to preserve. There will be a comingling of the classes to make a stronger and better class. It is manifest destiny."

THE WOULD-BE EMANCIPATOR OF MACEDONIA.

IN the *Idler* is told the story of the president of the Macedonian Revolutionary Committee, Boris Sarafoff, and his work against the Turks:

"In 1899, Boris Sarafoff became the president of the Macedonian Revolutionary Committee. At once that organization, previously a loose union of many branches under many leaders, became solidified, systematized, and menacing. Its head was in Sofia, in free Bulgaria. Its arms, always *en rapport* with the head, were in every Macedonian village where there were Bulgarians and the hope of freedom from the Turk. . . .

"Sarafoff is a young man. He was born thirty years ago, in the Turkish village of Ljubjechovo. His inheritance, from generations of Bulgarian ancestors, was hate of Turkish tyranny and the example of many forefathers who had fought against it futilely. When he was five years old, he saw his father and grandfather dragged from

home in chains by the Bashi-Bazouks, lashed and imprisoned, on a charge of treason."

BEGINNINGS OF REVOLUTION.

Sarafoff went through military training with the Bulgarian army as a private and as a lieutenant, in order to fit himself for his life-work.

"In 1895, Sarafoff was ready to begin the vendetta he had sworn, and which was to assume at length such ominous proportions. In July, he gathered together eighty young men, crossed the Macedonian border, and descended all unexpectedly upon the town of Melnik. His maiden maneuvers would have done credit to a veteran. He cut the telegraph lines, overpowered the guard



BORIS SARAFOFF.

of the Turkish prefecture, turned the Bulgarian prisoners out of the jail and threw the Turkish prefect in. The Turkish garrison of one hundred sallied out, and half of them were killed, while the other half fled. Then Sarafoff burned Melnik's government buildings, and gracefully disappeared into the mountain passes as several regiments of Moslem horse and foot came headlong on the scene. Thus the Turkish Government first heard of Sarafoff."

THE REVOLUTIONARY COMMITTEE.

As soon as Sarafoff became president of the inner council of the Revolutionary Committee, "he established a policy in two parts for fight-

ing the Turk. The first principle was that a guerrilla war must be waged tirelessly, in which all Macedonia should be finally forced to join. But a guerrilla war against the Turks would never reach anywhere of itself. Therefore, the second principle followed,—that the Balkans must be embroiled and mutilated in such a shocking way that the powers would be forced to attend to the Turk. This is the principle which is desperate and relentless, and which wounds Macedonia as deeply as it wounds the Turk. It has been named 'Sarafoffism' in Europe. Its only excuse is fierce enthusiasm for liberty, but it is for liberty bought at a price as heavy to the Christian as to the Moslem.

"Sarafoff began at once, in 1899, on elaborate plans for the realization of his vendetta against the Turks. He perfected the system of committee agents and spies through Macedonia, and instilled the principle which has since made him and his organization so shadowy and sinister that the machine must move always in the dark."

DEATH TO THE TURKS!

At last all was ready, and despite the precautions taken in Constantinople and Macedonia, Sarafoff threw down the glove.

"The border passes forthwith gave up armed guerrilla bands, which sallied nimbly down into Macedonia and opened their campaign in Sarafoff's pre-presidential style of strike and get away. His bands slipped through Monastir Vilayet, only visible when they swooped down in forays on Turkish towns. Villagers of Zelenitche were beaten by a Turkish prefect and forty Bashi-Bazouks, who thought they could thus learn the whereabouts of certain Sarafoff raiders. Later, they ran into the revolutionists, who in four hours' fighting killed them to a man.

"Sarafoff's committee used the general disturbance to pass rifles over the border. New commandoes were armed and sent down among the Turkish villages."

SARAFOFF'S AIMS AND METHODS.

Not content with the mere killing of Turks, Sarafoff is anxious to draw the attention of Europe to the Balkans, and for this more doubtful measures are necessary. Not content with the abduction of Miss Stone, the Revolutionary Committee knows how to fill the newspapers with horror.

"If the powers would not notice Turkey's atrocities in Macedonia, Sarafoff would manufacture atrocities that they would look at. This is the dark chapter in the man's history. Indeed, he succeeded so well that he became the

Sultan's scapegoat in his periodic denials of inhumanity. When a peculiarly brutal outbreak takes place against the Christians to-day, the Turks are as likely as not to say, 'It is Sarafoff's men, who will pretend, of course, that it was we who did it.' While the Turks are no more humane to-day than they were when the Bulgarian consuls made out their list of atrocities, the Sarafoff committee is not guiltless of exciting them to murder and rape and plunder. It is not that the Macedonian Committee is directly responsible for Turkish atrocities, but that by striking the Turks through their non-combatants and their religion they have roused them to retaliate the more cruelly."

REFORM IN TURKEY.

THE corrupt and inefficient government of Turkey, which is growing more and more of an anachronism in Europe, is subjected to a scathing review in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* for April by a writer who, hiding his identity under the pseudonym of 'Laborator,' evidently speaks from close personal knowledge.

"It is not easy," he says, "to become really acquainted with conditions in Turkey. Most diplomats lack actual knowledge of its internal affairs. One must have lived among the people and have come into close contact with the government in order to be able to understand the deplorable system and the absolutely untenable conditions. If a Turkish official talks of reform, he either deliberately tells an untruth or is an ignorant idealist. The Turk lacks the qualities requisite for competing with the Occident. So long as there were no railroads and no telegraphs, he could live in his seclusion, preserving his culture and his racial peculiarities. His position on the highway to-day has become fateful to him. Turkey exemplifies the historical axiom that a people of conquerors which fails to fulfill its cultural mission in the countries it has subjugated must in the end give way to more progressive peoples."

THE GOVERNMENT.

"The Turkish Government," says the writer, "is an absolute negation of all that we understand by the term government, and from top to bottom absolutely fails to comprehend the most elementary duties of a government; it is also devoid, in general, of honesty and earnest endeavor; hence, an uprising of the subjugated nations, the 'rajah peoples,' that are mostly superior to the Turk, was bound to come sooner or later."

The writer's first point of attack is the wretched

financial condition of the Ottoman Empire, which is most frequently discussed, since the shameful mismanagement of the finances is doubtless the cause, as well as the consequence, of the present deplorable state of the country. There is no budget, and no central office for checking off the income and expenditures. The Sultan arbitrarily makes immense drafts upon the exchequer for his court and his minions. Bribery and corruption are rampant among the officials, high and low, and the common people, as usual, have to bear the burdens of taxation.

The administration, or, rather, the miscarriage, of justice, is lashed with equal vehemence by "Laborator." There is, in fact, no justice in Turkey, he says. "It happens quite frequently that judges, in connivance with false witnesses, concoct direct accusations, especially on some political pretense or *lese majesté*, against persons known to be wealthy for the sole purpose of levying blackmail."

More direful, even, than the financial and judicial maladministration are the consequences of the terrible demoralization proceeding from the highest circles downward. "Ever since the accession of the present Sultan, a system of espionage has come into vogue that is permeating with its poison the entire social order. No one, even among the highest officials, is for a moment sure of his position. Spies are everywhere, and both officers and officials openly say that they enter the secret service in order to advance themselves. Any one standing in the way of his neighbor, his brother, father, or son, is denounced and summarily banished. All Asia Minor, Syria, Arabia, and Tripoli swarm with exiles. People of all classes are arrested without warning, kept in prison for months, sometimes tortured, and finally put on board ship and sent away. Their misery is relieved only by the open-handed charity that the Turks practise among one another. Even this almsgiving is dangerous, and the almoner must often carefully conceal his gifts in order not to come under suspicion himself. It is impossible to describe the condition to which this system of espionage has led, destroying every trace of dignity and confidence. This state of affairs is getting worse every year, especially as the Sultan, with his excessive nervousness, is now entirely in the hands of a camarilla shameless beyond bounds."

THE SULTAN AND REFORM.

"The Sultan is an autocrat who, like his predecessors, came to the throne without any training for his high office. A man of undoubtedly great intelligence, with an almost superhuman capacity for work, the experiences of his youth

have abnormally developed the mistrust inborn in every Oriental ruler. As he never leaves the palace, and never converses with any but his camarilla, it is impossible for him to get at the true state of affairs of the country, for he sees only the generally favorably tinged reports laid before him by his councilors. He has, moreover, actually no time to consider any one question thoroughly, for, having concentrated the entire government in his hands, his imperial *irade* is necessary for even the most trivial official act. The greater part of his time, furthermore, is taken up by the reports of the secret service, for he judges everything and everybody from the standpoint of his own personal safety. Although the Sultan may desire reforms, his whole education, his views, and his character make it impossible for him to fulfill the initial conditions of reform,—namely, the introduction of a real budget and the institution of a responsible ministry."

THE POWERS AND REFORM.

The majority of the diplomats think that real reform is impossible in Turkey. Events have shown that Russia actually does not desire them, and would rather forego the three hundred and fifty thousand Turkish pounds yearly war indemnity than have this sum guaranteed by a thorough reform of the Turkish Government. Those among the other powers that might desire a change are unable to bring it about, for fear of clashing with Russia, though Germany, perhaps with the platonic encouragement of England, is endeavoring to strengthen Turkey, so that it may not become a negligible quantity in face of Russia. It is the general policy of each power to prevent serious conflicts, while seizing every opportunity to get as many advantages as possible for itself and its *protégés*, and remaining indifferent to the hopeless question of reform.

"There is only one way," the writer concludes, "by which peace can be restored among the different peoples composing the Turkish Empire and a great danger averted from Europe,—namely, if the powers control the Turkish finances. They will be obliged to do this sooner or later, especially Germany and France, for so much capital has been invested in Turkey, for which the government has given its guaranty, that the finances must be regulated in order to protect those interests. If such an international control could be established, if the officials were regularly salaried and the taxes more justly levied, then the judiciary and the government might be reformed in such wise that all the different peoples might live in harmony together. But Turkey cannot reform itself of its own accord."

ABDUL THE HAUNTED.

THE *Pall Mall Magazine* contains a sketch of Abdul-Hamid, the man, his character, and his *entourage*, by a Greek ex-attaché in the Turkish foreign office. The editor publishes it "without prejudice, as a fair sample of the criticism which the Sultan receives from those of his subjects who are opposed to him on religious or political grounds." Its perusal will move even his enemies to something like pity.

THE SLAVE OF TERROR.

The physical and mental portrait presented is that of a man who lives a life in torment. The sketch of his physique is far from prepossessing:

"Of medium height, slightly rickety on his legs, and painfully thin, he seems now only to have his breath left, and, in fact, it is his nerves that keep him alive. Such a constitution must necessarily influence his mentality. Abdul-Hamid is, in truth, a victim of neurasthenia, and in some things a monomaniac. But tyranny and the continual fear in which he lives have led him to devote all his energies to his personal preservation, and to use only the faculties which contribute to that end, such as distrust, cunning, and the instinct of defense. These faculties are monstrously developed, to the suffocation of the others, and in his brain, wearied by neurasthenia, have become abiding passions. Thus, in the progress of time Abdul-Hamid has ended by becoming one of that class known to doctors as the *persecuting persecuted*."

A GENIUS IN CUNNING.

If this be so, it may be taken as an awful warning of an unregulated abandonment to the instinct of self-preservation. The writer proceeds:

"If, as has been said, generalizing rather too freely, cunning is the intelligence of the Oriental people, the Sultan may be considered among them as a man of genius. It was, indeed, by cunning that he arrived at power, and it is by the same method that he now keeps himself there, and that he governs. He is a skillful layer of traps, and capable of all kinds of abjectness toward his enemies when he fears them, and of the greatest severity when he has them in his power, and his vengeance is the heavier for having been patiently nourished in secret."

BLOOD HIS RESTORATIVE.

It is a grewsome picture: "Not only is the life of a man who is troublesome to him of little account, but spilled blood seems to calm and soothe his shattered nerves, always stretched to

the snapping point. 'At night, before going to sleep,' says one of his chamberlains, 'he has some one to read to him. His favorite books are those giving detailed accounts of assassinations and executions. The stories of crimes excite him and prevent him sleeping, but as soon as his reader reaches a passage where punishment falls upon the criminal, the Sultan immediately becomes calm and falls asleep.'

TORTURED BY HALLUCINATIONS.

The Sultan is ever on the rack of suspicion, and suspicion sometimes deepens into hallucination.

"On the day following the attempt on his life by Ali-Souavi and the revolt at Tcheragan, both of which incidents greatly upset him, Abdul-Hamid called his first secretary, who at that time was Ali-Fuad Bey, led him to a window, and pointing to the Sublime Porte, some miles away, said, trembling with fear: 'Do you see them? They have met yonder to proclaim my downfall!' 'Who?' asked the startled secretary. 'My ministers,' replied the Sultan. 'My own ministers are now in the act of dethroning me. Can't you see them?' Ali-Fuad Bey had the greatest possible difficulty in calming his master's hallucination."

The writer remarks that he has the gift of making himself agreeable in order to win the friendship of those who approach him, especially foreigners.

"He takes all kinds of pains to please them, and it is seldom that a European leaves him without being fascinated by his cordial and charming manner and exquisite tact. The Sultan, in fact, practises the art of politeness and hospitality, not only as an Oriental, but also as a European. Nowhere are foreign notabilities received as royally as at Yildiz."

WHAT STOPPED HIS FLIGHT.

Here is an incident which explains why the harried Bulgarians and Armenians have no reason to love the Kaiser:

"When the London press, after the Armenian massacres, urged Europe to depose him whom Gladstone called the Great Assassin, and the fleet of Admiral Seymour was maneuvering in a disquieting manner in the waters of the Archipelago, the Sultan, one night, from information sent by the Ottoman embassy in London, had reason to think that flight abroad was his only means of safety. He summoned his ministers in extraordinary council to deliberate on the situation, while his yacht *Izzeddin* was anchored off Bechiktach, with steam up, ready to take him to Odessa. One of the ministers, Mahmoud-

Djellaleddin Pasha, suggested that the German embassy be consulted. The Sultan immediately dispatched his favorite, Izzet Bey, to the representative of Kaiser Wilhelm. During the absence of his envoy, the Sultan, his face the picture of anxiety and gloom, paced feverishly up and down the room. He had on his person all his jewels, and bonds for a considerable amount could be seen stuffed into the pockets of his belt. But when Izzet Bey brought back the promise that Wilhelm would stand by *his friend*, Abdul-Hamid so far forgot himself for joy that he almost knelt down before the favorite, so profuse was he in his assurances of his gratitude and affection."

AGRARIAN EVILS IN SOUTHERN ITALY.

IN connection with the "Italian problem," which is touched upon by Mr. Moffett elsewhere in this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, it is interesting to note the present plight of those portions of southern Italy from which the great stream of immigration is flowing to this country.

Any one wishing to make a study of the agricultural and economic condition of southern Italy could not do better than read the two lengthy articles dealing with the Basilicate,—perhaps the very poorest of all the Italian provinces,—which appear simultaneously in the *Rassegna Nazionale* and the *Nuova Antologia* (May 1).

THE IRELAND OF SOUTHERN ITALY.

In the former, G. Prato takes a very gloomy view of the situation, basing his estimate on the fact that a higher percentage of the population emigrates from the Basilicate than from any other province. The situation, he contends, can only be compared with that of Ireland after the famine, another point of resemblance being that once emigrated to America, the starving peasantry quickly grow prosperous, and send over, annually, large sums of money to their destitute relations at home. He attributes the present acute distress mainly to heavy taxation and its unfair distribution; also to bad harvests, deforestation, and foreign industrial competition.

The article in the *Antologia* takes the form of an open letter addressed by the deputy P. Lacava to the editor, Maggiorino Ferraris, in which, after pointing out the comparatively easy economic position enjoyed by the province when forming a portion of the Kingdom of Naples, he attributes a great deal of the present poverty to the lack of proper road and rail communication. By means of elaborate tables of statistics, he proves that not only is there less land under

cultivation, with a decrease in nearly all forms of produce, save only, in olive oil, but that the wealth of the province in flocks and herds is also on the decrease. Under such circumstances, it is not surprising to find that the population is decreasing also, and that half the province is practically uninhabited.

A VITAL QUESTION FOR FRANCE.

TO the *Revue de Paris*, an anonymous writer contributes a courageous and sensible article on a question which is, after all, one of vital interest to France,—the health of her army. The paper is significantly headed "The Mortality in the Army," and it is the writer's object to discuss and to discover why the French army suffers from a far greater mortality each year than does the German army. As was the case in the late South African war, during the "Terrible Year" (1870-71), France lost many more soldiers by death from disease than on the battlefield; for while the Germans during the same months only lost some five hundred men from smallpox, *twenty-three thousand Frenchmen* fell victims to the same dread disease. During the last twenty-five years, typhoid fever has been the great curse of the French army; but of late, tuberculosis has also made terrible ravages, owing, it is thought, to the increase of drunkenness in a nation which used to pride itself on its extreme sobriety.

UN SOUND RECRUITS.

The writer points out that many young men utterly unfit for such a life as that of a soldier in a French garrison town are now passed into the army, partly because the doctors to whom are confided the medical examination of recruits are nervously afraid of appearing to perform acts of favoritism, partly because the numbers must be kept up. But if the account here given of French garrison life be true, small wonder that even those young men who enlist in perfectly sound health are apt to contract deadly disease. During the last fifteen years, everything has been done to make the army larger, and yet during that same period no provision has been made to cope with the numbers who have been gradually added to each army corps, and it often happens that whole regiments of soldiers shiver in winter and perspire in summer, their dwelling any kind of old farm building near the regular barracks which the government is able to hire at small cost. Again and again, the spending of a few thousand dollars on new, airy, and clean barracks has at once transformed a regiment which was noted for being

constantly in hospital into one able to show a clean bill of health.

INSANITARY BARRACKS.

Again and again, in towns of which the inhabitants have been perfectly healthy, there have been in the military quarters terrible outbreaks of what are supposed to be water-borne diseases. At Arras, in the year 1900, influenza swept the garrison, while the town folk remained quite free from this modern plague. In one matter only can the German soldier reasonably envy his French brother,—no Frenchman would put up with the inferior food and with the small quantity of nourishment with which the German soldier is content.

Some particulars are given concerning the composition of the French army medical corps. There is only one doctor provided for each five hundred men, while in Germany there are, roughly speaking, two for the same number.

THE GERMAN COLONY OF EAST AFRICA.

ABOUT two decades ago, German pioneers first went to East Africa and raised the flag of the German Empire there. Germany at that time was beginning to feel the need of colonies, toward which to direct its surplus population and whence to draw its colonial products, for which it spends between eight hundred and one thousand million marks a year. The results of these twenty years of occupancy, as well as the measures necessary for the further development of this colony, are discussed in the June number of the *Deutsche Revue* by Lieutenant von Liebert, who was for four years on the spot as Governor of German East Africa. The subtitle to his paper, "Illusion and Truth," is significant as indicating the temper with which this nation of "poets and thinkers" engaged in the strenuous task of colonizing a foreign, subtropical region, and the net returns of its dreams and speculations. The project was greeted with immense enthusiasm and capital, and colonists were not lacking for the start. But insufficient acquaintance with the country and the conditions of life there led to disastrous results, and when the new possessions were made a crown colony, in 1891, the entire work of colonization had to be done over again. Profiting by these first failures, the Germans are now proceeding with a strict eye to business.

The commerce of the country, about which there were the greatest illusions in the beginning, is still inconsiderable, in consequence both of the heavy duties imposed by the mother country, and especially of the predominance of the

free port of Zanzibar. The country offers more encouragement to the agriculturist, its climate and soil being similar to that of India. Coffee is successfully cultivated in the highlands near the coast, and the Usumbara coffee, with its small aromatic bean, is already a staple article in all markets. Other products for which the natives can find a ready sale are: (1) Grains, such as mtama, manioc, beans, maize, and rice, which are largely sent to India; (2) oleaginous fruits, such as kopra (obtained from the cocoa tree), sesame, and pig-nuts, which are staple articles for the European markets; (3) fibrous plants, such as agave and ramie; (4) cotton and caoutchouc. During the writer's term of office in the colony, cotton planting was not considered profitable; but it is now taken in hand again, apparently with better success. "It would, of course, be of extreme importance," he says, "if we could succeed in raising in our colonies a part of the great quantities of cotton consumed at home, and thereby become somewhat more independent of the United States."

In view of these agricultural prospects, there are two problems with which the colony has to deal in order to insure its future prosperity,—native labor and transportation facilities.

NATIVE LABOR.

The writer states emphatically that the development of the colony depends solely on native labor, which must first be organized. Owing to many different causes, the country has been depopulated, numbering now only from six to seven million inhabitants in an area of nine hundred and forty-one thousand square kilometers. These natives must be put to work, both by means of gentle compulsion, in the form of a "cabin tax," amounting to 3 rupees, or 4.20 marks, a family per year; and by appealing to their cupidity, since the negro "is sufficiently intelligent and eager for gain to imitate the example of the industrious colonists, whereby he can earn a number of rupees in return for comparatively easy work. Of course, there can be no coercion, it being a question of time and patience. The personality of the official supervising these natives is a prime factor of success. If he is known as a *bwana mzuri* (good master), the negroes will flock to him, and he can direct them at will; but if he has the reputation of being *kali* (bad), all his efforts are in vain. The stage of the *chumasaschrin* (twenty-five lashes!) is over, and humane treatment has inspired the natives with confidence."

The writer speaks highly of this amiable, kind-hearted race. The East African negro possesses a certain degree of intelligence, with a pro-

nounced gift of observation and imitation, but lacks the logical faculties. He separates all things into two classes,—*chakula* and *hapana chakula*, that which can be eaten and that which cannot be eaten. The young negro is a good pupil, and the negro schools are achieving gratifying results.

TRANSPORTATION.

The government has devoted years to the building of caravan highways, and has established inns, etc., for travelers. But these improvements are inadequate for commercial purposes, as draught animals are scarce, and the ox-wagon cannot, therefore, be used to the same extent as in South and southwestern Africa. The chief means of transportation now are native porters, who carry the produce from the interior to the coast. It occasionally happens that the porter eats up his load on the way and arrives empty-handed in town, and must then be paid for the return trip. Under such conditions, trade, of course, cannot flourish in the German ports. Railroads are, therefore, imperatively needed in order to develop the country, and the writer urges the building of the lines that have been planned long ago. The line from Kilwa Kisiwani to Wiedhafen, on Lake Nyassa, seven hundred kilometers long, will, in his opinion, capture the important trade from the interior of the Congo State and from the Nyassa districts, now going down the Shire and Zambezi to the Portuguese-English port of Chinde, and direct it to the excellent German port of Kilwa.

THE CUBAN BALANCE SHEET.

THE first year of Cuba's independence and existence as a nationality was completed in May last. Apropos of this fact, Capt. Matthew E. Hanna, who was on General Wood's staff during the American occupation of the island, and for two years was commissioner of public schools, contributes to the *Atlantic* for July a *résumé* of the first year of Cuban self-government. In Captain Hanna's estimation, the most powerful factor for honest and stable self-government in Cuba has been "the calm, patient, conservative, and conciliatory attitude" of President Palma.

"That he has been able to govern the island for a year, with the active assistance of the better element in politics, and at the same time convince the worse element of the wisdom of his intentions, stamps him as a ruler of exceptional executive ability. He has always appealed to the patriotism of his countrymen, and has believed that it should be sufficient stimulus to

solve the questions of the hour and give life to the government. His influence with Congress has been sufficiently powerful to temper the hot-headed and indiscreet and to give complexion to legislation. In one instance only has he been forced to put his signature to a bill that did not meet with his approval, but his reasons for doing so were good. With a single exception, he has so thoroughly introduced his ideas in legislation when it was in process of formation in Congress that he has had to exercise the power of veto but once, and then his reasons for doing this were so powerful that the changes he recommended were promptly made. He has borne with rare patience the delays of Congress, and apparently has not expected the impossible. He has contented himself with the knowledge that but few radical, revolutionary, or reactionary laws have been enacted, if he has to admit that some laws have still to be framed that the country sorely needs.

"His messages to Congress have been ably prepared, have been conciliatory and conservative, and have outlined the work of Congress in a careful and clear manner. In his first message, he emphasizes the necessity for providing sufficient revenues to meet the expenses of the state; for public and political economy; for assisting agriculture and cattle-raising; for arranging a reciprocity treaty with the United States; for developing public instruction; for encouraging railroads; for continuing public works; for maintaining a perfect understanding with the United States; for preserving good sanitary



PRESIDENT PALMA.

conditions in the island; for supporting hospitals and asylums and improving jails; for bettering the administration of justice; for paying the Liberating Army, and for organizing the diplomatic and consular services. How thoroughly this plan has been carried out will be seen further on."

WORK OF THE CUBAN CONGRESS.

Captain Hanna summarizes the legislation of the Cuban Congress, showing that, on the whole, conservatism has prevailed in the work of the legislators, who for more than ten months have devoted all their time to the completion of the plan outlined for them by the President. Captain Hanna says: "The serious mistakes, the fraud and corruption, and even the inefficiency, so frequently prophesied a few months ago are not to be encountered in the record of Congress up to date, and the evident desire to continue the work of government along the general lines established by the military government is shown in the cautious way in which all serious changes in military orders have been avoided."

We are reminded, however, that the Congress was a newly born legislative body, quite ignorant of the procedure by which it was to make use of the faculties with which it was endowed. In the absence of precedent, it was necessary to make rules for governing the two branches, and after the rules were made they had to be interpreted. Almost every day, a large part of the session was spent in wrangling over some point which would have been settled in some older

AFTER THE FIRST MILE.—From the *Leader* (Cleveland).

congress by some well-established precedent. Captain Hanna admits that if Congress has erred at all it has been on the side of doing too little, but this is certainly better than to rush headlong into ill-considered legislation. As to the principal law passed by the Congress,—namely, the act authorizing a thirty-five-million-dollar loan, twenty-seven millions of which will be required for the payment of the army,—Captain Hanna emphasizes the importance attached by the business classes in Cuba to the impetus that will be given to all kinds of business by suddenly placing so large an amount of money in circulation. During the time of the American occupation, the whole amount of money expended by the military government was a little more than fifty-five million dollars; so that within a few months from now there will be placed in circulation in Cuba almost one-half the entire amount circulated by the United States Government there in four years. There is no doubt, Captain Hanna says, of the Cuban Government's ability to bear the loan, provided that reciprocity with the United States is secured, and he thinks that there is little doubt of it, even without reciprocity. The remaining eight million dollars of the loan are for assistance to agriculture and for the payment of debts legitimately contracted during the revolution.

In regard to reciprocity with the United States, Captain Hanna says that it is impossible to avoid noting the childlike confidence with which all classes have founded their hopes upon the desire of the people of the United States for fair play with Cuba; and in spite of the repeated failures, they still hope the treaty will soon be ratified. Their faith in the President of the United States is unbounded, and that more than anything else has influenced the Cuban Senate to accept the amendments recently made by the Senate of the United States.

As to the condition of public health, Captain Hanna states that the sanitary methods employed by the army of occupation are still enforced. Yellow fever has not reappeared; there has not been a case in Havana for almost two years, and in other cities of the island for a still longer period. An effective quarantine system is in force.

GOOD ADMINISTRATION.

The reports of the Department of Public Instruction showed that more than 3,400 teachers are employed in the island, while more than 150,000 pupils are enrolled in the schools, 120,000 being in constant attendance. In October last, a law was enacted increasing the rural guard,—the regular army of Cuba,—from

1,400 to 3,000 men, and giving it an organization more nearly like that of modern armies. A gratifying fact connected with the first year of administration by the national government is the evident economy that has prevailed in all branches of public service. The government was handed over to the Cubans with \$689,191 in the treasury, and with more than a million and a half dollars free from allotments. At the end of April, 1903, there was in the treasury a balance of \$2,699,071.55. From May 20, 1902, to April 30, 1903, the total revenues of the island amounted to \$16,323,029.67, and the expenditures to approximately \$14,000,000. The government is self-supporting, is without debts, and has a handsome unencumbered balance in its treasury. Diplomatic and consular services have been organized, and laws for the support and control of the latter have been enacted. It is believed that the laws fixing the revenues of the consulates will make these services self-supporting. Cuban legations are now established in the principal foreign capitals, and consulates have been opened in many American coast cities and in European shipping centers. Concluding his survey, Captain Hanna remarks:

"It is little less than remarkable, and speaks volumes for the efficiency of the recent military government, and for the present civil government, that the work of the former has been assumed and continued by the latter without its progress being materially interrupted by so radical a change in governmental methods, and there is every reason to believe that the government will become more efficient with time. The people of the island are law-abiding and orderly, although an economical condition prevails that might well produce serious discontent. Already there has been opportunity for noticing the absence of revolutionary tendencies and of any disposition of the minority to refuse to be ruled by the majority,—conditions so prevalent in some other Latin republics. With great wisdom, the administration has devoted itself to the really important and urgent questions of the hour, and has not wasted time and energy. Much legislation was necessary before all the departments of the government were in a condition to properly perform their constitutional functions, and this is either complete or nearly so. Of equal importance have been considered the restoration of agriculture and business and the payment of the army. The revenues and expenses have been studied with the idea of raising the former and making every possible reduction in the latter. In short, up to date, the Cuban Government is conspicuous for energy, honesty, economy, and ability."

THE INTERNATIONAL BUREAUS AT BERNE.

THE announcement that the Swiss Federal Council is about to erect at Berne, Switzerland, a monument to commemorate the founding of the Universal Postal Union directs our attention to the fact that the Postal Union is only one of four great international offices which have their headquarters in the same small city of Berne. An article in *Le Monde Illustré* for May 23 gives some interesting information as to the history and present functions of these bureaus. The first of these institutions to be organized was the International Bureau of Telegraphic Administration, instituted in 1868 by the International Telegraphic Conference of Vienna, and placed by that body under the direction of the higher authorities of the Swiss Confederation. The purpose of the bureau is to serve as a permanent bond between the administrations of the

of more than one billion people are served by this bureau. The present director of the bureau is M. Ruffy, formerly president of the Swiss Federal Confederation.

The International Bureau for the Protection of Industrial, Artistic, and Literary Property represents two international unions. Industrial property includes patents, designs, and industrial models, trade-marks, and commercial names. The Union for the Protection of Industrial Property was founded by a convention signed at Paris on March 20, 1883. Seventeen states united to form this convention: Belgium, Brazil, Denmark, the Dominican Republic, Spain, United States of America, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Norway, Holland, Portugal, Servia, Sweden, Switzerland, and Tunis. The convention of 1883 was completed and modified by an act signed at Brussels in 1902. It is said that Ger-



M. RUFFY.

(Director of the Bureau of the Universal Postal Union.)

M. WINKLER.

(Director of the Central Office of International Railroad Transportation.)

M. HENRI MOREL.

(Director of the Bureau for the Protection of Industrial, Artistic, and Literary Property.)

M. EMIL FRYE.

(Director of the International Bureau of Telegraphic Administration.)

different states which constitute the telegraphic union. Forty-three states or colonies are now served by the bureau, which publishes valuable statistics concerning the international telegraph and cable movement. The director of this bureau is M. Emil Frye, formerly Swiss federal councilor. The annual expenses of the bureau are advanced by the Swiss Federation and reimbursed by the participating governments.

The International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union,—an office which is far better known in this country than either of the other bureaus located at Berne,—was established by a convention signed at the Congress of Berne in 1874. Only twenty-three states participated in the Congress of Berne, but at the present time the union includes sixty-three states or colonies, or practically all of the countries of the globe having organized postal systems. The interests

many and Austria-Hungary are about to join the alliance, and possibly also Russia. The purpose of the union is the protection of industrial property. The Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Property was founded in 1886. An additional act, or interpretative declaration, was signed at Paris in 1896. Both these bureaus are under the charge of Director Henri Morel.

The Central Office of International Railroad Transportation was founded by an international convention on October 14, 1890. The countries represented in that convention were Germany, Belgium, France, Italy, Luxemburg, Holland, Austria-Hungary, Russia, and Switzerland. Denmark gave her adhesion in 1897. The work of the bureau is almost entirely concerned with the codification of railroad law. The new director of this office is M. Winkler, formerly a member of the Federal Supreme Court of Switzerland.

A FARMERS' TRUST.

FROM time to time, some of the coöperative movements among the farmers of the middle West have been described in the *Review of Reviews*,—notably the attempt of certain Kansas farmers to cope with the exactions of the grain-buying trust. In the July number of the *World's Work*, Mr. H. A. Wood gives an account of a remarkably successful coöperative scheme originated and managed by five hundred Iowa farmers, who last year carried on a business of more than six hundred and twenty thousand dollars on a capital of twenty-five thousand dollars, with a total expense for salaries, rent, insurance, etc., of less than four thousand dollars. This experiment antedates by many years the movement among the farmers of Kansas. These Iowa farmers have operated their company for thirteen years, during which time they have transacted more than five million dollars' worth of business without the loss of a dollar, and at no time has their indebtedness been more than five thousand dollars.

The general nature of the business of this corporation, as set forth in its charter, is "buying and selling and dealing in all kinds of farm and dairy products, cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, dry goods, boots and shoes, groceries, hardware, farm machinery, lumber, stone, brick, and all kinds of building material, grain, and real estate, and dealing in all kinds of merchandise, and buying and selling all such kinds of property on commission and otherwise." Each share of stock in this corporation is worth ten dollars. No member may own more than ten shares of stock, nor may any person become a shareholder who is not a practical farmer. A general agent is employed to take charge of the business, but only very few other employees are needed, since the business practically carries on itself. The company buys all the output of its members, and sells to the farmers what they need. Others than members may buy goods from the concern, but this kind of trade is not especially sought for. Supplies are sold for a little above cost to members, outsiders paying slightly more. The goods handled are farm implements and farm machinery, flour, fence wire, fuel, salt, lumber, oils, and the like, all of these commodities being purchased in large quantities; the company owns its own elevator for the storage of grain, and maintains its own lumber yard; the supplies are stored in warehouses.

COMPETITION INVITED.

It appears that the farmers are not afraid of competition; but, on the contrary, rather court it. When the grain dealers found that the

farmers were paying more through their agents for grain than was being offered by the dealers, the latter remonstrated, and finally threatened to sell farmers' supplies below the farmer company's price, and to pay fifty cents for corn when the farmers could pay only forty-five. To this the farmers replied that nothing would please them better than to receive larger prices for their produce than their own company was able to pay, and to get what goods they required at lower prices than their own store could supply them. If the dealers could establish a grain elevator and pay more for grain than the farmers' company, the farmers promised to go to that elevator and sell their grain to the dealers. Nothing came of this "bluff" on the part of the dealers, who thereupon attempted to influence the railroad company to stop shipping the farmers' produce and supplies. But as the farmers had a large amount of raw material which the railroad company wanted to ship, and, furthermore, bought large quantities of goods, thus being desirable customers of the railroad, the railroad people could not be won over, and the farmers remained secure in their position.

Mr. Wood investigated the status of the members, and found that the five hundred farmers were worth at least \$5,000,000. Their farms average one hundred and sixty acres in size, some of them being considerably larger. Their land has steadily increased in value in the last twenty years, until their farms are now worth all the way from fifty to eighty dollars an acre. The success of the "trust" has been made known to farmers in other localities, and similar organizations have been formed in various places.

THE LABORER AS STOCKHOLDER.

EXCEPTING the United States Steel Corporation's plan of stock-distribution, described in these pages by Walter Wellman some months ago, the propositions of great corporations to admit their employees to partnership have usually been coldly received. The individual workingman sees very little advantage to himself or to his family in the ownership of one or two shares of stock in an enterprise controlled by others. The small profits to be derived from such holdings afford but a meager inducement to buy. Some trade-union leaders may have thought of the possibilities of union ownership of stock on a large scale, but nothing seems to have been attempted in that direction as yet. It is from the union workman's point of view that the potential concentration of wealth in the producers' hands is considered at some length

in an article contributed to *Cassier's* for June by Mr. Frank C. Perkins. If the unions can raise strike funds, argues Mr. Perkins, they can just as easily and surely raise funds for stock-purchasing.

COAL MINERS CAN RAISE \$2,500,000 A YEAR.

"Take, as an instance, the recent anthracite and bituminous coal strikes in the United States, with union miners numbering a quarter of a million men. Ten dollars do not make a capitalist, it is true; but a quarter of a million men paying twenty cents a week into a union stock fund means ten dollars per year, or a total of two and a half million dollars for a single year. This is a goodly capital to be controlled by the men who furnish all of the labor for operating the mines as well. Is it not fair to presume that with this invested in the companies which employ them, the men would not have to strike to obtain a hearing?

LABOR UNIONS AS STOCKHOLDERS.

"The proper union officials might buy the stock on the exchanges, month by month, as the money came in, little by little, from the men. In time they could control a large amount of stock, so that they would be entitled to a representative upon the board of directors, and they could vote upon that stock for their interests through that man, who might be the president of the union association of stockholders. The men would then be able to know the condition of affairs in the corporation through the reports to the stockholders. If the earnings were such as to warrant an increase of wages they would get it, and if they did not get it in wages they would get it in dividends. At any rate, they would hardly vote for a strike to depreciate the value of their holdings.

"If there were no dividends, and losses instead of profits, then the men would, for their own good, be more satisfied to accept a cut in wages, but as stockholders they could demand that all of the salaries be cut, from the president down through the entire list to the poorest-paid man or boy. Now it is frequently different; the salaries of the officials usually remain the same, and the cutting is done only at the pay-roll of wages to the laboring man.

AS AN INSURANCE SCHEME.

"There is another feature to this labor-union financial plan which is well worth mentioning. At present, large insurance funds are raised in many unions for sick benefits, death claims, and funeral expenses. Large accumulations are also made for use as defense funds in times

of strikes. Now, if the cause of strikes were largely done away with, these funds would buy a vast amount of stock and bonds of the works with which the men are identified.

"The interest from the stocks and bonds could be used for sick benefits, and if a workman died, the union purchasing committee could buy his stock and pay the money to his widow or his heirs. This plan means to a workman a protection in time of sickness and accident, and it means an income for him in his old age, when he can work no longer. If he be thrifty, industrious, and saving, it may be said, he will be well fixed anyway. This may be so, but how many think of that as they go along from day to day? If each workman invest, through his union, in stocks and bonds which they purchase for him, he will surely have something in his old age. As he pays in sufficient money to cover the price of each share of stock, it is transferred to his name; when he becomes old and cannot work, the capital which the stock represents is paid to him in cash. If he should wish to build a home, it might be used as his collateral on which to borrow the required money.

"From the standpoint of the officers of the union and the present business agent, walking delegate, and agitator, so called, the plan may be opposed; but if looked at aright, it means a still more secure position for him, with added duties. He then becomes the business agent of the union workman in a new and truer sense of the word.

"From the standpoint of the employer and capitalist at the works, it means better work from the entire labor force of the shop, as each man watches his neighbor to see that he does not shirk. If all the men have an interest in the stock of the concern, it means a greater output and the saving of that vast loss to the business man whenever there is a strike. It means union of strength, of labor, and capital. Their interests become one and the same, and all alike are benefited."

AN ENGLISH WORKMAN'S OPINION OF THE AMERICAN WORKMAN.

LAST month we published a summary of the report of the Mosely commission of British trade-unionist on American industrial organization. An English workman, who has spent a number of years in American shops, contributes a most interesting article to *Page's Magazine* for June, giving his view,—probably a rather biased one,—of America and the American workman. He says that he has considerably less admiration for America and more respect for England than before he came to this country.

THE EMPLOYERS.

"On first acquaintance, American shops, and America generally, have a charm for almost every one, and it depends on a man's temperament whether he falls permanently in with it or becomes hostile. I was struck favorably first with the genial and courteous manner of the employers. Next, I found they were always like it with strangers. Then I found they were practically on a level with the men, and expected to be spoken to in the same familiar way, and took it quite as a matter of course if their word was distrusted, or if they were abused or threatened." There is more liberty in American shops, but "asking favors, especially of one's superior, seems to go against the American grain. The usual way of getting anything is to boldly assert that you are going to take it, or do it, and then wait and see what effect the assertion has, and be guided accordingly.

BOASTFULNESS AND BRAG.

"One noticeable thing in American shops is the importance attached to ideas, even of the most trivial nature. Things that here would be devised in the ordinary routine of work and discarded again seem to be looked upon as we should look upon really great inventions or discoveries. Possibly the American manner has something to do with this. As a nation we are boastful, but the American eclipses us completely in brag and ignorance of other countries. This latter is rather remarkable when we consider how largely the population there is made up of immigrants from Europe."

The writer could not perceive that the British workman in America was superior to the native. A first-class American was second to none. "As a man, the Americanized Englishman didn't strike me favorably; he was only an imitation."

"NOTICE."

There is very little confidence among the men. Each man for himself seems to be the rule. The method of giving and getting notice is peculiar.

"When the employer had not enough work to keep a man going, he would never tell him so in a straightforward manner, but find some trifle to pick a quarrel about, and the man, understanding what was meant, would throw the job up himself."

The writer never saw a man leave anywhere without either an open quarrel about some trifle or else a sudden coolness on both sides after notice was given. Notice is seldom given until the last moment, and the man does practically no work after getting it.

"One characteristic of the American work-

man which is noticed immediately is the peculiar style of speech. It has rather a charm at first to the English ear, and many of the expressions seem original and appropriate. Actually, however, originality is one of the things that is wanting in American speech. These expressions are used so constantly and exclusively that they become nauseating."

STANDARD OF LIVING.

The American workman has a higher standard of living than the English.

"He dresses better, and lives in a better house. Comparatively few men care to go through the streets from work with dirty face and hands and clothes. In some cases they make an entire change night and morning in the shop, so that outside they are as well dressed as a business man. The American can be hard and relentless, and in a quarrel he is bitter. He is extremely sociable, but with less of the underlying sweetness and good humor that pervade English life. Individually, he is as good a friend as any man, but only within a limited circle. Keep him at a distance, and he will not hesitate to take any advantage which he thinks it safe to do."

Of recent years, employment in America is, if anything, more difficult to obtain than in England, especially during the slack time.

"In past times, employment could be obtained without much difficulty, and wages, though lower actually, had a higher purchasing power. The older residents remember this, and feel that, as employees, their conditions are getting steadily harder, and less worth boasting about. They feel that they are working, not so much for themselves or their country's benefit, as for a few hundred millionaires at the top. Unlike the working people of most other countries, they do not look upon the men on top as their superiors."

THE SMOKE NUISANCE IN INDUSTRIAL CENTERS.

THE hard-coal famine in this country, last winter, brought many of our cities, hitherto exempt, face to face with the problem of the smoke nuisance, with which manufacturing towns are continually confronted. The cause and consequences of this smoke, as well as the best means of combating and, if possible, preventing, the same, are briefly discussed by Dr. Kalckhoff in the *Deutsche Revue* for June. The problem is, perhaps, even more acute abroad, where less anthracite coal is consumed, the fuel in more general use being wood, peat, lignite, and especially briquettes, all of which develop more or less smoke on being first ignited. Smoke is the re-

sult of imperfect combustion, and visibly represents that part of the fuel which escapes unused into the air instead of being converted into heat,—hence, that portion which is wasted. The preventive, in the case of soft coal, is frequent and careful stoking. The writer, however, advocates the substitution of a different kind of combustible,—liquid fuel, such as mineral oil; pulverized coal, which is used much in the same way, and which yields excellent results; and especially illuminating gas. “If one could persuade all housewives to cook with gas, the atmosphere of the large cities would be materially improved. Gratifying results have in this respect been obtained in London, whose notorious fogs are due in no small measure to the fashion of heating the houses with grate fires. For industrial purposes, however, illuminating gas is generally too expensive; for these, the so-called generator gas is used instead, which is manufactured in different combinations, known as Siemens gas, water gas, or Dowson gas. This kind of gas has for some time been largely used in all establishments where a fire yielding a maximum of heat, with no smoke, is required, especially in glass works, porcelain factories, cast-steel foundries, etc.” The chief smoke-producers in the factories today are the furnaces under the steam boilers, and these boilers also, says the writer, should be heated by gas. Curiously enough, he does not once refer to electricity as a fuel, and apparently knows nothing of electric cooking stoves.

As far back as 1853, a law was issued for London in conformity with which every furnace used in industrial establishments, as well as every steamer on the Thames, should be altered so that the fire would consume its own smoke; in 1875, a corresponding law was issued for the whole of England. But both of these laws have, so far, achieved little result, as the outcry against the smoke is as loud as ever in that country. A similar law was issued for Paris in 1898, and Prussia instituted, in 1892, a “Commission for Testing and Examining Devices for the Consumption of Smoke” that devoted several years to this inquiry.

TWO RIVAL SYSTEMS OF ELECTRIC TRACTION.

IN view of the controversy which continues unabated on the subject of the overhead and third-rail systems of electric traction, it is interesting to turn to a country where both systems are being treated on their merits and put to the proof of practical experiment on an extensive scale.

Northern Italy is, perhaps, in this respect unrivaled, and the recent visit to Italy by the Brit-

ish Institution of Electrical Engineers, at the invitation of the Associazione Elettrotecnica Italiana offered a practical object-lesson on the working of the two rival systems.

While the two systems, working close together, on similar lines of railway and under somewhat similar conditions, offer a basis for immediate comparison, it would be unwise to decide upon their respective merits until these have been established by actual working results, which will in the course of a few years be ascertained.

The visit is described by Mr. Davidge Page, in the May number of *Page's Magazine*, in an article which is accompanied by many original photographs taken by the author *en route*.

OVERHEAD SYSTEM.

“On our arrival at Varenna,” says Mr. Page, “we entrained for Sondrio, on the Valtellina Railway. These sixty-seven miles of railway, the motive power of which has been transformed from steam to electricity, were formally inaugurated on September 4, 1902, and are being operated on the Ganz cascade system, of which so much was heard, two years ago, in connection with the electrification of the Metropolitan Railway. The hydraulic power house, with turbines of 6,000 horse-power, is at Morbegno, water being taken from the River Adda. Three-phase current is generated at 20,000 volts, and carried by overhead conductors to nine transformer stations, where it is transformed down to 3,000 volts and taken to the two trolley wires, the rail forming the third conductor, and thence direct to polyphase motors on the cars. The trains on the electric line are made up of the old rolling stock plus the new motor cars and the new goods (freight) locomotives.

“The cars, fitted with electric motors capable of developing 600 horse-power, have been constructed with a small cabin at either end, in which is located the apparatus by which the driver controls the starting, running, and stopping of the train. They weigh about fifty-three tons each, have a seating accommodation for fifty-six passengers, and during the trip the one attached to the special train, consisting of five or six ordinary carriages, frequently exceeded a speed of forty miles per hour. The objectionable smoke of the steam locomotive was noticeable by its absence. Grades and curves, which were numerous, were easily surmounted, and a regular speed was maintained throughout the journey. There was practically no evidence of alteration to the permanent way beyond connecting together the rails at every joint with a stout copper wire.

"Steam locomotives can be run over this section of the line, but we should say their use in any large number is not to be recommended, as there would be a great likelihood of the smoke settling on the insulators in the tunnels. The goods traffic is handled by specially constructed electric locomotives, weighing about forty-six tons of 600 normal horse-power, which are capable of drawing from 400 to 500 tons up the steep inclines of the line when the rails give sufficient adhesion. The management have been so satisfied with the performance of these locomotives for goods trains that they have decided to have some built for the conveyance of passenger trains of 250 tons at a speed of from thirty-seven to forty-four miles, up grades of 1 in a 100.

"It is said that no accident in any part of the whole installation has yet occurred to any of the public, nor to the car drivers or conductors, and the general success of the undertaking can be gauged by the fact that a further length of thirty-one miles, giving a connection with Milan, will be converted to electrical working as soon as possible. As the train sped along at an exhilarating speed of forty miles per hour, several engineers were heard to express regret that England, in the matter of electric traction on main lines, was behind the agricultural districts of northern Italy."

THE THIRD-RAIL SYSTEM.

It was on journeying from Porto Ceresio and Varese that the party had an opportunity of examining one of the largest experimental third-

rail systems ever constructed,—*i.e.*, the Milan-Varese electric railway. Mr. Page gives the following account of it:

"The Mediterranean Railway Company is equipping electrically the whole of the line from Milan to Gallarate, and thence to Varese, Porto Ceresio, Laveno, and Arona. This railway is a good example of a line with a large traffic worked electrically on the third-rail principle, which is the rival system to that of Valtellina. Its total length is eighty-one miles, and for the whole distance it is of single track, except the length from Milan to Gallarate, which is of double track. The section from Milan to Varese was opened for electric traction in November, 1901, and in June, 1902, it was extended to Porto Ceresio.

"A high rate of speed was maintained by the train, occasionally averaging, on the level, a full sixty-five miles an hour.

"The wires of all the lines are supported by porcelain insulators fixed to wooden poles 131 feet apart. On some sections, however, there is an iron pole every 32½ feet. The third rail is placed laterally to the track, and is supported at every 13 feet by artificial granite insulators on cast-iron foundation brackets, fixed to the sleepers. The rails are bound together by means of flexible copper connections having a section of 8 inches.

"The motor cars weigh 40 tons unloaded, and the trailers 25 tons, and can accommodate 76 passengers. Each motor car is driven by four 150-horse-power motors, each motor weighing 2.5 tons. The goods traffic is to be hauled by electric locomotives. Every electric car is provided with a hand brake and a compressed-air brake, for which, and for the air necessary for the whistle, an electric compressor of 4 horse-power is placed under the frame. The current is taken from the third rail by means of four shoes placed at the four ends of each electric car. The shoes are supported by an iron angle fixed to the journal boxes of the trucks."

THE BUSINESS ORGANIZATION OF A CHURCH.

FOR many years, the administration of St. George's Parish, in New York City, has been the wonder and admiration of all who were at all familiar with the activities of that vast enterprise. In the July number of *Harper's*, Mr. David Graham Phillips explains some of the working principles on which the business side of this great church organization is conducted, and, in short, describes for us the every-day running of the "plant," just as he might describe the work of a great railroad corporation.

The rector of St. George's, Dr. Rainsford, has



REAR VIEW OF ELECTRIC TRAIN, SHOWING THIRD-RAIL SYSTEM.

become widely known as the pioneer of modern church methods on New York's East Side. In the last Year Book of St. George's, Dr. Rainsford asks for an endowment of a million dollars, stating that he needs at least forty thousand dollars a year in addition to what he can collect



REV. W. S. RAINSFORD, D.D.
(Rector of St. George's Church, New York City.)

from his congregation for maintaining "our church and extensive plant." Mr. Phillips shows from the financial statements of the church that in the twenty years since Dr. Rainsford reorganized St. George's it has spent two and a quarter million dollars,—at least four-fifths of it upon the "plant." Last year, the church spent about ninety-seven thousand dollars, or the income of two and a half millions at 4 per cent.; almost all of this went into the "plant." These figures, of course, make no account of the free labor of more than two hundred workers, who constitute what may be called the minor superintendence.

HOW THE LAY WORKERS ARE MADE TO WORK.

Dr. Rainsford superintends, not only a staff of assistant clergymen, who devote themselves almost altogether to spiritual and religious work, but also a great organization which is carried on almost exclusively by laymen connected with the church. "His wardens are an executive committee, his vestrymen are a board of directors, his regular lay assistants are division superintendents, and his workers are the skilled labor.

Affairs once regarded as purely secular absorb most of their time and thought." The significance of the work at St. George's, and the real explanation of its remarkable growth in twenty years from a membership of a few hundreds to one of more than eight thousand, lies very largely in the organization of these lay members. Mr. Phillips declares: "It is more than a church; it is more than a 'plant'; it is a complete society, a complete social organization in itself, a sort of model community, founded upon an idea which lies at the basis of the activities of all the great New York churches, uptown and down, nowadays."

"The St. George's conception of universal brotherhood, the conception of all these church model communities, has been and is that every human being, regardless of surface differences, is endowed with a double capacity that is not affected by the law of inequalities,—the capacity to give, the capacity to receive. St. George's recognizes that the passion for progress is as universal as its need. It has not collected alms from the rich; it has not patronized the poor; it has organized rich and poor, educated and uneducated, fashionable and ragged, foreigner and native, for mutual help, for team-work.

"This view-point, for theory and practice, is important; it defines the chasm between these democratic church plants and the aristocratic church plants of Europe, and of America also,—for, unfortunately, America too has aristocratic church plants, imitated from Europe, where the caste curse is at least explicable, and perhaps not wholly inexcusable.

WIDE RANGE OF ACTIVITIES.

"The entire membership of St. George's is organized into sub-associations for the development of intelligence, skill, and character. Some are nominally teachers; others are nominally pupils; but all are, in fact, at school to each other day after day, evening after evening. Singing, sewing, acting, tailoring, manual training, shooting, kindergarten work, social entertaining, housekeeping, plumbing, carpentry, gymnastics, wood-working, cooking, the care of babies, dressmaking, millinery, embroidery, debating and public speaking, basket-weaving,—these and many other activities are engaging the energy and enthusiasm of the eight thousand members of the church in their capacity as members of the church plant."

Mr. Phillips emphasizes the fact that there is no side of life upon which St. George's does not seek to touch.

"Are you out of work? There is its Employment Bureau. Are you sick? There is its

Medical Department and Infirmary. Do you need a lift over an impossible place in the road? There is its Relief Department. Do you wish to improve your mind? Library, reading-room, lectures, debating society. Is it the physical that you seek? Gymnasiums, military drills, baths, addresses on health and sanitation. Do you wish to learn a trade? Manual and industrial training for both sexes. Housekeeping, cooking, sewing, the care of home and family? You need look no farther. Are you in search of amusement? Billiards, chess, cards, in the Men's Club; dancing, receptions, teas, fairs, plays, Germans, parlor games. Do you wish merely to sit quietly and reflect? St. George's Church, large and calm and thought-inspiring, always open, that the wayfarer may enter and sit and remain as long as he wishes."

SOCIAL INTERESTS.

Undoubtedly the most interesting thing about St. George's, from a secular point of view, is the social life of the church. The general conditions are summarized by Mr. Phillips as follows:

"The general superintendent permits no one to be negligent, no one to be lost sight of. About six hundred of his subordinates live in private residences,—the rich, who perhaps most of all need the benefits that come from working in and for the plant. About a thousand live in apartments and hotels,—the well-to-do, who must be kept in line for what they can do and for their own sakes. Another thousand live in boarding-houses,—the young fellows and young girls who are working, and are presently to set up housekeeping as men and women of families. The rest,—about five thousand five hundred,—live in tenements, and, like the others, they must be carefully looked after. The general superintendent not only goes himself, not only sends his immediate staff, not only sends his volunteer regular workers; he also sends these eight thousand to call on each other, to keep track of each other, to keep each other up to the mark, that they may benefit the plant and be benefited by it. He goes and sends his men and women, his boys and girls, out, always out, after those who are falling away, after new men and new women, new boys and new girls. New York is a madly busy, an incessantly changing, city,—there are on the average three thousand changes of address in St. George's membership annually. It is a tremendous task just to keep together the organization, to prevent enthusiasm from flagging, to make good inevitable losses, and to show an advance each year. And it is inspiring to note that St. George's and its like prosper and

grow where plants based upon patronizing and pauperization shrink and wither."

Mr. Phillips states the problem thus:

"The abysmal craving of New York,—West Side and East Side, hotel and apartment, boarding-house and flat,—is for friends, for sympathy, for the gayety and intimacy of the private circle, for social life, such as people can have in other cities, in the towns, in the country even."

St. George's seeks to respond to this craving. "It gives the older people a chance to smile, the younger people a chance to court, all a chance to work in the sunshine of fellowship."

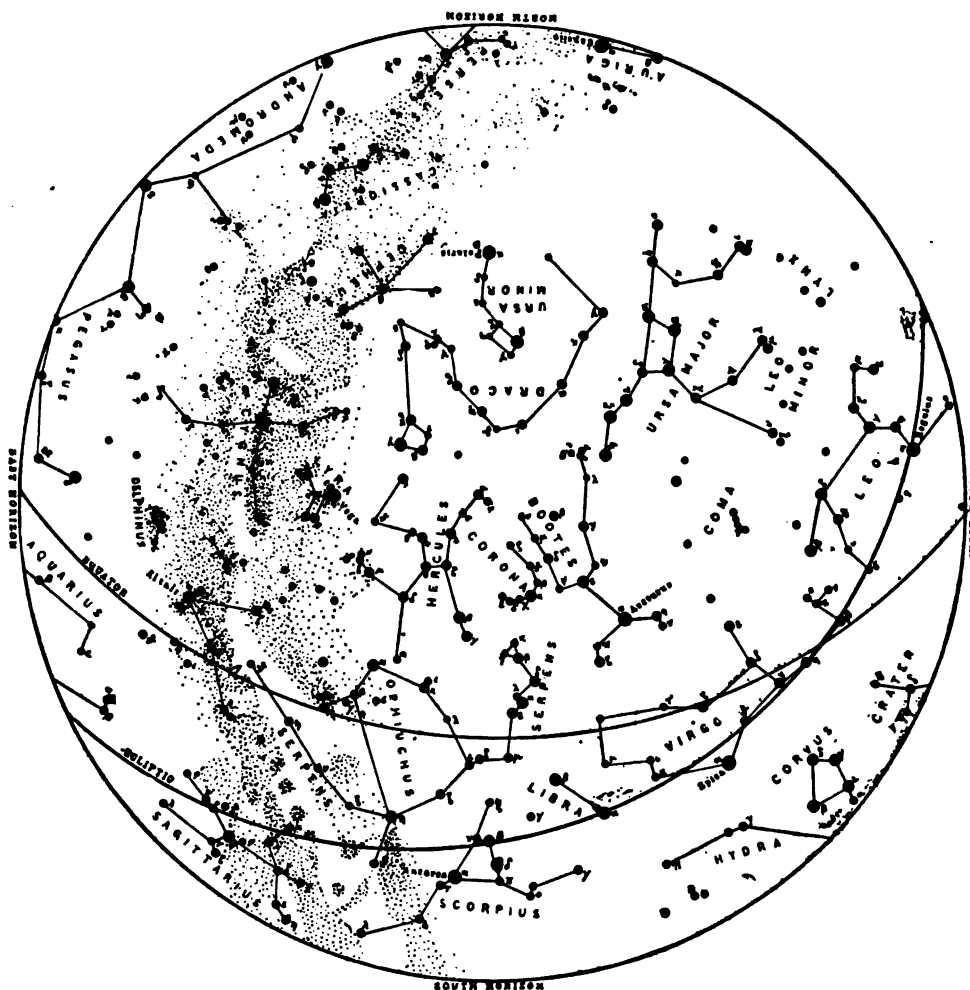
SUMMER HINTS TO STAR-GAZERS.

IT has long been the custom of that excellent little magazine *Popular Astronomy*, published at the Goodsell Observatory of Carleton College, Northfield, Minn., to publish advance notes on the positions and relative brilliancy of the planets for the ensuing month or months, accompanied by a map of the heavens. In pursuance of this plan, the current number contains an installment of these "Planet Notes" for July and August.

The compiler of this forecast, Prof. H. C. Wilson, states that Mercury will be visible as morning star during the first few days of July, and will be invisible during the remainder of the two months. The planet will be at superior conjunction on July 26. In coming out from behind the sun in August, Mercury will come into conjunction with Venus on August 28, but the two planets will be about six degrees apart in declination, and both will be too near the sun to be readily seen.

Venus will be at greatest elongation east from the sun, $45^{\circ} 30'$, on the evening of July 9. A number of fairly good views of the gibbous disk of Venus have been obtained during May with the 16-inch telescope of Goodsell Observatory, but on no occasion have any definite markings been detected on the face of the planet. During August, Venus will move rapidly in toward the line joining earth and sun. Her greatest brilliancy will be attained August 12, when the illuminated crescent will cover only one-quarter of the apparent diameter of the disk. On July 5, Venus will pass quite close to the star Regulus (α Leonis), so that there will then be a splendid opportunity to compare the brightness of the most brilliant planet with that of a first magnitude star. The magnitude of Regulus is 1.36, according to the Harvard photometric scale.

Mars will be at quadrature, 90 degrees east from the sun July 6, and so will be visible in the early evening during these months. His



THE CONSTELLATIONS AT 9 P.M., JULY 1, 1903.

course will be southeastward, through Virgo into Libra, passing Spica (α Virginis) on the morning of July 23. In recent views of the planet, the disk of Mars has seemed to have more than its usual proportion of the large orange-colored areas, very little of the gray or blue areas being in evidence. The north polar cap has been quite distinct and rather small. The south polar cap is at present turned away from us.

Jupiter is now morning star, seen toward the southeast. In August, the planet will rise before 9 o'clock, so that it may be observed well at midnight.

Saturn will be at opposition July 30, and so may be seen toward the south near midnight.

There are no very bright stars in the vicinity of the planet, so that it is very easily recognized by its brightness as well as by its golden color.

Uranus passes opposition in June, and so will be visible in the early evening during July and August. One must know just where to look for this planet with a telescope, since it is not visible to the unaided eye, but it is easily recognized by its dull greenish-hued disk, as seen in a telescope of moderate power. It is situated in a region devoid of bright stars, about midway between the bright stars of the constellations Scorpio and Sagittarius.

Neptune passes conjunction June 25, and will therefore not be visible during the summer.

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

IN the July number of the *Century* is begun the publication of a series of letters written by Sir Walter Scott to Mary Anne Watts Hughes, the wife of Dr. Hughes, Canon of St. Paul's, and grandmother of Thomas Hughes, author of the "Tom Brown" books. This correspondence seems to have begun as early as 1808, but the letters were not regularly preserved until 1831. It is surmised by Mr. William H. Hughes, a surviving grandson of Mrs. Hughes, that it was about this time that Mrs. Hughes began to suspect Sir Walter Scott's authorship of the famous novels, and perceived for the first time that her correspondence would some day be of interest to the world at large. For ten years from that date, the letters were religiously preserved. The period that is covered by this correspondence is perhaps the most interesting period of Sir Walter Scott's life, at the time when he was at the zenith of his powers and fame. In the first installment of the correspondence, which is given in this number of the *Century*, there are several references to points of literary interest, and especially several sly allusions to passages in "Kenilworth" and other tales, the authorship of which had not at that time been revealed.

KHAMMURABI, THE BABYLONIAN LAWGIVER.

Dr. William Hayes Ward contributes an interesting study of Khammurabi, the founder of Babylon, whose code of laws is reviewed in the June number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*. Khammurabi reigned in Babylon about 2250 B.C., and nothing is known of Babylon before his time. Dr. Ward declares that "the stone monument found by De Morgan in Susa is the most important document for the history of civilization that has been discovered in many years. It carries back the history of law for a thousand years or more. It tells us how strong was the sense of justice at a period which we have been too ready to regard as wholly barbaric." Dr. Ward also highly commends the speed with which this great inscription has been given to the world. Within less than a year after it was found, the text and translation were published in a magnificent volume by Père Scheil, one of the best Assyrian scholars living.

In the fourth paper on "Modern Musical Celebrities," contributed to this number of the *Century* by Hermann Klein, the writer tells how he made the De Reszkes familiar with the story of "Die Meistersinger." This was in 1888, and the De Reszkes proceeded at once, after a visit to Baireuth, to study "Die Meistersinger" for the following season. Since then, Édouard de Reszke, in the character of *Hans Sachs*, has won the admiration of opera-lovers on two continents.

ANOTHER STUDY OF WESLEY.

The first portion of an elaborate study of John Wesley, by Prof. C. T. Winchester, of Wesleyan University, is published in this number of the *Century*. Wesley's Georgia mission is pronounced a failure in some respects, but Professor Winchester notes the influence on Wesley of a number of Moravians who had accepted Oglethorpe's invitation to settle in his new colony. In these Moravians, Wesley seemed to see a new type of religion, and on his voyage home he writes in his journal the bitter words quoted in the June number of the

REVIEW OF REVIEWS by Dr. Buckley: "I, who went to America to convert others, was never converted myself." Wesley's personal experiences following his return from the Georgia mission determined all his subsequent life and work.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

IN the July number of *Harper's*, Prof. N. S. Shaler, of Harvard, writing on the subject of "Plant and Animal Intelligence," declares his belief that not only is the animal series, from the lowest to the highest forms, in some measure influenced by intelligence, but that the old views as to the strong demarcation between plants and animals must be revised, that there is reason to conclude that plants are derived from the same primitive stock as animals, and that hence we are in no condition to say that intelligence cannot exist but among men. "In fact, all that we can discern supports the view that throughout the organic realm the intelligence that finds its fullest expression in man is everywhere at work."

Dr. A. F. Chamberlain, writing on "The Survival of Human Personality," declares that while we may never be able to demonstrate to a certainty the survival of human personality after death, science has absolutely no quarrel with religion in the matter, and will not consent to be set off against faith as altogether antipodal. "The true scientist is preëminently a man of faith and a poet besides, and in his own personality he discovers the proof of its immortal destiny."

"Navigation Above the Clouds" is the title of an interesting article by Ernest C. Rost about the highest lake in the world on which there is navigation,—namely, Lake Titicaca, 12,540 feet above sea level, or almost two and one-half miles in a perpendicular line. This lake is reached by a railroad from Mollendo, a coast town of Peru, 327 miles in length, and constructed thirty years ago under the American railroad man, Henry Meiggs.

OLD-TIME WHALING VOYAGES.

"The Log of the Bark *Emily*" is edited by Mr. John R. Spears, and gives a good idea of the conditions in the American whaling trade in the years 1857-60. This three and one-half years' cruise of the *Emily* from New Bedford produced not far from \$43,000 in oil, not counting a portion that was sold on the coast of South America. Mr. Spears calculates that the men should have received \$215 each for the cruise. From this they had to pay for the clothes they bought from the captain, or what was called the "slop bill." This amounted to about \$25 a year. The captain of the ship, with his "lay" of 6 per cent., should have had \$2,580, or \$64 a month for the three years and six months. The owner's share of the oil was two-thirds,—or, say, \$28,000,—but he paid all the expenses of the outfit. Mr. Spears thinks it a fair surmise to say that he cleared \$6,000 a year for the use of the ship, although the vessel was worth, perhaps, no more than half of a year's income. The whaler-owner had to take the risk of the ship making or losing voyage.

In another department, we have quoted at some length from the article by Dr. David Graham Phillips on "The Business Organization of a Church."

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

GEN. JOHN B. GORDON'S vivid account of the battle of Gettysburg in the July number of *Scribner's* marks the fortieth anniversary of that great contest. Perhaps the most interesting feature of General Gordon's paper is his personal explanation of how the Confederates failed to seize Cemetery Ridge on the evening of the first day's battle, when the Federal troops were driven from the field. It was General Gordon himself who begged from the Confederate commanders the opportunity to occupy the position, but was prevented by superior orders. Pickett's charge on the third day has been many times described, but never before has so stirring and eloquent an account been given from the Confederate side. It is General Gordon's belief that had Lee's orders been promptly and cordially executed, the Union army would have been defeated.

The Canadian artist, Arthur Heming, describes and illustrates the life of "The Canadian Rivermen." His pictures show these adventurers shooting rapids and riding slides.

THE MOST ANCIENT OF LIVING TREES.

"The Cedars of Lebanon," famous for thousands of years, and now surviving in a remnant of about four hundred trees, are described by Mr. Lewis Gaston Leary. These trees, Mr. Leary says, are not the largest of the members of the tree family, though some of the trunks measure over forty feet around. Their beauty lies in the wide-spreading limbs, which often cover a circle two or three hundred feet in circumference. The vitality of the cedar is remarkable. A dead tree is never seen, except where lightning or the axe has been at work. The cedars are also remarkable for their slow growth. A little sprout, hardly waist-high, may be ten, fifteen, or twenty years old. Mr. Leary says that by the aid of the microscope he has counted more than seven hundred rings on a bough only thirty inches in diameter. Some experts have come to the conclusion that some of these trees must be more than a thousand years old. One or two of the group may have been young trees when Hiram began cutting for the temple at Jerusalem.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT UNDER OUR WAR DEPARTMENT.

In an article on "The War Department Administration of Civil Government," Mr. Charles E. Magoon, of the Bureau of Insular Affairs, tells how the government planned and formulated by Secretary Root gave to the Philippine Islands the guarantees of liberty enjoyed by the people of the United States. Under that government, municipal and provincial officials were elected by popular vote, a native constabulary was organized, the people resumed their former customary vocations under the protection of law, social order was restored, a body of laws enacted, public revenues collected and expended, tariff measures adopted, millions of dollars expended in all needed public improvements, a system of free public schools established, and a comprehensive civil-service law enacted and enforced.

MCCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

UNDER the title "Philadelphia: Corrupt and Contented," Mr. Lincoln Steffens makes, in the July *McClure's*, a scathing exposure of boss rule in the Quaker City for the past generation, concluding, however, with a commendation of the present mayor, the Hon. John

Weaver, who is described as the hope of Philadelphia; but with this parting shot at the Philadelphia voter, who has complacently submitted to all manner of fraud and injustice in the past: "It looks as if the Philadelphians were right about Mr. Weaver, but what if they are? Think of a city putting its whole faith in one man, in the hope that John Weaver, an Englishman by birth, will give them good government! And why should he do that? Why should he serve the people and not the ring? The ring can make or break him; the people of Philadelphia can neither reward nor punish him. For even if he restores to them their ballots and proves himself a good mayor, he cannot succeed himself; the good charter forbids."

In this number, the first series of nine articles which make up Part I. of Miss Tarbell's "History of the Standard Oil Company" is concluded. In this series, a period of ten years, 1872 to 1882, has been covered, during which time the Standard Oil Trust, with a capital of \$70,000,000, was developed from the Standard Oil Company, with a capital of \$1,000,000. The second part of this history will begin in the coming fall, and will carry the narrative down to the present time. The editor promises that in dramatic interest, in its direct bearing on vital public questions of the day, this second series will equal, if it does not excel, the one now closed. It will treat of such topics as criminal underselling, the right of unlimited competition, and the price of oil.

SNAKE FALLACIES.

"The Story of the Snake," by A. W. Rolker, is really a collection of interesting stories of many species of the snake family. Some of the old misconceptions regarding the lives of snakes are knocked in the head by Mr. Rolker's article. He tells us, for example, that the setting of the sun has nothing to do with the death of a snake. When a snake is decapitated, it is dead at once. The tail will remain sensitive and will wriggle for several hours after death, but the movement is purely spasmodic, and ceases in time without reference to the position of the sun. Another popular fallacy that this article explodes is that a rattlesnake will commit suicide, when hopelessly cornered, by sinking its own fangs into its sides. No poisonous snake is susceptible to the poison of its own kind. Again, it has often been said that a black snake will open its mouth to swallow its young in time of danger. It is a fact that the black snake does swallow its young when threatened, but we are told that there is no record that the little ones ever see daylight again. In fact, the mother snake has been convicted of the worst form of cannibalism.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

IN the "Captains of Industry" series, Mr. James Stillman, the president of the National City Bank of New York City,—the greatest bank in America,—is the subject of a sketch contributed to the July *Cosmopolitan* by Mr. Edwin Lefèvre. Mr. Stillman was born in Texas, the son of a Connecticut-born cotton merchant. He is now fifty-two years old, and for the past twelve years has been president of the National City Bank, which he has built up to its present prosperous condition. He is described as a man of imagination, possessing a cold, analytical mind, joined to a rapidity of intuition that is almost feminine. Mr. Stillman has vast and varied interests in railroads and realty, in mines and in timber.

COÖPERATIVE HOUSEKEEPING.

An experiment in coöperative housekeeping, in which two families participated, is described by Martha Martin. These two families were neighbors in a New York City apartment. Each family was keeping a maid for cooking and general housework, and, in addition, had a woman to come in once a week to do the laundry work. It was agreed to combine the machinery or appliances of the kitchen and to reduce the working force. This was done by dispensing with the laundresses. One kitchen was used solely for cooking purposes, while the other was made the common laundry. One of the maids became cook for the combined household, and the other did the laundry work for the two families and waited on the table, besides helping the cook wash the dinner dishes in the evening. It was found that whereas each family had formerly spent about eight dollars a month for light and fuel, for the combined households the bill was about ten dollars, a saving of about six dollars a month. For service, each family had spent sixteen dollars a month for general housemaid and eight dollars for laundress. By dispensing with the laundresses, each saved eight dollars, making a total saving of sixteen dollars a month on this item. When alone, each family had spent about sixteen dollars a month for meat. For the larger family, only eighteen dollars was required. Each family had been spending about thirty-five dollars a month for groceries, and on this item there was a saving of about thirty dollars, for bills under the new arrangement were only about forty dollars per month. It should be said, however, that each of these families consisted of only two persons.

KING MENELEK OF ABYSSINIA.

In a character sketch of King Menelek of Abyssinia, Mr. W. T. Stead says that Menelek's personal authority is the only bond that unites the Abyssinian Kingdom, and he asserts it constantly, in small matters and in great. If a chief displeases him, he calls him to the palace and administers with his own hand a severe beating. He roams at all hours of the night through the streets of his capital, and with the aid of a powerful field glass keeps watch upon his subjects and his courtiers.

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is a capital essay by Edmund Gosse on "The Ethics of Biography;" an illustrated article by Waldon Fawcett on "Suburban Life in America;" a description of the World's Fair at St. Louis in 1904 by Frederic C. Howe, and an illustrated paper by Madge Kendal on "The Leisured Public and the Stage." Lavinia Hart contributes an essay on "What Love Is," and in a series of "Old Love Stories Retold," Mr. Richard Le Gallienne tells the story of Shelley and Mary Godwin. This month's installment of "Mankind in the Making," by Herbert George Wells, is concerned with the higher education.

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

IN the opening article of the July *Munsey's*, Mr. Harvey Sutherland describes some of "The Gardens of the Rich," showing how American millionaires have created great country-places, decorated in the landscape gardener's finest art. Preëminent among these country-places, of course, is Mr. George W. Vanderbilt's "Biltmore," near Asheville, N. C. The parks and villas of a different type are also described,—for example, the Ital-

ian garden of the Hollis Hunnewell estate, in Wellesley, Mass. This writer voices a criticism that is frequently made of these magnificent estates,—that they are in places too remote and inaccessible for the general public to inspect them, and are too often screened off from the public, whereas in England, as a rule, the people are invited to look in upon and enter these private parks.

A few of "The Men About the President,"—that is, those officeholders and private citizens whom President Roosevelt most frequently calls into consultation,—are sketched in a brief article by Mr. Day Allen Willey. Besides Messrs. Hay, Knox, and Payne, of the Cabinet, Senator Lodge, "Uncle Joe" Cannon, and Gen. Leonard Wood, there are numbered among President Roosevelt's advisers such men as President Butler, of Columbia University, and Mr. George W. Perkins, of the firm of J. P. Morgan & Co.

"FOREST RESERVES" WITHOUT TREES.

"Our National Forest Reserves" form the subject of a timely article by Mr. S. Russell Wright. It will surprise many Eastern readers to learn that most of the so-called forest reserves in the far West are not only mountainous and hilly, but actually treeless. One may ride for miles through these reserves, seeing only dwarf cedars, scrub oak, and stunted juniper, where nature has been kind enough to furnish even these poor specimens of forest growth. Within the limits of these reserves there are many dry river-beds, and up and down the cañons can be found the bleached skeletons of cattle who have died for want of water. That much can be done, however, merely through saving the natural vegetation of these arid regions, has been proved in the case of the San Francisco Reservation, in Arizona, which has changed the whole character of the valley about Phoenix. Not many years ago, this was a barren desert; now it is actually fertile, and supports a prosperous community.

A RISING AMERICAN SCULPTOR.

Mr. Charles Hall Garrett contributes a sketch of Henry Merwin Shrady, the self-taught young sculptor, who has won the competition for the quarter-million-dollar Grant monument to be erected in Washington. Three years ago, Mr. Shrady was an employee of a match company. On his way home from work, afternoons, he used to stop before a fancier's window and make sketches in a note-book of the dogs and cats he saw there. He painted a portrait of a fox terrier that he owned, and his wife, without his knowledge, offered it to an exhibition of the National Academy of Design. Mr. Shrady, when he went to the exhibition, was surprised to see it there, and to learn that it had been sold for fifty dollars. Mr. Shrady's next undertaking was to model the group known as "Artillery Going Into Action." A photograph of this work caught the eye of a representative of a New York silver house dealing in Russian bronzes, who called on Mr. Shrady and suggested that he should devote himself to modeling miniature statues. Two small Russian bronzes, one a moose and the other a buffalo, attracted the attention of Karl Bitter, who induced Mr. Shrady to enlarge them for the Pan-American Exhibition in Buffalo. All this work was successful, and won immediate recognition. Mr. Shrady is particularly strong in his knowledge of animals, for he made a special study of biology, and spent much time at the Zoölogical Gardens at Bronx Park. His studies and sketches are principally of moose and buffaloes.

FRANK LESLIE'S MONTHLY.

IN the July number of *Frank Leslie's*, Mr. William Thorp tells the story of the expedition of M. Eugène André through the heart of Venezuela. As a voyage of scientific discovery, this expedition, which cost the lives of six men, was practically fruitless, excepting that M. André got some geographical knowledge. André had hoped to reach the summit of Mount Améha, but on the second day of the ascent the climbers were brought face to face with a sheer wall of granite that was absolutely insurmountable. Early in the expedition, André had made valuable collections of unknown and very rare specimens, but these were lost in the river rapids, and with them the clothing, cooking utensils, tools, provisions, and everything of use to the expedition. It was only after a series of almost unendurable hardships that the party finally got back to civilization.

A FRONTIER COURT.

"A Border Judge and His Court" is the title of an article in which Mr. John M. Oskison tells some of the experiences of Judge Isaac C. Parker, United States District Judge for the Western District of Arkansas from 1875 to 1896. During this time, Judge Parker sentenced to death 172 criminals, 88 of whom were hanged. His district covered 74,000 square miles of the most lawless territory of the United States. His court had jurisdiction over all the whites in the Indian Territory, and Judge Parker deliberately set himself the task of checking crime in that lawless region. During his term of office, 65 of his deputies were killed in fights with lawbreakers. In the first term of court in which Judge Parker presided, 18 murder cases came before him, and 15 convictions were secured.

At the next term, six men of the eleven arraigned were convicted of murder. Of the 91 criminal cases tried at that term, there were 48 convictions for larceny, principally horse-stealing; six for murder, six for assault, six for whiskey-selling in violation of the law, and eleven for various other offenses, including one conviction for manslaughter. All of these cases came from the Indian Territory, with a total population, at that date, of 60,000, including at least 40,000 Indians over whom the court had no jurisdiction except where one of the parties concerned was white. The work of those two terms of court is a fair sample of the stern duties that Judge Parker was called upon to perform during his twenty-one years of service.

THE WORLD'S WORK.

IN a brief article on summer financial conditions, contributed to the *World's Work* for July, Mr. A. L. Noyes touches on the very interesting question, Is our movement of prosperity at an end? Mr. Noyes recalls the fact that on most previous occasions when there has been a financial reaction in this country, it has found the country's trade and industry in an inflated and more or less disorganized condition. But it is noticeable that at the present time there has been no sudden shrinkage in consuming power and demand such as has almost always attended such reactions in the past. On the contrary, the report from the iron and mining trades is that the demand is continuing strong, and that production is able to do little more than keep pace with it. It is not unreasonable to look for some readjustment of prices, especially in the case of building

materials, but there is at present little sign of change in that direction.

Mr. Norman Duncan contributes a spirited account of "The Codfishers of Newfoundland," who, out of the total male population of one hundred thousand, number about fifty-five thousand men and boys. But it is not strange that so large a proportion of the population make their living on the sea, as there is nothing else for them to do. On some stretches of the coast, Mr. Duncan informs us, potatoes are grown in imported English soil. Most gardens and some graveyards are made of earth scraped from the hollows of the hills. In this country, four hundred and nineteen bushels of wheat are grown in a single year, and the production of beef cattle is insignificant as compared with the production of babies; so that the people who are born and grow up on this bit of rock-bound coast have fished during all the four hundred years since the island was first settled.

PRECAUTIONS AGAINST TYPHOID FEVER.

Dr. James C. Bayles shows some of the ways by which individual cases of typhoid fever occur, and suggests methods of prevention. He arrives at the rather disheartening conclusion that to secure even measurable immunity from typhoid infection, one must exercise an impossible vigilance. He shows, on the other hand, that there are practicable and effective precautions which can be taken by any community, and that when dealt with in this way typhoid is found to be one of the most readily controllable and preventible of diseases. He urges cities and towns in which there is a steadily increasing prevalence of typhoid fever not to postpone measures of safety until after the calamity of epidemic has overtaken them. Questions of water-supply, milk, sea foods, flies, and digital infection are all discussed, and their relations to the general problem pointed out.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. A. B. Lueder, the young American engineer who superintended the building of the bridges in Uganda, as also described in this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, relates his experiences in an illustrated article; Mr. W. M. Ivins, Jr., writes on "Russia and the Nations;" "The Day's Work of a Librarian" is described by Adele Marie Shaw, and Dr. Richard Gottheil gives "A Glimpse Into the Jewish World."

Mr. George Iles sets forth the advantages of the slow-burning construction for factory buildings. Contrary to the popular belief, he states that this form of construction, so far from being of undue cost, is usually less expensive in execution than inferior types. The case of Paterson, N. J., is cited, where the great fire of last year raged until it reached the factory belt, where the flames were successfully withstood because every factory had an independent water-supply.

In another department, we have quoted from the article on "A Farmers' Trust," by Mr. H. A. Wood.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

THE July number of the *Atlantic* is largely made up of contributions from Pacific coast writers, although the subjects of these contributions are by no means merely local. The number opens with a paper on "The Literary Development of the Pacific Coast," by Mr. Herbert Bashford, followed by a characteristic criticism of Professor Sargent's "Silva of North

America," by John Muir, written with special reference to the trees of the Pacific coast; "Life at a Mountain Observatory" is described by Ethel Fountain Hussey; "The Voice of the Scholar" is the subject of a contribution by President David Starr Jordan; President Benjamin Ide Wheeler outlines the possibility of "A National Type of Culture," as based on the American system of public education; Mr. Bradford Torrey contributes an interesting sketch of "A Bunch of Texas and Arizona Birds."

THE CLEVELAND SCHOOL SYSTEM.

"Principles of Municipal School Administration" are discussed and defined by Prof. William H. Burnham. Perhaps the most interesting of the school systems described by Professor Burnham is that of the city of Cleveland, which has a history of ten years and has been fairly tested. Cleveland's system is called the federal system of school administration, because it has some features similar to those of the federal government. The school department is totally distinct from the municipal government. It is independent, autonomous, and responsible only to the people. It levies its own taxes, subject to the approval of the tax commissioners, and has sole power in the expenditure of all money for school purposes, making its own contracts. A school council of seven members is elected by the city at large. Each member serves two years and receives a salary of two hundred and sixty dollars. The special functions of this council are legislative. It passes resolutions in regard to levying taxes, the expenditure of school money, the establishment of schools, and the approval of contracts. It frames rules and regulations governing the schools. It provides for the appointment of teachers, fixes their salaries, prescribes their duties, and adopts the text-books. A school director is elected by the city at large for a term of two years, and receives a salary of five thousand dollars. His special function is executive; he executes the laws framed by the school council. His functions, however, are confined to business matters, except that he has the power to veto the resolutions of the council. While this director has nothing to do with educational matters, it is a part of his duty to appoint a superintendent in case of vacancy, and he has the power, for sufficient cause, to remove the superintendent. This appointment of the superintendent is subject to approval and confirmation by the council. The superintendent is appointed for an indefinite term, and his salary is five thousand dollars. He alone is responsible for all educational matters. He has full power in the appointment and dismissal of all teachers.

Captain Hanna's article on "The First Year of Cuban Self-Government" has been reviewed in another department.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

LORD COLERIDGE'S article on "England's Colonial Secretary," in the *North American Review* for June, was written before Mr. Chamberlain's tariff proposals precipitated the present remarkable crisis in British politics. The tone of Lord Coleridge's paper is undisguisedly hostile to Mr. Chamberlain, though it opens with an affirmation of the writer's honest desire to do justice to a political opponent, a task which, Lord Coleridge says, "is not made more easy by the fact that those who now differ from Mr. Chamberlain once followed and believed in him, and are the subjects of those

unrestrained attacks which have always characterized his controversial methods." There is nothing particularly new in the account that is given of Mr. Chamberlain's early political career, but in view of the development of the last few weeks, the closing paragraph of Lord Coleridge's estimate sounds almost prophetic:

"His industry, his tenacity, his power of lucid exposition, his ready and merciless if unconvincing power of debate, will always make him the most discussed man upon the political stage. The British like the fighting animal. But admiration of his powers and not affection for the man is the source of his popularity; and he has never cast the deep spell which draws men to those who can make great sacrifices to high ideals, and to whom success seems to be as nothing compared with that faithfulness without which human effort loses half its charm."

THE NORTHERN SECURITIES DECISION.

Mr. Carman F. Randolph reviews the recent "merger" decision of the federal Circuit Court for the District of Minnesota, concluding that if the Supreme Court shall find that the Northern Securities Company stands in the same relation to the United States as a consolidating corporation created by a State actually controlling the railroads in question "it must, with a deeper and sounder appreciation of State rights and federal limitations, reject the lower court's conclusions, and declare that Congress is powerless to disrupt consolidations, actual or virtual, consummated under State law."

LATIN-AMERICAN MISGOVERNMENT.

Replying to a recent article in the *North American Review* by "An American Business Man," Mr. Marrión Wilcox presents a considerable amount of testimony as to the general tranquillity and progressiveness of the Latin-American republics. Mr. Wilcox quotes the statements of the "American Business Man" himself in the article in question, to show that practically nine-tenths of the people of Latin America are worthy of respect, since he considers the aristocracy and the peasantry both equally free from the worst faults of the corresponding classes in Europe. All the trouble in those countries seems to have been made by a relatively small number of adventurers in control of the political machinery. The Spaniards of pure blood are—according to "An American Business Man"—"cultured, highly civilized, religious, hospitable, many of them of literary attainments and scholarly pursuits. They do not take part in politics nor desire positions under the government." As to the peons, laborers, small traders, cattlemen, fishermen, woodsmen, mechanics,—or perhaps more than 80 per cent. of the total population,—they are, as a rule, "exceedingly simple-minded, honest, kind-hearted peasants, fairly industrious, and much more intelligent than the peonage of most other countries. They dread war, take to the woods at the slightest intimation of trouble, have nothing to do with politics, and pray to be left alone to live in peace. In habits, these people are simple; in manners, polite and hospitable, and but little drunkenness and crime are found among them. They are the most docile and easily managed people in the world."

THE "RACE-SUICIDE" QUESTION AGAIN.

A writer who signs himself "Paterfamilias" contributes a paper entitled "'Race Suicide' and Common Sense." His argument is summed up in the following

sentences: "I do not think that a large population in and of itself is a great blessing. In all things in the world, I am concerned more with quality than quantity. It is certain that if the President were to have his way, and we were to have as many children as he seems to think desirable, and they could be brought up to maturity, the time would soon come when they would scarcely have standing-room. The country could not support them."

THE ALASKA BOUNDARY QUESTION.

The Hon. Richard Wayne Parker, of New Jersey, in concluding a review of the history of the Alaska boundary dispute, declares that it is absolutely plain, from the terms of the treaty of 1825 between Russia and England, that the whole shore, including the gulfs, bays, and inland seas, was to belong to Russia, down to latitude 54° 40', and that south of that line they were to belong to England; that the word "ocean" included all tidal estuaries; that the interior boundary line was to be a line of mountains on the continent, inside of the "sinuosities of the shore," unless the range of mountains were more than ten leagues therefrom, when a line at that distance from these sinuosities should be the boundary. The well-defined point where the line was to begin was fixed by the survey at that exact distance from the head of the next nearest bay or inlet, and far within any Canadian line fixed by the projections of the continent. Moreover, this construction of the treaty is so absolutely confirmed by admissions of ownership that there can be no dispute as to the meaning of the instrument.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Prof. W. North Rice writes on "The Wesley Bicentennial;" Mr. Frederic Harrison on "Tennyson: A New Estimate;" the Hon. T. W. Russell, M.P., "Notes on the Irish Land Bill;" Mr. Sydney Brooks on "Politics in England," and the Hon. Joseph H. Choate on "The Supreme Court of the United States."

THE ARENA.

WRITING in the June *Arena* on "The Abuses of Injunction," Judge Samuel Seabury, of New York City, avers that the injunctions issued during the last few years prohibiting the payment of benefit moneys by labor unions pending a strike, and prohibiting workmen from giving food and assistance to their associates during a strike, with others of the same character, violate fundamental rights. "Assuming, for the sake of argument, that in every instance the workmen were engaged in acts in violation of the criminal law, these injunctions were unnecessary and unjustifiable. If the acts were not criminal, then the theory upon which the injunctions were issued is incorrect, and they were admittedly without justification. If the acts were criminal, the criminal law provides the punishment to be imposed and the procedure to be followed. The fact is that the only reason for issuing injunctions in those cases where the prohibited acts are in violation of the criminal law is to dispense with a trial by jury."

Judge Seabury's paper precedes an article by Mr. Edward M. Winston in which an attempt is made to show that various subtle influences are brought to bear upon federal judges the effect of which must be an interference with the ends of justice. Mr. Winston does not discuss the grosser forms of bribery, but confines his comments to the more subtle and pervasive forms,

such as the conferring of passes by railroad corporations. He argues that legislation is indeed in order to define this practice so clearly that no judge will take a pass who would not take a direct bribe. As to the need of such a change, he says: "When it is rumored that a given judge has spent his vacation in a private car belonging to the manager of a railroad which has much business in his court, public respect for him and his decisions is seriously damaged, whether the statement is true or false."

MAYOR JOHNSON'S REFLECTION.

Prof. Edward W. Bemis gives an interesting account of the recent election at Cleveland, which resulted in giving Mayor Tom Johnson a second term of office, and in which the street-railway question played an important part. In the course of the campaign, Mayor Johnson was charged with extravagance and with increasing the taxes, and it was admitted that the operating expenses of the city *per capita* had been increased under his administration; but it was claimed that when he became mayor those expenses were only one-third of those of Boston, and two-thirds of those of Cincinnati and many other prominent cities. There was a demand for larger expenditures for street paving and lighting, sewerage, parks, and so forth. It was shown that the water department of the city had been taken entirely out of politics, and that the efficiency of the entire administration had been greatly increased. The Democratic party of the county, which two years ago held only one elective office, has now wrested fifty-six offices from the Republicans, and Professor Bemis thinks that it is likely to secure the few remaining ones next fall. Meanwhile, the campaign for equality in taxation and for the public ownership and operation of public utilities on the merit system, under the able leadership of Mr. Johnson, is only just begun.

THE LABORER AND HIS JOB.

Mr. Walter S. Logan discusses "The Right of the Laborer to His Job" under two heads, the moral right and the legal right. As a remedy for the evils of the present situation, Mr. Logan suggests the establishment of labor courts with jurisdiction to determine differences between employers and employees. This would take from employers the right to the power arbitrarily and without cause or reason to discharge their workmen and take away their jobs. Furthermore, Mr. Logan would have the state find more jobs for its citizens, through the extension of the field of its activities in the line of general ownership and operation of public utilities. If necessary, he would even have the state go into the industrial field,—build factories and workshops and operate mines and ranches. "It must keep on extending the sphere of its activities until every man has work who wants it."

REFERENDUM AND INITIATIVE.

In an article on "The Progress of the Campaign for Majority Rule," Mr. George Shibley shows that in the States of the West and the middle West the sentiment for an improvement in the representative system by adding a people's veto and the direct initiative is rapidly becoming unanimous. Several Congressmen are pledged to rules of procedure for the optional referendum, and direct initiative, and Mr. Shibley thinks that the time is ripe for a widespread campaign as to Congressmen and Senators. In the States of Massachusetts, Michigan, and New York, legislative action is pending at the present time.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The Rev. Clyde Elbert Ordway attempts an answer to the question "Will the Churches Survive?" Mr. J. M. Bicknell discusses "The Negro Problem;" Mr. B. O. Flower describes the Browning Settlement in London; Mr. E. P. Powell writes on "The Insanity of the City," and Mr. Nathaniel C. Fowler, Jr., makes some interesting comments on the business of advertising.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

"GUNTON'S MAGAZINE" for June opens with some sensible editorial remarks on the subject of "The Misuse of Organization." Writing with reference to the recent complicated labor situation in the building trades of New York City, the editor says that both the unions and the employers' associations seem to have reached a belligerent stage of development. Both seem to be inspired by the spirit of antagonism rather than by the spirit of coöperative helpfulness. As the true solution of this difficulty, the editor commends the honorable recognition of organization by both parties. This, he says, will have to come after a fight; why can it not just as well come before the fight? All that is necessary is that the unions abandon their policy of persecution and despotism, live up to honestly made contracts, practise as well as preach personal freedom, make union membership a voluntary act, and hold together their organization by the benefits the union yields to its members, and not by the persecution of non-union laborers. All the presumptions of modern society, says this writer, are in favor of labor having the utmost freedom of action and organization, if it will not violate the spirit of freedom and the rights of others in the exercise of its power.

EDUCATION IN PORTO RICO.

Writing on "Our Problem in Porto Rico," Mr. Charles De Garmo states that two things are necessary for the redemption of Porto Rico: (1) The creation of an intelligent middle class that can comprehend the meaning and value of self-government; and (2) the differentiation of the industries, whereby this intelligent class may rise above the peon state in which they are to-day enchained. The first end can only be accomplished by education under American direction and with American financial support; the second may be brought about through free markets and the investment of American capital in productive enterprises. At the present time, the best that can be done by way of providing teachers and schools for the island is to gather sixty thousand of the two hundred and fifty thousand children in schools. Because of the lack of accommodations, thousands of children are deprived of schooling. Yet no other country applies to schools so large a part of its total income by taxation, more than one-quarter being devoted to this purpose. The study of English is eagerly pursued by the children, and is desired by the whole population. Industrial education is also rapidly springing up, and as fast as he can command well-trained teachers, Commissioner Lindsay is putting two teachers in each rural school, one to teach in the house and the other out-of-doors, the children being divided into two classes, one-half working in the house and one-half in the garden; each child spends half his time working with books, and the other half with tools. The University of Porto

Rico has been authorized by the Legislature, and instruction will be begun in the teachers' college and the departments of agriculture and mechanical arts. It is hoped that the United States Congress will provide the latter. Here, too, is another opportunity for American philanthropists to serve their country and the cause of civilization.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY AND AFTER.

THE June number of the *Nineteenth Century* contains several significant articles. Separate notice is required for papers by Alfred Stead on Russia's economic conquest of Manchuria, and the trio on imperial reciprocity.

AN INVASION FROM BORDERLAND.

The region transcendent is much in evidence this month. Lord Kelvin's famous speech on science and theism is reproduced in the first person, and by its side Mr. Knowles puts Tennyson's confession: "There is a something that watches over us; and our individuality endures; that's my faith, and that's all my faith." Lady Currie gives first-hand evidence of the singular fulfillment and non-fulfillment of dreams, suggesting a theory of monitions occasionally mixed or misheeded as the explanation of abortive warnings. Hermann Lea reproduces, in dialect, stories of Wessex witches, witchery, and witchcraft.

FREE LIBRARIES AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Mr. Churton Collins declares that the rapid multiplication of free libraries in Great Britain is, from the social point of view, the most important single event of our times. Many of them, however, which only cater for popular fiction and comic rags, are, he thinks, unmixed evils, but he urges that the libraries should be brought in touch with the various forms of secondary education known as university extension, Dr. Paton's Reading Circle, and Gilchrist lectures. He suggests that the new University of London, which he thinks is destined to revolutionize civic education, should undertake the occasional inspection of free libraries, help to choose the librarians, and generally increase the helpfulness of the libraries.

AN UNPOPULAR INDUSTRY.

So Miss Catherine Webb describes domestic service. She gives the result of an inquiry instituted by the Women's Industrial Council. One hundred and twenty-seven persons sent in answers to their inquiries, from which is obtained a very definite confirmation of the fact that domestic service is unpopular. The chief cause of its unpopularity may be found in the "stigma of inferiority, lack of liberty, the intolerable burden of personal subservience, and the opening up of pursuits which offer the reverse of these things."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. P. T. McGrath explains that Canada objects to the suggested treaty between the United States and Newfoundland because Canada wishes to absorb Newfoundland, and with the valuable fisheries thus acquired, to negotiate better terms for herself with the United States.

Mr. E. B. Havell, of the Calcutta School of Art, insists that the Taj at Agra is the product of genuine native art, and not the work of European architects. He urges the study of native art on the ground that India is ruled by ideas.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for June opens with "A Vindication of Froude" in regard to the Carlyle controversy by Mr. Ronald McNeill, who carries the war into the enemy's country with a vengeance, and it must be admitted makes out a very good defense of Froude against Sir James Crichton Browne. Mr. McNeill announces that Froude's family intend to publish the full account of his relations with Carlyle and his conduct as Carlyle's literary executor, which Froude drew up before his death:

"The unpublished Froude manuscript contains disclosures of a startling nature. It reveals plainly and bluntly what a reader of sympathy and insight may have easily read between the lines,—and many did read between the lines,—of Froude's published narrative as to the underlying causes of Carlyle's conjugal unhappiness; and it dots the 'i's' and crosses the 't's' of his biographer's hint that his constitution was such that he should have remained unmarried. It also proves, as I have already remarked, that within justifiable limits Froude, instead of emphasizing and magnifying Carlyle's faults, actually hid the worst from the public view, only telling as much as was absolutely required to make the narrative faithful to truth and sincerity."

THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND AND THE EDUCATION ACT.

Sir George Kekewich, in his paper under this heading, sums up the supposed gains of the Anglican Church as follows:

"What has the Church gained by the promotion of this act? She has obtained, it is true, the endowment of denominational religious instruction by the state out of the rates and taxes. She has gained relief from the financial support of the schools, which, indeed, she has in a large measure already failed to supply; and she has maintained, in denominational schools, a religious test upon the teachers.

"Against these gains, if they be gains, what loss has to be set? Hundreds of clergy, thousands of churchmen, view the proceedings of their church with grave apprehension and deep regret. Some object to the interference of the County Council; some are conscious that the greed and injustice of the Church must weaken her influence on the people, and they resent the financial propping by the state of the creed which they regard as fully capable of holding the field by its own inherent truth.

"The strength of the Church depends on the people, and if the people recognize that her connection with the state entails fresh injustice on them, her days as an established church will be surely numbered.

"She has lost the substance of control and kept the shadow. It is impossible to doubt that in the course of a very few years there will be such amendments made in the act as will cause even the shadow also to disappear. The sooner that takes place, the better for the Church. The longer the present conditions of denominational education continue, the greater will be her weakness."

THE ELECTORAL SYSTEM IN GERMANY.

Mr. J. S. Mann, writing on "Popular Government in the German Empire," lays stress upon the inequalities of the electoral system. He shows that while the Catholic Center have one member in the Reichstag for every 14,016 supporters, the Social Democrats have only one member for 37,626 supporters. Speaking of the prospects of the Social Democrats, he says:

"The Social Democratic vote has been steadily growing since the formation of the empire, and the representatives of the party have increased in thirty-four years from 1 to 56. Partly, of course, the vote has been increased artificially by running candidates in every constituency, even where they had no possible chance of success. At the last election, the party ran candidates in 396 constituencies; on May 8 of this year, the number was 385. But the increase is real, nevertheless, and is likely to be greater than ever at the coming elections."

OTHER ARTICLES.

We notice Dr. Dillon's chronicle elsewhere. Emma Marie Caillard writes on "The Ethical Individual and Immortality," Mr. L. F. Day on "William Morris and His Decorative Art," and Mr. A. E. Keeton on "Richard Strauss as Man and Musician." M. Pierre Baudin, French ex-minister of public works, contributes a paper on "The Internal Navigation of France," but his article is too specialized and statistical for notice here.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

IN the *Fortnightly Review* for June, Mr. A. J. Dawson deals with French pretensions in Morocco, as indicated by a preface written to a recent book by M. Étienne, Vice-President of the Chamber of Deputies.

IRISH LANDLORDS REHABILITATED.

Mr. Michael McDonagh asks, "Are the Irish Landlords as Black as They Are Painted?" and answers in the negative,—quite truly, no doubt, the vice being in landlordism, not in the landlords.

"The Irish landlords have not only had to bear much undeserved obloquy. They have also been scurvily treated by the state, whose blunders in the past most of their woes are to be traced. The landlords are called 'the English garrison in Ireland.' England has no lack of garrisons in Ireland. She has garrisons among the people as well as among the landed gentry. The people have supplied her with the Royal Irish Constabulary, who so loyally maintain her interests in Ireland, and also with those faithful servitors of her imperialistic sway—her Irish soldiers and sailors, and her Irish civil servants. But England is under obligations to the landlord class for more than their unswerving loyalty to her interests in Ireland. Many of the proudest names emblazoned on the empire's muster-roll of statesmen, administrators, and soldiers are Irish of the landed gentry. Some of the most splendid victories of England in arms were gained by the military genius of the sons of Irish landlords, supported by the bravery and dash of the sons of Irish farmers and laborers in the ranks."

PUNISHING CHILDREN.

Mr. Edward Cooper writes on "The Punishment of Children." He maintains that if you eliminate corporal punishment from your weapons you have kept nothing for the final conflict.

"When you have put whipping aside, effective punishment can hardly be said to exist; the guardian is helpless before a resolute and reckless child of twelve or thirteen, and the child very soon knows it. To send a person of this sort to bed, and pull down the blind and lock the door, may be a dire penalty for a heinous crime,—if your moral authority happens to be sufficient to keep the person in bed. Otherwise the culprit gets up, dresses, and gets out of the window, if he is a boy, or makes up stories to herself and plays original games,

with the pillow and bolster for playmates, if it is a girl. This is to assume,—quite gratuitously,—that the child does not like lying in bed with nothing to do except dream. Again, punishment by deprivation of certain pleasures, such as parties, coming in to dessert in the evening, hockey matches, pocket-money, etc., implies,—first, the existence of these pleasures, which in a quiet country house is not always certain, and, secondly, which is much less certain, that the child has weighed its treats and its naughtiness in the balance, and deliberately preferred the treats. A young person of my acquaintance was fined twopence every morning by her governess for being late for breakfast; but, unluckily, she had soberly considered the question whether a quarter of an hour extra in bed was worth twopence, and had decided that it was."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mrs. Frances Campbell contributes a few pages of charming description of "A Dance in the Pacific Islands;" "Cygnus" tells the story of the Penrhyn Quarries; there is a story by Sudermann, a paper by Mr. Charles Hawtrey on "Theatrical Business in America," and a delightful contribution from "Fiona Macleod."

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

IN the June number of the *National Review*, "An Elector" asks, "Is the Cabinet Riding for a Fall?" He declares that not one of the great measures before Parliament excites the smallest enthusiasm in the country; and that "there are few Conservative seats which would not be in peril in the event of a general election." He denounces the Irish Land bill as a probable stepping-stone to Home Rule. His strictures on the re-

peal of the corn tax have been elsewhere mentioned. He concludes by urging the government to come to an understanding with Lord Rosebery for handing over the reins of power to a Rosebery-Asquith-Grey-Fowler ministry.

DEGENERATE FINANCE.

Mr. Sydney Buxton, M.P., contributes a comprehensive survey entitled "The War: Its Cost and Finance." His contrast between the way of financing the Napoleonic and Crimean wars and the way of paying for the South African war is most effective. One-third of the cost of the Napoleonic wars, amounting to three hundred million sterling (\$1,500,000,000), was met out of additional taxation, two-thirds by loan. The cost of the Crimean War was more than half paid for in three years. But to meet the two hundred and thirty millions of South African expenditure, the enormously wealthy England of to-day supplies, by additional taxation, only fifty millions.

CAPTAIN MAHAN ON NAVAL ADMINISTRATION.

Captain Mahan, in the course of his historical disquisition on this subject, draws an interesting contrast between British and American methods, which he finds characteristic of the two nations. In the navy, as in the nation, the executive responsibility rests,—in the United States, with one man; in Great Britain, in the hands of a committee,—when called cabinet, with prime minister as chairman; when called admiralty, with first lord as chairman. Captain Mahan appreciates the value of the fighting side being well represented at the British admiralty, but fears the British system shares the danger of the council of war of making responsibility illusive.

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

M. ÉMILE OLLIVIER contributes to the first May number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* a paper on Sadowa, and to the second May number one on French policy after Sadowa. In the first, he declares that the whole campaign of Sadowa showed the incontestable superiority of offensive tactics; it also confirmed that famous maxim of Napoleon: "In war, men are nothing; it is a man who is everything." The Athenians of old knew that an army of stags led by a lion was worth more than an army of lions led by a stag. The best strategy, he says, the best tactics, is the lucid, firm, resolute, well-balanced brain of the general-in-chief. Pile up your artillery and your rifles, make on paper the most admirable plan of mobilization,—it will all vanish in smoke if your leaders are incompetent. In the second article, he traces the effect in France of the aggrandizement of Prussia in consequence of the events of 1866. The terrible mistakes which were then made led directly to the war of 1870.

A FRENCH VIEW OF THE ENGLISH BROAD CHURCH MOVEMENT.

In the first May number, M. Thureau-Dangin writes an interesting and well-informed study of the beginning of the Broad Church movement in England from 1845 to 1865. This movement, he shows, had its origin in a reaction against sacerdotalism on the one hand and clerical demagoguery on the other. It took the view

that Christianity was not so much a visible institution of divine origin as a personal feeling by which each individual was brought into relation with God. It introduced the results of German biblical criticism to the old Anglican theology; it exhibited a great dislike for dogma; and it ended by adopting something very much like Erastianism. The standard-bearers in this new movement were, of course, Stanley and Jowett. M. Thureau-Dangin traces with great skill the history of these half-forgotten years, the publication of "Essays and Reviews," the Gorham Judgment, and the affair of Bishop Colenso. The whole article is interesting as showing the revived interest, on the other side of the Channel, in what may be called the modern history of the Church of England.

Among other articles may be mentioned the first installment of M. Cuvillier-Fleury's "Letters to the Duc d'Aumale between 1837 and 1841;" a study of "Shakespeare and Music," by M. Bellaigue; the third installment of an anonymous series of articles on Algeria, and a paper by M. de Laguérie on "The Catholic Cemetery in Peking."

REVUE DE PARIS.

THE first May number of the *Revue de Paris* contains two papers dealing with English subjects; the one is an excellent article on the personality and on the work of Spenser, by the French ambassador at Washington, M. Jusserand. The writer, though a

Frenchman, is the greatest living authority both on mediæval and on Elizabethan England.

M. Mantoux has chosen a very different British theme, "The Awakening of the British Labor Party," taking as his text the last Woolwich election. He seems to have paid a prolonged visit to England, and while there to have seen something of the various labor leaders, including Mr. William Crooks himself. As a result of his observations, he declares that the day is close at hand when the labor party will play a very important rôle in British Parliamentary life, and entirely alter the England of to-day. He admits, however, that that day, if close at hand, has not yet dawned, and any future writings of his concerning the subject should be watched for with interest, for he is evidently a shrewd as well as an impartial observer.

Another personal article of a very different nature is entitled "The Philosophy of a Millionaire," and gives a long and enthusiastic account of Mr. Andrew Carnegie, of his theories, and of the practical way in which he has known how to make them facts.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

THE first May number of the *Nouvelle Revue* opens with an account of Diego-Suarez, the harbor town situated at the extreme north of Madagascar. The writer, M. Étienne, who is known as the leader of the French colonial party, would like to see this spot become the Gibraltar of the Indian Ocean, and he publishes with the article a map showing the importance to France of this great natural harbor.

The French revival of what may be called native arts and crafts work has inspired M. Marcel to write a short paper on French artistic industries. There are in France ten great public art schools where decoration is taught; in addition are fourteen important private studios, and twelve art schools managed by the Ministry of Fine Arts, in which are sections where all that touches on industrial art may be learned; but these do little or nothing to encourage the actual worker who desires that his labor shall not be purely mechanical to strike out a newer line for himself,—and the writer points out that nowadays art in France, once so sincerely national, is becoming cosmopolitan in tone and feeling. Walter Crane, the Belgian artist Van de Velde, and the American jeweler Tiffany have all had their part in creating that curious artistic aberration, *l'Art Nouveau*. However, an effort is now being made in Paris, similar to that which has been more or less successful in England, and the twentieth century may see a revival of national art, not only in paintings and sculpture, but in the making of fine furniture, and in the decoration of everything that appertains to daily life.

LA REVUE.

"LA REVUE" for May shows Dr. Max Nordau in the rôle of novelist. "Panna" is the title of M. Nordau's novel. It is a story of Hungarian life, and promises to be interesting and dramatic.

M. Hayashi describes "Une Première de Shakespeare au Japon," "Othello" being the play in question. The Japanese masses, says M. Hayashi, have as yet no conception of Western literature, though their educated classes read Shakespeare in the original. Therefore,

when "Othello" was presented on the stage, the play was reconstructed, the characters wearing Japanese dresses and expressing Japanese sentiments, so as to make it intelligible to the people. It is interesting to note that M. Hayashi says that Mme. Sadi Yacco, who has such a reputation as a Japanese actress in Europe, has no such reputation in Japan. The Japanese regard her success in Europe as evidence of Western intellectual inferiority. The Japanese cannot conceive an actor or actress who has not been trained in histrionic arts since infancy.

MORE OF TOLSTOY'S CONFESSION.

M. Tchertkoff supplies some unpublished fragments from Count Tolstoy's "Journal Intime." The count's indictment of government for the following seven evils is worth quoting:

- "1° *L'Eglise: tromperie, superstition, dépenses;*
- "2° *L'armée: dépravation, émeutes, dépenses;*
- "3° *La pénalité: dépravation, cruautés, contagion;*
- "4° *La grande propriété: famine, haine, pauvreté, les villes;*
- "5° *La fabrique: l'assassinat, le meurtre;*
- "6° *L'alcoolisme;*
- "7° *La prostitution."*

TURKEY AND THE SULTAN.

Professor Vambéry writes on "Modern Turkey and the Sultan." He lays great stress upon the gradual Occidentalization of the Turks. Not only are there now fewer illiterates in the empire than in many European states, but their whole literature has been revolutionized upon Western lines. Formerly, the Turkish author's ambition was to embellish his style with exotic words from Persian and Arabic, and to make it as far as possible distinct from the idiom of the people; at present, he simplifies his style, writes in pure Turkish, and generally writes as a European. All branches of modern science are represented in modern Turkish literature, and the Turks read, translate, and imitate romances purely Western in spirit and incident. It is the conflict between this Western spirit and the Sultan's Oriental régime which leads to many of the incongruities in modern Turkey. M. Vambéry denies that the Sultan is the merciless tyrant he is generally represented to be. He is merely the victim of a dread that his Christian subjects may use European culture as an instrument in their revolutionary designs.

OTHER ARTICLES.

M. Novicow contributes a paper on Alsace-Lorraine and peace, which he concludes in the number of May 15. In the latter number, M. Octave Depont describes the Mussulman brotherhoods, which he declares were responsible for the Marguerite massacre in Algeria. Professor Lombroso writes on "The Vices of the Penitentiary System."

M. Frédéric Loliée, in a paper on "The Psychology of a Journalist," deals with the late M. Blowitz. The following is one of M. Blowitz's hints to amateur interviewers: "When a man has made a communication to you, do not go away at once, but change the conversation, and leave him when speaking of some entirely unimportant subject. If you leave him suddenly (after having received the important communication), he will ask you not to repeat it. That means information lost, which is more irritating than if not received at all."

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS.

MR. JAMES BRYCE'S "Studies in Contemporary Biography" (Macmillan) is really a series of character sketches of eminent statesmen and writers, many of whose names are as familiar to the American as to the British reading public. With all but one of the twenty men sketched in these essays, Mr. Bryce was on terms of personal acquaintance, and with most of

York *Evening Post* and *Nation*. Mr. Bryce has freed himself from the restrictions and limitations of the ordinary biography, and he protests that his studies are not to be regarded as biographies "even in miniature." The purpose of his essays is to analyze the character and powers of each of the persons sketched. This he does with wonderful effectiveness. Mr. Bryce long ago proved himself a master in the difficult art of interpreting popular institutions; as an interpreter of individual character, his triumph is not less complete. Among contemporary writers in this field, he is surpassed by none.

A volume of "The Kaiser's Speeches" has been translated and edited, with annotations, by Wolf von Schierbrand (Harpers). The great merit of this work is the fact that the material used in its preparation is strictly authentic. Most of the speeches and other utterances of Emperor William were taken from the recent compilation, sanctioned by the Kaiser himself, which was compiled by A. Oscar Klaussmann. They have been rendered into English by Mr. von Schierbrand. Other speeches appearing in the book were obtained from equally trustworthy sources. In every instance, the original German versions were used. Mr. von Schierbrand spent many years in Berlin as chief correspondent for the Associated Press of America, and the knowledge of German politics that he thus obtained is made available to the reader in the form of comment and explanatory text in the present volume. Every intelligent American reader of to-day should certainly be familiar with those speeches of Kaiser Wilhelm which touch upon American affairs and topics of interest to Americans.

"Letters of a Diplomat's Wife," by Mary King Waddington (Scribners), will be read not only for the revelation that they give of the undercurrents in European diplomacy during the last two decades of the last century, but even more because of the interesting personality of the writer. Mme. Waddington is an American woman, the daughter of the late President Charles King, of Columbia College, and a grand-

daughter of Rufus King, the second minister sent to England by the United States after the adoption of the Constitution. In 1874, she became the wife of M. William Henry Waddington, a French statesman of English antecedents, who held the position of French ambassador at the Court of St. James from 1883 to 1893. The letters collected in this volume were written by Mme. Waddington during the period of her husband's diplomatic service, to describe to her sisters the personages and incidents of her official life.

"The True Abraham Lincoln," by William Eleroy Curtis (Lippincott), is not the conventional biography.



MR. JAMES BRYCE.

them the acquaintance was intimate. The series begins with Lord Beaconsfield, who died in 1881, and closes with Mr. Gladstone, who lived until 1898. These two are the most distinguished names in the group, but personalities like Dean Stanley, Anthony Trollope, John Richard Green, Charles Stewart Parnell, Cardinal Manning, Prof. Edward A. Freeman, and Lord Acton stand out so conspicuously that what Mr. Bryce has to say about them cannot fail to interest the general reader. In the volume is included also a sketch of one career which was virtually made in America,—namely, that of the late Edwin Lawrence Godkin, the editor of the New

but rather "a collection of sketches in which an attempt is made to portray the character of Abraham Lincoln as the highest type of the American from several interesting points of view." Mr. Curtis has made a readable book, and one that is likely to stimulate in many a reader of the younger generation an abiding interest in the character and career of Lowell's "first American."

"The Real Benedict Arnold," by Charles Burr Todd (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.), is notable for the estimate that it gives of Arnold's services to the American cause in the earlier years of the Revolution, as well as for the explanation offered of Arnold's subsequent treason. According to Mr. Todd, it was not the injustice of Congress, nor the jealousies of brother officers, that induced Arnold to betray his country, but rather the influence of his wife, who was a Philadelphia loyalist, and his fear of losing her should her treasonable correspondence with British officers be discovered. It should be said, however, that this thesis, while ingenious, does not seem to be sustained by any direct proofs in the form of letters or documents signed by Arnold himself.

"The Life and Letters of Edgar Allan Poe," edited by James A. Harrison (Crowell), is a two-volume edition of the biographical material which is included in the "Virginia Edition" of Poe's works, already noticed in these pages. Professor Harrison, it is well known, has devoted the last fifteen years to the collection of new Poe material, and has been able to throw much additional light on Poe's career. This work at once takes its place as the standard biography of the poet, and the only one including a collection of his letters. The volumes are illustrated with portraits, facsimiles of letters, and scenes.

The autobiography of Joseph Le Conte, for many years the esteemed professor of geology at the University of California, has been edited by Mr. William D. Arnes, and published by the Appletons. The origin of this book is interesting. It was written by Professor Le Conte in his old home in Columbia, S. C., whither he had gone from New York to recuperate from a severe illness. Columbia was the scene of many of the events narrated in the earlier chapters of the work, which were written by the aged professor while surrounded by his children, grandchildren, and great-grandchildren, for whom the manuscript was intended, and to whom, from time to time, portions of it were read. Since Professor Le Conte's death, in 1901, it has been decided to publish this autobiographical sketch with only such changes as seemed necessary. Much use has been made of Professor Le Conte's letters, journals, and published writings in completing the volume. Professor Le Conte was a teacher in several Southern colleges before the Civil War, served in the Confederate army, and after the war went to California, where his scientific career was a notable one down to the year of his death.

A new life of Robert Browning, quite different from any of its predecessors, has been written by Mr. G. K. Chesterton for the "English Men of Letters" series (Mac-



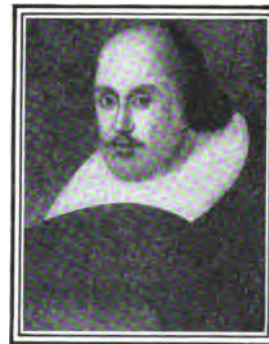
BENEDICT ARNOLD.

millan). This writer has divided his sketch into eight chapters, the titles of which give a fair indication of the method of treatment: "Browning in Early Life," "Early Works," "Browning and His Marriage," "Browning in Italy," "Browning in Later Life," "Browning as a Literary Artist," "The Ring and the Book," and "The Philosophy of Browning." The chapter on Browning and his marriage to the gifted Elizabeth Barrett is perhaps the most interesting in the book, so far as biographical narrative is concerned, but the critical comments and summaries are exceedingly suggestive, and are admirably written. The whole work is comprised in two hundred pages, and can be read through at a single sitting.

The diary and letters of the German lyric poet, Wilhelm Müller, father of the more famous Max Müller, edited by Philip Schuyler Allen, of the University of Chicago, and James Taft Hatfield, of Northwestern University, have recently been issued from the University of Chicago Press. The text is wholly in German, and is supplemented by several pages of editorial notes in English. There is also an index of names. This diary of Wilhelm Müller was discovered by his son only a few months before the latter's death, three years ago.

In a little volume entitled "A New Portrait of Shakespeare" (New York: John Lane), Mr. John Corbin states the case of the Ely Palace painting as against

that of the so-called Droeshout original. The latter painting has been looked upon by the highest authorities as in all probability a life portrait, and has been introduced as of chief interest in biographies of the great dramatist. Mr. Corbin relates the history of this and the Ely Palace portrait, discussing their respective claims to be regarded as genuine, and aims to show that the so-called Droeshout original is probably a fabrication, and that the Ely Palace

THE ELY PALACE PORTRAIT
OF SHAKESPEARE.

painting is probably a life portrait of Shakespeare.

Mr. Frank Jesup Scott has written an interesting and instructive monograph on "Portraits of Julius Cæsar" (Longmans). During five years of European travel, Mr. Scott visited all the great museums and many private collections, with the intention of bringing to light all accessible portraits of the warrior-emperor. The present volume contains a comparison of the known portraits and thirty-eight full-page plates and forty-nine figures, nearly all of which are illustrations of marbles or bronzes, coins or gems, supposed to represent Julius Cæsar.

HISTORY AND POLITICS.

Among the new books that seem to owe their existence largely to the revived interest in our territorial expansion awakened by the results of the Spanish-American war, and still further stimulated by the celebration of the Louisiana Purchase centenary, Mr. Edmund J. Carpenter's volume, entitled "The American Advance" (New York: John Lane), is a clear presentation

of the whole subject. A chapter of fifty pages is devoted to the Louisiana Purchase, while the cession of Florida, the annexation of Texas, the Mexican cession, Oregon, and the Gadsden Purchase are carefully reviewed. Full accounts are given of the purchase of Alaska and of the annexation of Hawaii, and in the concluding chapter the developments of the past five years relating to Cuba, Porto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines are considered. The writer has based his work entirely upon documentary materials, and yet the product is a readable *résumé* of one of the most significant phases of American history.

In the opening up of the Western country, which formed a part of the expansion movement as narrated in Mr. Carpenter's work, the river steamboat played a part that we of the present day can hardly appreciate. In his studies of Western history, Capt. Hiram M. Chittenden, Corps of Engineers, U.S.A., has been impressed by the importance of the steamboat in the development of the Missouri River valley, and has had the good fortune to secure from one of the pioneer steamboat men of the early days a full and authentic record of steamboat navigation on the Missouri River. The two volumes by Captain Chittenden, devoted to the life and adventures of Joseph La Barge (New York: Francis P. Harper), contain practically all that is known on this subject from the time when the pioneer steamboat first pointed its nose up the treacherous and snag-infested channel of the "Big Muddy." Captain La Barge himself took the first boat to the far upper river, and he made the last through voyage from St. Louis to Fort Benton. His life embraced the entire era of active boat business on the river. Gifted with a remarkable memory, Captain La Barge was able to record the details of the Missouri River steamboat trade with great fullness, and he has left to posterity what will undoubtedly stand for all time to come as the complete and authentic story of this interesting episode in Western history.

It was while making a study of Texas under the Spanish *régime* that Dr. Walter F. McCaleb found by chance, in the Bexar Archives at San Antonio, Texas,

a number of documents relating to Aaron Burr. He afterward discovered much material in the Mexican Archives in Mexico City which also related to the Burr conspiracy; and, after several years of research, he has written a full account of "The Aaron Burr Conspiracy" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). In this work, Dr. McCaleb controverts the commonly accepted explanation of



AARON BURR.

the conspiracy,—that it was the outcome of Burr's personal idiosyncrasies of character, maintaining that the conspiracy was really an affection of society; and that if the nature of the conspiracy is to be disclosed, it can only be through an examination into the state of that society whose social, political, and traditional affiliations gave rise to it. The value of Dr. McCaleb's contribution lies largely in the interpretation that he gives of the spirit of the West at the beginning of the nineteenth century. In all the volumes that have been written about Burr's conspiracy, little

light has ever been thrown upon what, after all, lay back of that conspiracy,—the temper of the Western settlers. As Dr. McCaleb puts it, "Expansion—conquest—was the keynote of the conspiracy; it is the keynote of the history of the race."

Prof. George P. Garrison's volume on "Texas," in the "American Commonwealths" series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), involves chapters of the political history of Spain, France, England, and Mexico. Professor Garrison tells how Texas emerged into history as the territory where Spanish and French expansion overlapped, and how Spain prevailed; how the Anglo-Americans succeeded in securing Texas from Mexico, and how its resources and education have developed. Professor Garrison's aim, as he states it himself, has been "to give a picture of what Texas is, and of the process by which it has become such." His book is not intended for a history of Texas. Carrying out the idea of the late Dr. Scudder, the original editor of the "American Commonwealths" series, it is "a study based on history."

Dr. William Clarence Webster's "General History of Commerce" (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is one of the first attempts at an elementary treatment of this subject. The book can be used as a text-book in secondary schools, as a text-book in the lower classes of colleges, or as a companion book to the study of general history or the history of particular nations. The book is well equipped with maps and other illustrations.

In the field of political history, one of the most important contributions of the year is Prof. James Albert Woodburn's "Political Parties and Party Problems in the United States" (Putnams). This volume is, in a sense, a companion volume to "The American Republic and Its Government" by the same author, which was noticed in a recent number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. In the present work the author gives a sketch of American party history and of the development and operations of party machinery, together with a consideration of certain party problems in their relations to political morality. The book has to do not with forms of government and the duties and functions of public officers, but with the party spirit and forces that operate our government. Professor Woodburn devotes considerable space, for example, to the "Rise of the Convention System," "The National Convention of To-day," "The Conduct of the Campaign," "Our Political Morality," "An Honest Ballot," "Rings and Bosses," "The Spoils System," and other problems of our political life. The book is written with a desire for promoting in school and home a study of American politics, and in the belief that education in politics is a question of character rather than of knowledge.

A most interesting episode in American political history is narrated in the volume by David Miller Dewitt, on "The Impeachment and Trial of Andrew Johnson, Seventeenth President of the United States" (Macmillan). This writer is a valiant defender of President Johnson, and marshals in his support an impressive array of documentary materials.

"Glimpses of Colonial Society and the Life at Princeton College, 1766-1773," by One of the Class of 1763, is the title given to a volume made up of letters and other papers of William Paterson, and edited by Mr. W. Jay Mills (Lippincott). The writer of these letters had a brilliant career as attorney-general of New Jersey during the Revolution, framer of the Federal Constitution, United States Senator, governor of his State, and, at the time of his death, an associate justice of the United

States Supreme Court. These papers throw much light on the student life of colonial times, besides recording the college friendship of two famous Americans, William Paterson and John Macpherson.

The first complete "History of Porto Rico" in English has been written by Mr. R. A. Van Middeldyk, librarian of the Free Public Library of San Juan, and edited by Prof. Martin G. Brumbaugh, first commissioner of education of Porto Rico (Appletons). It is said that the record of Porto Rico's four centuries under Spanish rule has never been satisfactorily written, even in the Spanish language. Mr. Van Middeldyk has had access to all data obtainable in the islands, and has been able to construct a connected narrative giving the reader a view of the social and institutional life of the island for four hundred years.

The third volume of M. Oppenheim's edition of "The Spanish Conquest in America," by Sir Arthur Helps (New York: John Lane), is notable, like its predecessors, for the reproductions of ancient maps and for the editor's fine-print notes on the text. The work will be completed with one additional volume.

In Prof. James Harvey Robinson's "Introduction to the History of Western Europe" (Boston: Ginn & Co.),—which is really a student's manual of the subject,—an unusually large proportion of space has been devoted to institutions, especially the Church. The chapters on "The Mediæval Church at Its Height," "Heresy and the Friars," and "The Popes and the Councils" will be found especially helpful as introductory to the detailed study of the Protestant Reformation which follows.

BOOKS ABOUT NATURE AND OUT-OF-DOOR LIFE.

The subject of our native trees and shrubs suffers from no lack of skillful treatment. In our May number, we spoke of several bright new books which deal particularly with hardy plants suitable for the garden. Since that number went to press, several volumes have appeared which make special appeals to all lovers of the tree family, whether students of botany or not. Mr. H. E. Parkhurst's "Trees, Shrubs, and Vines of the Northeastern United States" (Scribners) is especially designed, indeed, for the person who has never studied botany. Such a reader will be greatly helped, however, if he can have access to a scientifically planted park in some one of our great cities. The magnificent collections of Central Park, New York, form the background of Mr. Parkhurst's account. Miss Harriet L. Keeler, the author of "Our Native Trees," has supplemented that excellent work with a volume on "Our Northern Shrubs and How to Identify Them" (Scribners). Miss Keeler not only gives the scientific analysis of each shrub, but for the benefit of the amateur nature-lover she furnishes a popular description, thus offering a complete guide to the various shrub families. "With the Trees," by Maud Goings (Baker & Taylor Company), is a readable and suggestive compilation of tree-lore, not restricted to hard-and-fast scientific statement, but including collateral information of interest to almost all classes of readers, young and old.

Somewhat different from either of these in scope is the task undertaken by Miss Julia Ellen Rogers in her volume entitled "Among Green Trees" (Chicago: A. W. Mumford). It is intended rather as a guide to acquaintance with a few familiar trees than as an attempt to describe all the native American species. The writer takes the very sensible view that few general readers care to know about all the trees in our American forests, or

even about all the varieties of oaks, for example. It is the ten or a dozen common species of oak that we all want to know well enough to recognize wherever we see them growing. In her book, Miss Rogers describes about one hundred and twenty-five different kinds of trees. As she is required to devote less space than most books of this class devote to the mere matter of identification—that is, kinds and names of trees—there is more room for the discussion of other matters relating to the subject of tree life. The essentials of tree physiology are presented in a form that will attract and instruct the general reader without employing the technical language of the specialist. An important part of Miss Rogers' book is given to practical phases of tree cultivation, such as the planting of a tree, the right and the wrong way to cut off a limb, the farmer's wood lot, fruit trees at home, the making of nursery trees, the making-over of fruit trees, the pruning of trees, insects, diseases, and spraying. The illustration of the volume is notably good.

A new book on "The Water-Fowl Family" has been brought out by the Macmillan Company. This is the joint production of Messrs. L. C. Sanford, L. B. Bishop, and T. S. Van Dyke, and forms a volume in the American Sportsman's Library, edited by Caspar Whitney. Mr. Sanford devotes nearly all his attention to duck shooting and shore-bird shooting, but he has one long chapter on goose shooting here and in Canada, another on rail shooting, and a brief one on swans. Mr. Van Dyke contributes chapters relating to the Pacific Coast birds. There is no little variety in the book, many of its pages being taken up with interesting anecdotes.

Two other volumes in the American Sportsman's Library deal respectively with the "Big Game Fishes of the United States," and with "Bass, Pike, Perch, and Others." Prof. Charles F. Holder, the author of the volume on "Big Game Fishes," is said to be exceptionally well informed, through experience, on the various features of sea angling, having hooked and landed every variety of big game fish. Professor Holder not only imparts generously of his knowledge, but regales the reader with many good stories of adventure. Dr. James A. Henshall's entertaining book on "Bass, Pike, Perch, and Others" describes not only the fishes named in the title, but practically all the game fishes of the United States east of the Rocky Mountains, except the salmon and trouts, the tarpon, jewfish, and other fishes of large size, which are described in other volumes of the series. Dr. Henshall describes the haunts and the habits of the sunfish family, the bass family, the perch, minnows, sheepsheads, mackerel, groupers, grunts, snappers, porgies, graylings, drums, and many other miscellaneous kinds of fishes which are caught in streams, lakes, ponds, or off shore. Dr. Henshall's suggestions as to angling and tackle are based on an experience of forty years on many waters from Canada to the West Indies, and from the Atlantic to the Rocky Mountains.

"Wood Folk at School" is the title of a new volume by the Rev. William J. Long (Boston: Ginn & Co.), whose works have recently been so severely criticised by Mr. John Burroughs. This is the fourth volume in the "Wood Folk" series by Mr. Long. It is made up largely of studies of individual animals and birds. Mr. Long vouches for the accuracy of his statements, all of which are based on his own recorded observations, extending over a period of many years. To him the "School for Wood Folk" is a very real thing. He thinks it probable "that education among the higher order of animals has its distinct place and value. Their knowl-

edge, however simple, is still the result of three factors, —instinct, training, and experience. Instinct only begins the work; the mother's training develops and supplements the instinct; and contact with the world, with its sudden dangers and unknown forces, finishes the process."

The appearance of a revised edition of the excellent little handbook entitled "Wild Birds in City Parks," by Herbert Eugene Walter and Alice Hall Walter (Chicago: A. W. Mumford), suggests the need of similar manuals for the identification of birds in other localities. In the present work, one hundred land birds only are presented, all of which have been observed in Lincoln Park, Chicago. The use of such a work as this affords an excellent means by which city dwellers may make the acquaintance of many of our wild birds.

Mr. Charles Goodrich Whiting, associate editor of the *Springfield Republican*, whose work as essayist and verse-writer is well known, especially in New England, has written an attractive book entitled "Walks in New England" (New York: John Lane). Mr. Whiting gives us many charming descriptions of New England scenery in all seasons of the year. Many of the localities pictured so graphically by Mr. Whiting will be recognized by New Englanders who may have wandered far from the old haunts. A similar work is a little book entitled "Where Town and Country Meet," by James Buckham (Eaton & Mains). This also is a book of nature-study in New England.

A capital book for a boy to own is "Trapper Jim," by Edwyn Sandys (Macmillan). Mr. Sandys, who is a naturalist and sportsman, as well as an artist, tells in this book how to do many useful and interesting things which almost every boy in the country wishes to do, such as trapping, camping, swimming, drawing, fishing, sparring, and preserving the skins of wild creatures.

The first sensation awakened by a perusal of the comprehensive volume entitled "Athletics and Outdoor Sports for Women" (Macmillan) is likely to be one of surprise that so wide a range of athletic activity is indulged in by the women of to-day. Of outdoor sports proper, cross-country walking, running, swimming, skating, rowing, horseback riding, golf, tennis, and field hockey are treated in separate chapters, each by a special writer, and it would seem that bicycling might well have received similar attention. There are also helpful chapters on "Physical Training at Home," "Gymnasium Work," "Dancing: Æsthetic and Social," "Basket-Ball," "Fencing," "Bowling," and "Track Athletics." The fact that there is a demand for such a book as this,—twenty years ago it would not have been thought of,—is itself evidence of the widespread and healthful interest that American girls and women are taking in their physical welfare.

WORKS ON EDUCATION.

A book of exceptional interest is Prof. Elmer E. Brown's "The Making of Our Middle Schools" (Longmans). In this volume, Professor Brown relates the history of secondary education in this country, going back to the grammar schools of Old England, which served as models of the early colonial grammar schools, and describing, in turn, the colonial system of schooling and school administration, the early American acad-

emies, the later State systems of secondary education, the movement toward public control, the first high schools, and the later State schools. Professor Brown has gathered much material on these topics, which have usually been neglected by historians, although few American institutions are more worthy of study than our schools and the methods by which they have been administered.

A good opportunity for a comparative study of the school systems of the United States, England, France, and Germany is afforded in a little book written by R. E. Hughes, an English educationist of wide experience and observation. So far as the point of view is concerned, the book might well enough have been written by an American. It is entitled "The Making of Citizens" (Scribners), and it aims to show how the educational system of each of these four countries is adapted to present and future national needs. To the American reader, the book makes a special appeal, not only as a compendium of facts concerning other educational systems than our own, but as showing the impression made upon an intelligent foreign observer by our own educational machinery.

A highly suggestive treatise for teachers in all grades is Prof. Charles de Garmo's "Interest and Education," in which the concrete application is made of what is known as the doctrine of interest to the matter and methods of education. The author's contention is that school instruction should concern itself with something besides the intelligence of the child. He is looking forward to the time when feeling and volition as well as intelligence will be included in education; when instruction will involve more than mental drill, but will include also "such bodies of ideas as the feeling can cling to; will impart knowledge capable of arousing enthusiasm, and will reveal nature and social institutions in such a manner that desire and permanent disposition toward them may be developed."

In "The Place of Industries in Elementary Education" (University of Chicago Press), Miss Katharine E. Dopp brings out the significance of industrial epochs, —e.g., the hunting stage, the pastoral stage, the agricultural stage, the age of metals, etc., in relation to the development of the child. The plan and motive of the work are original, and the treatment is suggestive.

Mr. Percival Chubb's book on "The Teaching of English" (Macmillan) is a plea for unity and continuity in the English course from its beginning in the kindergarten up through the high schools. In accordance with the author's view, the leading principles governing the study of English are present in the earliest stages of teaching as well as in the higher grades. To the primary school and the high-school teacher alike, these principles are important and essential.

Prof. S. S. Laurie's "Studies in the History of Educational Opinion from the Renaissance" (Macmillan) are grouped about certain historical characters who represent in themselves the educational opinions of their times. In the earlier period covered by this work, Rabelais, Roger Ascham, the Jesuits, and Montaigne, the French rationalist, are representative leaders of thought, while for the modern period, from 1600 A.D. on, John Locke and Herbert Spencer serve in a similar capacity.

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Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index.

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

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| ACQR. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila. | Eng. Engineering Magazine, N. Y. | NewE. New England Magazine, Boston. |
| AHR. American Historical Review, N. Y. | Era. Era, Philadelphia. | NineC. Nineteenth Century, London. |
| AJS. American Journal of Sociology, Chicago. | EM. España Moderna, Madrid. | NAR. North American Review, N. Y. |
| AJT. American Journal of Theology, Chicago. | Ev. Everybody's Magazine, N. Y. | Nou. Nouvelle Revue, Paris. |
| ALR. American Law Review, St. Louis. | Fort. Fortnightly Review, London. | NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome. |
| AMonM. American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C. | Forum. Forum, N. Y. | OC. Open Court, Chicago. |
| AMRR. American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y. | FrL. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y. | O. Outing, N. Y. |
| ANat. American Naturalist, Boston. | Gent. Gentleman's Magazine, London. | Out. Outlook, N. Y. |
| AQ. American Quarterly, Boston. | GBag. Green Bag, Boston. | OutW. Out West, Los Angeles, Cal. |
| Annals. Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila. | Gunt. Guntion's Magazine, N. Y. | Over. Overland Monthly, San Francisco. |
| Arch. Architectural Record, N. Y. | Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y. | PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London. |
| Arena. Arena, N. Y. | Hart. Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn. | Pear. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y. |
| AJ. Art Journal, London. | Hom. Homiletic Review, N. Y. | Phil. Philosophical Review, N. Y. |
| Atlan. Atlantic Monthly, Boston. | IJE. International Journal of Ethics, Phila. | PhoT. Photographic Times-Bulletin, N. Y. |
| Bad. Badminton, London. | Int. International Quarterly, Burlington, Vt. | PSQ. Political Science Quarterly, Boston. |
| BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London. | IntS. International Studio, N. Y. | PopA. Popular Astronomy, Northfield, Minn. |
| BankNY. Bankers' Magazine, N. Y. | JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H. | PopS. Popular Science Monthly, N. Y. |
| Bib. Biblical World, Chicago. | JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago. | PTR. Princeton Theological Review, Phila. |
| BibS. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O. | Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago. | QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston. |
| BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne. | KindR. Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass. | QR. Quarterly Review, London. |
| Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh. | LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila. | RasN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence. |
| BL. Book-Lover, N. Y. | Lamp. Lamp, N. Y. | RefS. Réforme Sociale, Paris. |
| Bkman. Bookman, N. Y. | LeisH. Leisure Hour, London. | RRL. Review of Reviews, London. |
| BP. Brush and Pencil, Chicago. | Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila. | RRLM. Review of Reviews, Melbourne. |
| CDR. Camera and Dark Room, N. Y. | LQ. London Quarterly Review, London. | Revue. Revue, Paris. |
| Can. Canadian Magazine, Toronto. | Long. Longman's Magazine, London. | RDM. Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris. |
| Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London. | Luth. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa. | RG. Revue Générale, Brussels. |
| CasM. Cassier's Magazine, N. Y. | McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y. | RPar. Revue de Paris, Paris. |
| Cath. Catholic World, N. Y. | Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, London. | RPP. Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris. |
| Cent. Century Magazine, N. Y. | MA. Magazine of Art, London. | RSoc. Revue Socialistic, Paris. |
| Cham. Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh. | Meth. Methodist Quarterly, Nashville. | Ros. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio. |
| Chant. Chautauquan, Springfield, O. | MethR. Methodist Review, N. Y. | San. Sanitarian, N. Y. |
| Contem. Contemporary Review, London. | Mind. Mind, N. Y. | School. School Review, Chicago. |
| Corn. Cornhill, London. | MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston. | Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y. |
| Cos. Cosmopolitan, N. Y. | MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y. | SR. Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn. |
| CLA. Country Life in America, N. Y. | Mon. Monist, Chicago. | SocS. Social Service, N. Y. |
| Crafts. Craftsman, Syracuse, N. Y. | MonR. Monthly Review, London. | Str. Strand Magazine, London. |
| Crit. Critic, N. Y. | MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y. | Temp. Temple Bar, London. |
| Deut. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart. | Mun. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y. | USM. United Service Magazine, London. |
| DeutR. Deutsche Rundschau, Berlin. | NatGM. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C. | West. Westminster Review, London. |
| Dial. Dial, Chicago. | NatM. National Magazine, Boston. | WPM. Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y. |
| Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin. | NatR. National Review, London. | WW. World's Work, N. Y. |
| Edin. Edinburgh Review, London. | NC. New-Church Review, Boston. | Yale. Yale Review, New Haven. |
| Ed. Education, Boston. | | YM. Young Man, London. |
| EdR. Educational Review, N. Y. | | YW. Young Woman, London. |

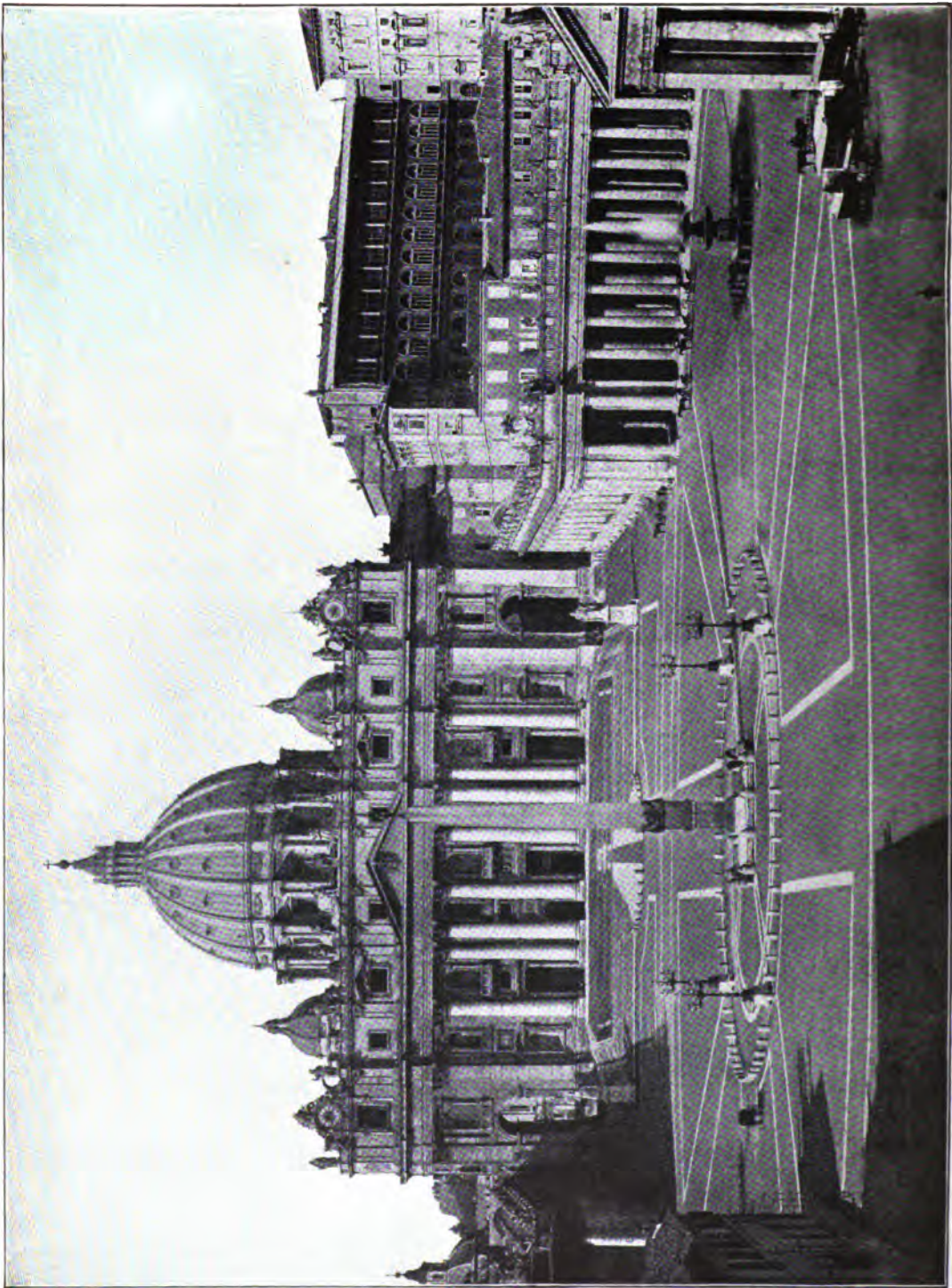
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ST. PETER'S AND THE VATICAN, AT ROME, WHERE LEO XIII.'S SUCCESSOR IS ABOUT TO BE CHOSEN.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Public Office for Private Gain. Certain conditions and tendencies of American life have been painfully illustrated in the current news of the past few weeks. In almost every instance, however, there have been encouraging signs to show that the forces making for good are stronger than those making for evil in the body politic. In the governmental sphere, there have been various disclosures pointing to the use of public office for private gain. There has been such a remarkable increase in private wealth throughout the country that standards of living, especially in the cities and larger towns, have been changed very greatly. Official salaries, meanwhile, have not been increased to any corresponding extent. In a European country like Germany, while official salaries are very small, it is a high honor to hold a place in the public service, and tenure is for life, on conditions of faithfulness, honesty, and efficiency. Under those circumstances, public posts are regarded as so desirable that officeholders are content with a very simple scale of living, and seldom feel any temptation to ape the manners of the rich. Public rather than private life may be said to fix the standards; and a great deal of solid comfort, as well as of high thinking, goes along with very plain and simple living.

The Current Post-Office Scandals. In the United States, on the contrary, private life sets the pace, and officialdom finds its lot rather precarious and difficult. In a few positions, the public service affords opportunity for a career practically permanent and in most respects satisfactory. But for the most part, our officeholders come and go, and are ever uneasy and anxious. They are strongly tempted to be on the lookout for influential outside connections, because they do not expect to find permanence or adequate reward in the public service. At times, this condition of things becomes seriously detrimental to the efficiency, and even to the honesty, of the

public service; and that this is true is now abundantly illustrated in the facts already brought to light by the investigation of the scandals in the administration of the post-office system. Comparatively little trouble arises from misconduct on the part of the rank and file of the service,—that is to say, the letter-carriers, the ordinary clerks, and the appointees of the lower grades. The danger arises from the opportunity afforded in the superior positions, where responsibility is placed for the making of contracts and the expenditure of the vast sums of money required to conduct the great post-office business. It now costs more than one hundred and thirty million dollars a year to carry on the work of the Post-Office Department. Fully one-half of this amount is paid out for transportation, a great part of it to the railroads. Vast quantities of supplies of various kinds have to be procured for the use of the service, both at the general offices in Washington and at the offices in the larger cities. In the expenditure of this one hundred and thirty million dollars a year, no little authority is exercised by men a large number of whom are comparatively obscure. Some of them have not been very long in the public service, and have obtained their positions through political or private influence; and their dominant motives are not always the public good.

Tendencies Pro and Con. Some of these men are in office to serve the interests of transportation companies, contractors, or other private business interests. Still others are trying to use the opportunity afforded by their public positions to make money in outside ventures. Not a few such men, even where free from direct criminality, have been guilty of the impropriety of devoting their energies to private speculations and business schemes for which their official posts afforded them some peculiar facilities or influence. The Post-Office Department has probably never at any time for two gen-

tions been free from abuses of this sort, and some of those more recently existing can, indeed, be directly traced back to earlier administrations. But undoubtedly a fresh and luxuriant crop of these abuses grew up with the period of governmental expansion that followed in the wake of the war with Spain. The attention of cabinet officers was diverted to the larger public problems, and subordinates were left with more than usual opportunity to control disbursements and deal with the details of administration. The situation is not one that calls for pessimistic treatment. Over against the extravagant tendencies of the day which lead officials to abuse their public trust and seek opportunities to make money at the public expense there must be recognized the hopeful fact that the country is more exacting and fastidious than ever before in its insistence upon honesty and fidelity in public places. There is a steadily increasing dislike of the idea that public offices should be used to pay anybody's political or private debts. Party service and personal "pull" are less and less recognized as avenues to places in the government service.

An Un-business-like Department. As regards the Post-Office Department in particular, the country perceives more clearly than ever before that this great business service ought to be completely and severely reorganized on a business basis. The public confidence in it is shockingly undermined. The Postmaster-General, who as a cabinet officer is one of the President's general advisers, is never in office long enough to become an expert in the administration of his department. Thus, the business as a whole never centers in the hands of any strong man who understands it. There are four assistant postmaster-generals, among whom the direction of the immense business of the department is divided up in an illogical and arbitrary way. This prevents concentration and makes for bad management. Enormous as is the business each assistant postmaster-general has to transact, he is seldom a man of whom the public at large has ever heard, and he seldom stays in his place long enough to know thoroughly his own quarter of the service, whereas it is not considered etiquette in the department for him to know anything about the other three-quarters. The American postal administration, which ought to be the best in the world,—because of the progress, wealth, and intelligence of our people and the large use they make of the mail facilities,—is falling behind that of almost all civilized countries, simply because the department lacks expert administration, and because

the great private transportation interests that absorb half the postal revenue are much more influential at Washington than is the public demand for a better service on a business basis.

Minor Reforms to Be Made. The distaste for small irregularities, such as petty frauds in the buying of supplies and the like, will rid the department of much that is now under investigation. The President has given instructions that all such wrongdoing shall be relentlessly exposed and punished. To give effect to this determination, he has appointed two prominent lawyers from outside the administration,—namely, Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte, of Baltimore, distinguished as a municipal and civil-service reformer, and Mr. Holmes Conrad, formerly solicitor-general under President Cleveland,—to aid the Government's law officers in the work of obtaining evidence, securing indictments, and prosecuting all persons criminally connected with the postal scandals and frauds. There will still remain for some future period,—it is too much to expect an early solution of the problem,—the business-like and scientific reorganization of the postal department, with a view to securing modern efficiency.

Congressmen "On the Make." The connection of members of Congress with public contracts is a more difficult matter to deal with than the improprieties of executive employees. There have been several recent exposures of grossly objectionable conduct on the part of members of Congress who have habitually used their positions to advance private business enterprises in which they are pecuniarily interested. When such misconduct takes certain forms it comes in conflict with the penal laws, and can be reached; but there are other forms, just as dishonorable, under which the laws can be evaded. The only thoroughgoing remedy lies in the general purification of politics and the enforcement by self-respecting members of Congress of the very strictest standards of honor. In certain of our State legislatures there is undoubtedly a prodigious amount of bribery and corruption. At Washington, according to the best-informed public opinion, there is comparatively little. Yet there are certain indirect ways by which private interests gain the ascendancy over men whose sworn duty is to serve the public. A former member of Congress from a Brooklyn district was indicted, late in June, on the charge of having taken money while in Congress for aiding a certain firm to secure a profitable contract to supply the Government with a certain class of articles. Another Congressman was under accusation, last



MR. CHARLES J. BONAPARTE.



MR. HOLMES CONRAD.

(Serving as special prosecutors for the Government in the post-office cases.)

month, of sharing regularly in the profits of certain army contracts, under circumstances even more culpable than those which relate to the alleged conduct of the former member against whom indictments were found.

Tammany Methods Again Illustrated. This particular instance, in which the accused Congressman is a member of the delegation from the State of New York, is quite on the order of typical New York City politics under a Tammany Hall régime. Last month, the New York newspapers were full of exposures of the methods by which politics and private business were combined in the management of the public-dock system along the New York City water-front by the Tammany officials who were recently in power, and who are eager to regain control of the city government in the election which occurs three months hence. The present dock board, under Mayor Low, is managing its business honestly and faithfully in the public interest. The Tammany administration is accused of having run it for the benefit of individuals or firms in the profits of which the officials themselves had a direct or indirect interest. The present administration, with the powerful assistance of the press, is probing these matters thoroughly and turning on the searchlights. The men most humiliated by the disclosures are the very ones now in control of Tammany Hall, and the ones who had confidently expected to fight a winning campaign against

the fusionists and reformers in November. The situation, last month, was that Mr. Jerome, as the proper law officer, was endeavoring to secure complete evidence upon which to indict the offenders, while they, in turn, were endeavoring to obstruct proceedings for a few weeks or a few days longer, in order to come within the protection of the statute of limitations.

Hopeful Signs for Reformers. The disclosures at least bid fair to make timely capital for the fusionists, and there is growing encouragement for the belief that Mr. Low will be elected mayor again, and that New York will enjoy the benefit of another period of clean and efficient municipal government under his direction. Thus, in spite of those conditions in American life which tend to give a mercenary and commercial tone to politics, and to subordinate the public service to private ends, there is to be found a steadily strengthening sentiment for political reform, and for business-like and efficient administration. In the national government, President Roosevelt's previous experience and his well-known point of view give him a conspicuous fitness for the task of purifying and toning up the great executive machine. An especial devotion to this kind of work on his part can but have a favorable influence upon State and municipal administration throughout the Union, as well as upon the departments of the federal government.

The Mob Spirit, — A Delaware Instance. Another painful tendency in American life that has been under searching discussion during the present summer is the seeming growth of the spirit of lawlessness and mob violence. A shocking instance occurred in the State of Delaware in June. On the 15th of that month a negro assaulted a young girl of seventeen walking on a country road in the vicinity of Wilmington, and she died the next day as the result of her injuries. A negro laborer was arrested on suspicion, and it is probable that he was the guilty man. The fact that a confession was extorted from him has little bearing one way or another. Since the murdered girl never recovered consciousness, there was no opportunity to identify him. The negro would undoubtedly, however, have been convicted on his confession, together with the circumstantial evidence which had led to his arrest. A great effort was made to have the Delaware judiciary take up the case promptly and give an example of summary justice. The judges declined, however, to have the man brought to trial until the autumn,—a delay of several months. Meanwhile, the feeling of horror and indignation had grown so intense in Wilmington that a movement in favor of lynching the negro acquired almost irresistible force. In spite of some resistance at the Wilmington workhouse, a mob

took the prisoner a week after the murder had been committed, burned him at the stake on the scene of his crime, and riddled him with bullets.

A Supine State.

Nothing could have been more public than the action of the mob; yet only one arrest was made, and this alleged rioter was released under bail at the instance of a mob twice as large as the one which had lynched the negro. It is not thought likely that there will be any attempt whatever made to punish anybody concerned in the rioting and the lynching. This Delaware incident seemed to stir up intense race feeling in many towns and in various parts of the country, and it was followed by many mob disturbances more or less serious, as well as by a number of actual lynchings, and a still greater number of threatened or attempted actions of the kind. In the Wilmington case, the mob spirit had been growing for a full week before the successful attack upon the prison. Delaware is a small State; the militia can in a few hours be moved from any part of it to any given point, and it would seem as if the exercise of ordinary vigor in the interest of public peace by those charged with the keeping of order might readily have prevented this fresh disgrace upon the name of a State which had already suffered great loss of reputation through its recent political history.

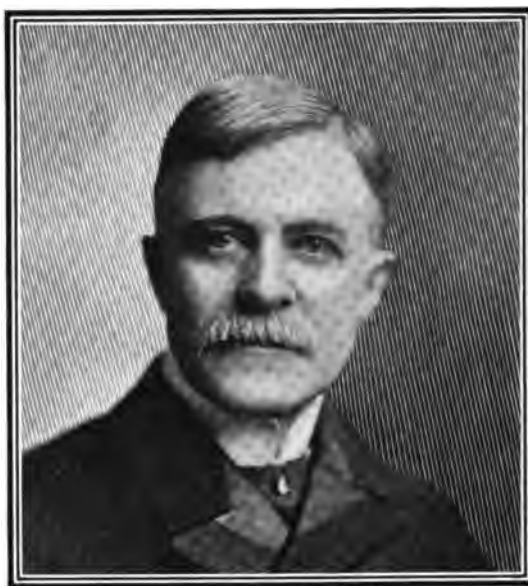


KENTUCKY TO DELAWARE: "You do me proud, sah!"
From the *Evening Telegraph* (Philadelphia).

An Indiana Instance.

A better and more wholesome example has since been set by the State of Indiana. While resisting arrest, on July 3, at Evansville,—a city on the Ohio River, second in size only to Indianapolis among the cities of Indiana,—a negro had killed a policeman. On the following day, there was serious talk of lynching, but the judge having proper authority took steps for the immediate assembling of the grand jury to act in the case, with a view to a prompt dispensation of justice. This seemed to appease the mob; but subsequently a new crowd gathered at the jail, and the sheriff secretly removed the prisoner and sent him to the city of Vincennes for safety. Upon evidence to this effect, the mob left the jail, broke into stores to obtain arms and ammunition, and then carried terror and devastation into the negro portion of the town. On the 6th, the mob returned to an attack upon the jail, in order to take out of it the negroes, some sixteen in number, who were confined for various offenses, mostly of a minor nature. The jail was defended by local militia and a large force of deputies. The actions of the mob compelled the soldiers to fire in self-defense, and in consequence six or seven people were killed, and

twenty-five or thirty were wounded. Governor Durbin ordered a number of companies of militia to reinforce the defenders of the Evansville jail, and order was restored within a few days. A number of rioters were promptly indicted; but the more effective lesson was that which was administered by the men under arms who were defending law and order. The local judge, before the rioting was completely suppressed, had undertaken to bring the negro murderer back to Evansville for trial. Governor Durbin interfered, however, on the plea that the man was seriously—perhaps fatally—wounded, and that “No grounds should be given for the suspicion that even a guilty man has been railroaded to the gallows to satisfy public sentiment, or that the civil authorities have been influenced to the determination of their course by the demonstrations of the lawless.” The governor has made rioters in Indiana understand that henceforth there is to be no toleration of their conduct, and that they are to be dealt with in the most summary way whenever they undertake to defy the law.



GOVERNOR DURBIN, OF INDIANA.

The Prevalence of Lynching. In various parts of the country, the mob spirit manifested itself in the months of June and July with exceptional frequency, boldness, and barbarity of method. In the South, some years ago, lynching was defended upon the ground that it was practically never resorted to except in the case of the most atrocious assaults upon women. But of late the resort to mob violence has not discriminated carefully as to the nature of the offense to be punished. Human life has been taken by mobs of bloodthirsty murderers for very trivial causes. The lynching spirit spreads as a sort of mania, afflicting chiefly the ignorant and naturally disorderly elements of society. The spirit of race antagonism affords an excuse for these lynching mobs, but is not a fundamental cause. The negroes, as the weaker and more ignorant race, furnish a disproportionate percentage of criminals of a low order of intelligence, and therefore are disproportionately victimized by the rough elements which make up mobs. The tedious methods of lawyers and courts of justice are undoubtedly responsible in part for the existence of this lawless spirit. At least they afford a pretext, now and then, for mob executions, which, in turn, help to keep alive the lynching spirit.

Stern Force as a Remedy. Apart from those moral remedies which it is the business of the Church and organized society to employ in every possible manner for this as well as for all

other ills of our imperfect social life, there are several remedies of a more specific sort to be applied, some of them of immediate virtue,—others slower in their working. The most necessary and effective of the immediate remedies is the swift application of force. The average mob flourishes in the presence of weak and timid officials. It does not like to face men who will use rifles and who would, if necessary, use Gatling guns. With all its faults in certain directions, the police system of New York City can be relied upon to keep order, because it would never for a moment parley with a mob. With thousands of riotously inclined Italian subway strikers, with several incipient riots in the negro quarters of New York, and with certain other peace-threatening conditions, the metropolitan police force has had a series of delicate and difficult tasks during the past two or three months. But it has shown a characteristic combination of promptness, firmness, tact, and patience, and has maintained order triumphantly in every instance. There are several governors of Southern States who are endeavoring to infuse in the sheriffs and the local authorities this same spirit of promptness and vigilance, so that attempts at the exercise of mob law may be resisted and thwarted in their very incipency. The subsequent attempt to indict and punish members of a mob which has been successful in its object, while always a proper proceeding, and sometimes a useful one, is seldom successful to any extent. Mobs should be seasonably prevented, and, if necessary, dispersed by force.

It is very seldom that they can be punished afterward by lawyers and judges.

*Education
the Chief
Remedy.*

The fundamental remedy, both for the mobs, on the one hand, and for the offenses which provoke the mobs, on the other, is to be found in a better and more thorough education. The negro offenders upon whom the violence of mobs is visited come, as a rule, from the most ignorant and degraded class. It is not true, as is often asserted, that the criminal class of negroes is largely recruited from the better-instructed half of the race. It is the ignorant class, white and black, that chiefly supplies the violent criminal element; and it is the ignorant class, white and black, that is most easily incited to mob violence. The right kind of education will train the children of the more unfortunate classes of our population, not merely in such arts as reading and writing, but also in sound ideas about work and citizenship. Fortunately, although the actual number of lynchings for some weeks past has been greater than the average, the general trend of our civilization is toward a more lawful and orderly life. Thus, the statistics of lynching for a period of twenty years show that there has been an average decline, and that last year's record was the best of all in point of the actual number of lynchings. In 1893, there were 200 reported in the United States, and in 1894 there were 190. The decline has not been regular, since 135 were reported for 1901, as against 107 in 1899; but the number for 1902 dropped to 96. The first five months of the present year promised an even more favorable record. It may still turn out that 1903 will not show more than 100 actual lynchings. But the disposition to invoke the mob spirit upon slight provocation has shown itself with unusual recklessness this summer, and it must be sternly suppressed. In New York, a few weeks ago, a negro criminal shot and killed the agent of an organization which had been instrumental in procuring his arrest. There might readily have been started an anti-negro race riot or a lynching movement; but the evidence in the case was clear, and the district attorney procured an almost instant indictment of the murderer. Trial and conviction followed a few days later. It is a useful thing, in cases of this kind, to show that the machinery of justice can move quickly without any sacrifice of the rights of the individual. There is no such delay in the ordinary administration of justice in any other country as in our own. This is largely the fault of a system which the lawyers as a professional guild have developed, and which the judges as members of that guild do not seem

able to remedy, from the very limitations of their professional training. Among remedies to be sought must therefore be included a scientific improvement of the machinery of justice.

*The Negro as
a Seasonable
Topic.*

For a great many years past, there has perhaps never been a month in which the social, industrial, and political problems growing out of the presence of the negro race in this country have been so much discussed in print and on the platform as they were last month. The discussion as a whole can do no harm, while most of the things said have served no other purpose than to relieve the mind of the speaker or writer. Mr. Booker T. Washington continues to say the things that are wisest and best on the race problem as a whole. He has made a number of valuable speeches during the past few months, largely to the negroes themselves. There have been many incidental reasons why the negro question should have assumed an exceptional prominence. First, there has been the excitement about the so-called peonage cases. Facts have come to light which show that in a good many parts of the South, particularly in counties remote from populous centers, there has grown up a very objectionable and wicked system of forced labor under pretense of farming out the services of misdemeanants or penal offenders. Many cases have been brought to light which amount, in effect, to nothing else but the kidnaping of negro laborers. These, of course, are always extremely low in the scale of intelligence, and are likely to be without homes, friends, or influence, and to have committed some sort of offense against the law. The victims are made to believe that they have been arrested again and found guilty of some new offense and condemned to six months or a year of servitude.

*"Peonage"
as Now
Exposed.*

Frequently, the men thus victimized are those who have just served out a term in the chain gang for some actual offense, and who are rearrested on a trumped-up charge, put through the form of a trial, sentenced again, and then sold for the period of the sentence to a farmer or planter who works a gang of such peons, so-called, under armed guards. Such a wrong as this could not, of course, have existed anywhere in the South except under obscure circumstances such as obtain in portions of a country chiefly rural and more or less cut off from the main lines of communication. In Alabama, a number of instances have been brought to light, and Judge Jones of the federal bench has been par-



JUDGE JONES, OF ALABAMA.



JUDGE SPEER, OF GEORGIA.

(These judges have been prominent in the punishment of the "peonage" offenders.)

ticularly concerned in the endeavor to punish this new form of crime. In certain cases before him last month there was disagreement of the jury, although the judge charged that the evidence was perfectly clear, and that the men under indictment were guilty even by their own admissions. But although juries may not like to convict men for past offenses of this kind, there will be a very effectual end to new cases, through the awakening of Southern public opinion to the existence of a thing about which nothing had been generally known. Thus, the Georgia Legislature last month decided to investigate charges of this nature, and the press of the South will aid in breaking up the system. Meanwhile, the United States authorities everywhere throughout the South are instructed to be vigilant to enforce the laws against involuntary servitude, under the constitutional amendment abolishing slavery. The details in a number of cases brought out in the trials at Montgomery and elsewhere have been very painful. The Southern penal system in general is in dire need of reform. The National Conference of Charities and Correction met some weeks ago at Atlanta, Ga., under the presidency of Mr. Robert W. De Forest, of New York, and the subject of Southern prison camps and the methods of exploiting prison labor were frankly discussed. The evils have to be understood before they can be reformed. The Southern penal system has doubtless seen its worst phases and will be steadily improved henceforth.

*Not a Race
Question.*

In parts of Mexico, it is notoriously true that able-bodied men, held for offenses of one sort or another, often on false or frivolous charges, are detained in order that their labor may be profitably exploited on plantations or otherwise by those having local influence or authority. But this is not, in Mexico, a race question, by any means. It is merely a phase of misgovernment and abuse of power in remote provinces where the poor and ignorant are at the mercy of the strong. The so-called peonage system that has sprung up to some extent in parts of our Southern States is in like manner not to be regarded as fundamentally a matter of races. The victims of it are negroes, it is true, but only because of obvious historical facts which have placed the negroes in the South temporarily in a position to furnish such victims. There are in the North unscrupulous people always ready to victimize ignorant immigrants who do not know our language or the ways of the country. Peonage, in short, as exposed within the past few weeks, is merely a phase of the universal disposition of the strong, greedy, and unscrupulous to prey upon the weak, the ignorant, and the helpless. There are newspapers in the North conducted by men of intelligence which have had the shamelessness to assert that these sporadic and scattered abuses in connection with the exploitation of the labor of vagrants or convicts were the beginning of a systematic and deliberate attempt on the part of Southern white people to subject the black race

to slavery in a new form. It is a mere waste of effort to deny such ridiculous assertions.

*Our Highly
Progressive
Negroes.*

There have been a good many exhibitions of race friction of late, and these will doubtless occur from time to time in the future. Human nature will have to improve a good deal before they are totally done away with. But race conditions in the South are growing better rather than worse, and those who deny this statement are not able to see things in their true perspective. While a large proportion of the negroes in the United States are doubtless descended from people brought from Africa as slaves prior to the legal abolition of the slave trade, early in the nineteenth century, it is true, nevertheless, that the slave trade flourished on a large scale up to the very eve of the Civil War, and that we have thousands, possibly millions, of black people here whose grandparents, or at least their great-grandparents, were born as savages in the wilds of Africa. Slavery in the United States had its hard side for these people considered as a race, but it also had its great advantages as a disciplinary period. It made possible for them a life of freedom under civilized conditions. The future historian will see clearly that while African slavery in the United States was gravely detrimental to the welfare of the white race, it was, upon the whole, very advantageous to the negroes. They have been making progress since their emancipation of which they have reason to be proud, and the outlook for them is an exceedingly bright and hopeful one. When all history-making factors of the situation are taken into account, they are to be congratulated on a present position and a future prospect almost unequaled in the history of any people, ancient or modern. For, the condition of the negroes in the South is to be judged by what it was and what it might have been; and comparisons are to be made with the conditions and progress of negro peoples elsewhere.

*Politics
and Race.*

The political status of the negro in the South has been discussed, of late, by many people in the North in such a way as at least to convey a very false impression of the facts. In practical effect, negro disfranchisement was brought about in the South more than a quarter of a century ago by President Hayes, when he withdrew the federal troops. The recent changes in the State constitutions of the South have narrowed the franchise to those possessed of educational or property qualifications. On the face of these new arrangements, no negro is excluded from the ballot who is fit to vote. As to these legal

facts and conditions, there is no reason why the Northern newspapers should not be willing, henceforth, to tell the simple truth. The laws of Massachusetts also exclude the illiterate negro from the ballot. It is too soon, as yet, to make any broad statements as to the administration of these new Southern laws. We have heard of a number of cases where negroes apparently well qualified have not been allowed to register or vote, through an unfair application of the law in their cases. The great fact is that, theoretically, every negro in the South is perfectly entitled to vote and to hold office. He is merely asked to comply with certain reasonable conditions. This is *not* race disfranchisement.

*The Negro's
Splendid
Opportunities.*

The political future of the negro will depend almost entirely upon the way in which he makes use of his present educational and industrial opportunities. There is at the present time not a negro in the United States for whom there is not a chance to work at good wages. No race in the world has better industrial opportunities. There is no restriction upon the holding of property, and in the Southern States farm lands are exceedingly cheap. It will be a long time before the educational system will be as good as it ought to be. Nevertheless, there are schools for negroes everywhere in the South, and there are many colleges and institutes for their more advanced training, some of which are deservedly famous. We defy anybody to point out in all history anything fairly parallel to the provisions made in the thirty years following the Civil War by private generosity and public effort to give the Southern negroes the opportunities of education. If it be true that these opportunities are to-day far short of what they ought to be, it remains a fact, nevertheless, that no such effort was ever made before in all human history to educate a people. The South is fairly dotted with negro colleges and universities standing as evidences of the disposition of the American people to lift the negro up. In short, America is the paradise of the negro race; it has wonderful advantages and opportunities, and, comparatively speaking, very few disadvantages. No such incentives have been placed before the emancipated white serfs of Russia to better their lot as have been placed before the emancipated black slaves of the United States. More consideration, upon the whole, has been shown to the negro black agricultural laborers of the South than has ever been shown in England toward the great body of agricultural laborers, or in European countries toward the poorer classes of peasants. These facts do not make it any the less impera-

tive that evils should be remedied and that wrongs should be righted wherever found. They are merely adduced in order that certain current matters may be seen in a true perspective. The very intensity of the discussion of the negro question, last month, was of itself an evidence of negro progress. Half a dozen or more important negro conventions and conferences have been held within a very few weeks, in which hundreds of intelligent, educated, and eloquent negroes have discussed every phase of almost every possible subject related to the interests of the black race. This ferment is of itself a sign of advancement. It is much to have free speech and a free press. It is more to use them.

*A Minimum
of Race
Friction.*

In view of the sharp contrasts that exist, and the amount of ignorance, drunkenness, and vice among the ignorant of both races in this country, the only wonder is that race strife and conflict are not greater. This wonder grows when one considers our total lack of a rural police system, our freedom from military methods of government, and the unrestricted freedom that exists everywhere to come and go, to assemble, and to discuss all things on the platform and in the press, and the prevailing habit of carrying weapons. It is not fear of law and authority that prevents race outbreaks, but rather an essential good feeling all around on the part of almost everybody in both races. Just now the Georgia Legislature, with practical unanimity, refuses to discriminate against the negroes by a suggested division of the school fund. Earlier in the present year, the North Carolina Legislature refused even to entertain such a proposal. It does not follow that in the final distribution of the school fund in remote counties there is not again and again, to some extent, a discrimination against the negroes. But in a general way the public attitude is one of fairness, and is against persecution and injustice. Lynchings are neither sectional nor racial manifestations, although more negroes are lynched than white men. Peonage appears to be racial as it exhibits itself in practice; but it is not racial in motive or in fundamental character, any more than is the practice of lynching.

*The
Impulse to
Colonize.*

It is natural enough that many of the intelligent negroes should begin to wish for a country of their own. This feeling is not wholly unlike the sentiment that moves the so-called Zionists among the Hebrews. The fact of color makes the negro in America a distinct people. On the other hand, customs and matters of religious faith and observance, and a certain immemorial racial ex-

clusiveness, have made the Jews also, wherever dispersed, a more or less distinct and separate element. The Zionists feel that the highest and best future of their brilliant race requires—not that all should come together in a country exclusively Jewish—but that there should at least be such a country for a part of the race. And they regard Palestine as the desirable land, chiefly from historical considerations. Many intelligent negroes would like to see a large migration to the republic of Liberia, in Africa. While for many generations to come a large negro element is destined to remain in this country, it would seem both appropriate and desirable that many American negroes should go back to Africa; and they would have a great advantage in being able to go, at the outset, to a republic of their own, with a government modeled upon that of the United States, where, also, the English language is already in vogue. To assume that the African race has no large and useful future in the world is to exhibit stupidity. It is agreed on all hands that the center of its future activities must be in Africa.

*"Africa
for the
Africans!"*

Since the American negroes are the most advanced in the world, they will naturally want to take a leading part in the future development of the African continent. There is just now on foot among leading negroes in the South an enthusiastic and energetic movement to promote emigration to Liberia. The authorities in British South Africa are also observing with interest the progress of negroes in America, and are expecting advice and help from them in promoting the advancement of the negro tribes that now come under their jurisdiction. There is also to be a great field of operations for negro talent and energy in the Sudan, much of which has now come under British control; and we shall probably see a good many American negroes going there in the course of the next twenty-five years. We shall find them growing cotton and other crops on a large scale in Africa before the middle of the present century.

*America and
the Russian
Jews.*

The Jewish community in the United States has become so strong and influential that it can make itself heard and felt when it chooses. But the strong feeling in the United States aroused by the Kishineff massacres and the bad treatment of the Jews in Russia was not confined to the people of Jewish faith, and there was a widespread desire that the government of this country should associate itself with public sentiment in some sort of expression to the government of Russia. The

Jewish committee secured many thousands of influential signatures to a respectful petition addressed to the Czar calling attention to the harsh treatment of the Jews in Russia, and asking for a redress of grievances. President Roosevelt

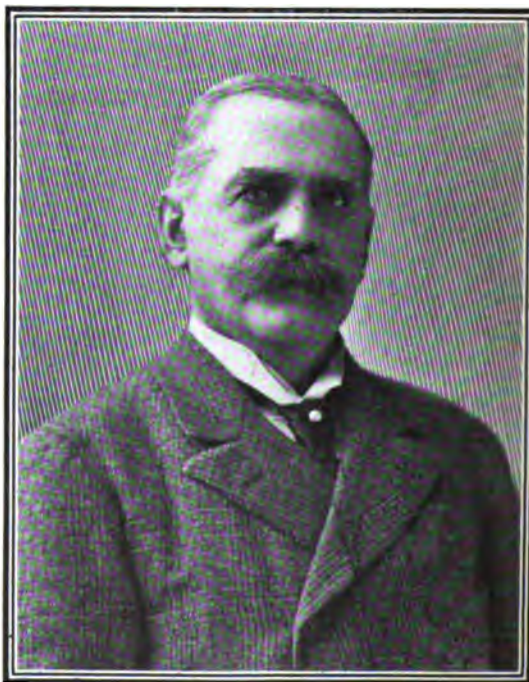


LEO N. LEVI, PRESIDENT OF THE B'NAI B'RITH.
(Who had charge of the Kishineff petition.)

and the State Department decided, last month, to recognize this movement by receiving the petition and communicating about it with the Russian Government. Having decided to concern themselves in this matter, there remained three ways for our authorities to proceed: first, it was possible to forward the petition as signed to our embassy at St. Petersburg, with instructions to present it to the Russian Government if possible; another way was to communicate with the Russian embassy at Washington; the third way was to inform our own representative at St. Petersburg of the exact character of the petition, with instructions to ascertain directly whether or not it would be received if forwarded. The last of these courses was the one decided upon by President Roosevelt, last month, after consultation with the Jewish committee. It was the most effective way to proceed, because in any case it led to the embodiment in a formal communication by our government to the Russian Government of the statements and representations of the petition itself. The Russian Government was thus communicated with in the middle of July. As was expected, our inquiry was met with a polite refusal to receive the petition. Neither government had been guilty of the slightest discourtesy toward the other, and yet the government of the United States had

succeeded in making a great moral impression throughout the world by the manner in which it had recognized the sentiment of the country and the dictates of our common humanity. The reports from Russia are to the effect that the government is seriously prosecuting the leaders in the Kishineff riots.

Our "Open Door" Diplomacy Successful. There was a time, earlier in July, when it was feared that affairs were tending toward some rather serious disagreements between the United States and Russia. The most serious of these had to do with our demand for the restoration of our trading rights in the Chinese tributary province of Manchuria, now and for some time past under Russian occupation. Our government, in the process of negotiating a new commercial treaty with China, had met with obstructions and delays as respected agreement about the opening of Manchurian ports. From various sources of information, it had been compelled to attribute this condition to Russian influences. While, indeed, very much might have been said in explanation of the reasons why Russia desired to adjust her own relations with China before allowing China to throw open certain specified Manchurian ports, our government none the less felt itself justified in demanding the completion of its Chinese treaty, and the prompt concession of due



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COUNT CASSINI, RUSSIAN AMBASSADOR AT WASHINGTON.

opportunity for American trade in Manchuria. Coincident with the closing of the so-called Kishineff incident by the expected information that Russia "would not receive any petitions or representations from any power relative to her internal affairs" came the welcome information, promulgated on July 17, that China would order the opening of the two ports of Mukden and Ta Tung Kao to the commerce of the world, and that Russia would in no way oppose such action. According to agreements, Russia's evacuation of Manchuria is to be completed in September. Our government has in the most formal way assured Russia that we recognize her exceptional interest in Manchuria, and that we are concerning ourselves only to secure for American trade the rights which had been assured to us, and which we were not willing to forego. Russia's recent assurance to the State Department at Washington through her ambassador, Count Cassini, that no Russian interference or influence should prevent the completion of our negotiations with China, was used to good effect by Mr. Conger and our treaty commissioners at Peking.

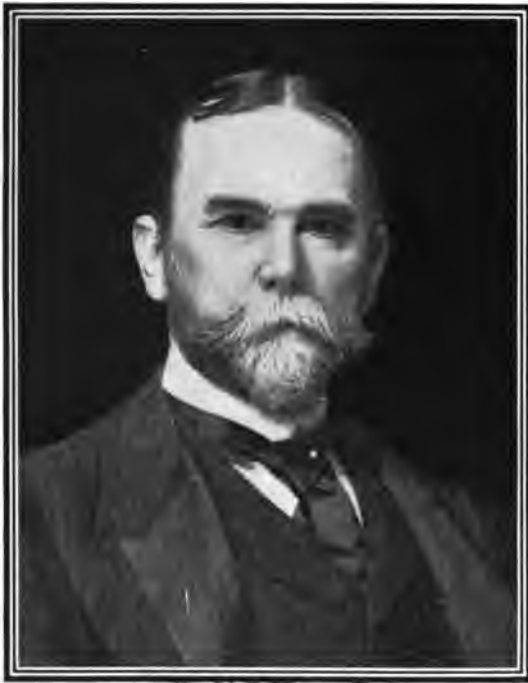
The Czar to Name Arbitrators. Count Cassini, the Russian ambassador at Washington, had sailed for Russia on a vacation earlier in July, leaving Mr. Theodore Hansen of the embassy in charge of Russian affairs. Before he departed, our government had joined with Venezuela in requesting that the Czar should name the members of the Hague tribunal to decide the questions soon to be taken up there as to the pretensions of the blockading powers to preferred treatment in the payment of claims. The case of the United States and certain other governments similarly situated is to be argued before this tribunal by Mr. Wayne MacVeagh. This request has been alluded to by the American press as an incidental mark of confidence in the Czar, and of the desire of this country to main-



HON. WAYNE MACVEAGH, WHO WILL REPRESENT US IN THE VENEZUELA ARBITRATION.

tain the old-time friendly relations with Russia. With the Kishineff matter disposed of, so far as our diplomacy is concerned, and with the Manchurian question out of the way, there remains no cause whatever for misunderstanding between Russia and the United States.

The Rivalries of the Far East. The past month has witnessed a most intense feeling against Russia in Japan, and there were constant rumors that war was imminent. It is always to be observed, however, that war does not follow notice of that sort. Later in the month, indeed, there came reports of a very much improved understanding between the Russian and Japanese governments over Korean and Manchurian questions. Nothing could have been further out of the range of probabilities than that the United States should have been drawn, as an ally of Japan and England, into a war against Russia.



HON. JOHN HAY, SECRETARY OF STATE.

At the very moment, indeed, when there was most talk in the newspapers of an early outbreak of hostilities between Japan and Russia, England was entertaining the President of the French Republic with the utmost friendliness, and even with enthusiasm. All sorts of neighborly things were being said, and everything possible was being done to make good feeling between the two great nations of western Europe. Under these circumstances, it is impossible to imagine that France would have joined Russia in a war upon Japan, in view of the well-known fact that England is pledged, by the recent treaty of alliance, to take Japan's part in such a case. As for this country, we have only the remotest possible concern with the political future of Manchuria and Korea. Such interest as we have grows out of the well-founded belief that our trade would have easier access if there were no annexation of territory by ambitious commercial powers. On the other hand, the growth of our Oriental trade depends, after all, much more upon the actual development of the resources of the people who inhabit Korea, Manchuria, Mongolia, and China proper than upon the mere question whether rates of duty are higher or lower. With Manchuria prosperous and rapidly developing, we would be able to do more business under a high tariff than we should do under a low tariff, or under free trade, if the country were impoverished.

*The Alaska
Boundary to
Be Confirmed*

An American question in which Russia has a certain amount of reminiscent and historical interest is soon to be taken up at London. The people who made the Alaska boundary treaty more than three-quarters of a century ago had no doubt at all as to what they meant. Russia held the coast and Great Britain held the interior. Both countries showed by their maps at the time, and long afterward, just how they construed the treaty and in what way the line was to be drawn. This was the state of affairs when Russia sold Alaska to the United States. It is only a few years since Great Britain, incited by the Canadians, began to assert a wholly different kind of interpretation of the treaty, and to lay claim to a strip of territory that had been in undisputed possession of the Russians, and subsequently of the Americans, for many decades. The consent of the United States to allow this question to be opened at all is, so far as we are aware, without precedent in history. Counsel for the opposing sides have prepared their cases, and the matter is to be submitted to six commissioners, three appointed by each government, who are to sit in London in a few weeks.

*A Prompt
Solution
Certain.*

The three American commissioners are Secretary Root, Senator Lodge, and Mr. Turner, formerly Senator from the State of Washington. The burden of proof, of course, must rest wholly upon those who contend that the men who made the Anglo-Russian treaty did not know the meaning of their own agreement. Unless one or more of the American commissioners should be convinced by some new disclosures of fact and argument,—the nature of which has not as yet been intimated to the world,—the treaty of 1825 will continue to be interpreted as it always has been understood up to the present time, and the boundary line will be surveyed and marked by monuments without any further delay. This method of dealing with the question has at least taken it out of diplomacy and put it in the way of speedy settlement. It is positively asserted on the highest authority that unless the Canadian claims are admitted by a majority of the present commissioners, they will have no further consideration on the part of the United States. In other words, if there should be a division and a disagreement of the commissioners, three to three, the United States would regard the case of the Canadian plaintiff as having failed and the question as being forever closed. President Roosevelt has never had the slightest thought of a further recourse to arbitration in this matter.

*A Clean
Diplomatic
Docket.*

It is taken for granted, however, that a majority of the commissioners will decide that any new interpretation of the treaty of 1825 is now inadmissible. Thus, with the Chinese and Manchurian questions apparently settled, with the Alaska boundary referred to commissioners for final action, with the final phases of the Venezuelan matter also approaching settlement through arbitration at The Hague, with the Cuban reciprocity treaty ratified by the Senate and merely awaiting approval by Congress on account of its fiscal character, and with the Panama Canal treaty indefinitely under discussion in the Colombian Congress at Bogota, our State Department has its docket remarkably clear, and is unquestionably entitled to a vacation. The news from Bogota is conflicting, but the most responsible advices seem to indicate that the treaty will eventually be ratified exactly as it stands.

*Cordial
Relations
with Europe.*

Meanwhile, our good relations with Germany were further both illustrated and strengthened by the heartiness of the reception given to an American squadron under Admiral Cotton during the days of the regatta at Kiel, at the end of June. Nothing could have surpassed the frank and genial hospitality of the Kaiser and his people at that time; and the full reports contained in all the American newspapers, from day to day, show that the people of this country were pleasantly interested. In similar manner, a week or two later, King Edward and the people of England showered kindly attention upon the officers



REAR-ADMIRAL C. S. COTTON, U.S.N.

and men of Admiral Cotton's squadron when it spent a week at Portsmouth. Our relations, in short, with the great powers of Europe were never so cordial as at present.

*Barrett for
Buenos Ayres.*

In spite of rumors, no announcement has been made of any important changes in the personnel of our diplomatic representation in European countries. We are to be represented in the Argentine Republic, however, by Mr. John Barrett, who was

a member of the American delegation at the Pan-American Congress in the city of Mexico, and who had previously gained distinction as United States minister to Siam. Mr. Barrett has lately fulfilled an important mission for the St. Louis Exposition by visiting Oriental countries to secure their suitable representation. He was selected for the Japanese mission some months ago by President Roosevelt, but declined, for reasons variously stated in the newspapers. Mr. Barrett's training eminently qualifies him for serving American interests where there is real work to be done; and the only two fields of foreign service which could at this



From Black and White, London.

Machias.

Kearsarge.

Chicago.

San Francisco.

THE AMERICAN SQUADRON IN EUROPEAN WATERS.



HON. JOHN BARRETT.

time well interest a man of his temperament and energy are the Orient and South America. Mr. Barrett will go to Buenos Ayres at a peculiarly interesting period in the development of the diplomatic relations and commercial affairs of the South American republics, and he will doubtless have high hopes of being able to do something to bring the United States into closer accord and more advantageous connections with the Argentine as well as with the neighboring republics. The Argentine, by the way, is about to be connected with Chile by the completion of a railway across the Andes. This, with the Panama Canal, will profoundly change conditions.

Army Changes. The growth of the work of the War Department has made the office of Assistant Secretary of War one of much importance. Col. William Cary Sanger, of New York, who has filled the office with rare ability, has retired after a service of more than two years on account of illness in his family, and there has been appointed in his place Gen. Robert S. Oliver, of Albany, N. Y., who served in the Civil War, was afterward for a time in the regular army, and has for more than twenty years been identified with the National Guard organization of the State of New York. The present month will witness some sweeping

changes, both in the personnel and in the organization of the United States army. The new law creating the general staff goes into effect August 15. A week before that, Lieutenant-General Miles will have retired. It was also announced last month that thirty-three colonels who had seen service in the Civil War would be promoted to the rank of brigadier-general and immediately placed upon the retired list. Including this large group of new brigadiers, we shall have one hundred and fifty living generals on the retired list,—more than a hundred of whom will have been transferred from active service within the past five years. Within the same period, a great many officers of equal standing and merit have been retired as colonels,—without having had the honor and pecuniary advantage of serving as brigadiers for one day in order to be retired from the higher grade. From this time forth, our army will be chiefly made up of younger material that has come into the service since the Civil War.

General Miles Retires.

General Miles, who has held the rank of lieutenant-general commanding the army for the past three years, and who retires on his birthday, August 8, having reached the age limit—sixty-four—entered the army as a volunteer in 1861, and at twenty-five was a major-general of volunteers commanding



LIEUT.-GEN. NELSON A. MILES.

an army corps. At the close of the Civil War, he entered the regular army and rose to be a major-general, succeeding to the command of the army in 1895. He is in full vigor, a fact which he illustrated last month by riding on horseback ninety miles in nine hours and ten minutes. Maj.-Gen. George W. Davis reached the retiring age on July 26, being nearly two weeks older than General Miles. Since last autumn, General Davis has been in command of the Division of the Philippines. Having reached the age limit last month, he was succeeded in that command by Gen. James F. Wade, who had been in command of the Department of Luzon, and who had become a major-general last April, upon the retirement of Maj.-Gen. Robert P. Hughes. To fill the vacancy in the higher rank caused by General Davis' retirement, Brig.-Gen. Samuel Storrow Sumner is now named by President Roosevelt for promotion to the rank of major-general. Sumner's promotion leaves one vacancy in the list of brigadiers, and it is through this vacancy that the thirty-three colonels to whom we have already alluded are to be "railroaded" to the retired list. Then will come the thirty-fourth man, who has been selected to hold the place permanently. He proves to be Col. C. C. Carr, of the Fourth Cavalry.



GEN. SAMUEL B. M. YOUNG, NEW HEAD OF ARMY.



GEN. LEONARD WOOD.

In army circles, the greatest interest was centered upon the question which one of the fifteen brigadiers would be advanced to the vacancy in the list of six major-generals that would be occasioned by the promotion of Maj.-Gen. S. B. M. Young to succeed Miles as lieutenant-general, chief of staff, and head of the army. As announced on July 17, the President's choice fell upon Gen. Leonard Wood, recently Governor of Cuba, and now in the Philippines. General Young is to retire from the active army next January, and it is well understood that General Chaffee is to take his place at the head of the army. He, in turn, will retire in about two years, and there has been much newspaper speculation over the possibility that General Wood might, after that, at a comparatively early age, come to be lieutenant-general and chief of staff, and remain many years, to the exclusion of a number of older men. It is true that when President McKinley made Wood a brigadier he advanced him over the heads of a number of veteran colonels of West Point training and long army service. But since Sumner was the only brigadier ahead of him in date of appointment, his present advancement to be a major-general follows the custom of seniority promotion in time of peace. There is, however, nothing binding about this custom of seniority promotion, and the President is not

Young and Wood Promoted.

obliged to consider anything but the good of the army and of the country in filling vacancies. These matters of army promotion are heart-burning questions for men in the military profession, and for their friends. The purposes and methods of the new general staff will be better understood by the country after it has been at work for a while and has established its rules. It seems to be understood that the lieutenant-general will usually fill the post of chief of staff, and that in this capacity he will mediate between the President and the War Department on the one hand and the military organization on the other. This is expected to make for unity.

Naval Organization and Growth. The naval authorities are also now considering plans for a general staff and a better system of administration. But in this case, as in that of the army, the subject is extremely technical, and proposals made thus far would seem to provide for a cumbersome, top-heavy organization at Washington. We have now at Washington a general naval board, a bureau of construction, a bureau of navigation, and various other naval boards and bureaus. Since appointments to these naval posts in Washington have been for only four years, the situation has been comparatively free from the glaring faults and defects that have marked the fossilized supply bureaus and staff positions of the army. Our navy is growing fast, and it is imperative that it should deserve and keep the public confidence. It is unfortunate, therefore, that the public should have been made to feel in these past weeks that—with all the money we are spending for new ships—ours is the only naval management in the world that has no clean-cut building programme and is not sure of the kind of ships it wants. When the experts in our naval construction board do not agree, the Congressional amateurs can hardly be blamed for their naval blunders. Thus, Admirals Melville and Bradford of the construction board demand that the new 1,300-ton battle-ships *Idaho* and *Mississippi* should have relatively high speed and large coal-carrying capacity. Admirals O'Neill and Bowles of the same board, on the other hand, stand out for giving relatively greater importance to weight of armor and armament. The discussion of the question leaves upon the mind of the plain citizen the rather unhappy impression that modern naval construction is a wholly experimental affair. Doubtless, we must go forward with our policy of naval upbuilding. Such a policy on our part makes for peace and security, and for the expansion of our commercial interests. Thus, the statistics last month showed a steady increase

of our Hawaiian and Philippine trade; and the presence of a powerful American squadron in Chinese waters under the command of Admiral Evans unquestionably had its full share of influence in helping Secretary Hay to gain an important point in his polite but firm diplomacy touching the opening of Manchurian ports to American commerce. The existence of a growing and effective American navy was a most important factor in the chain of events that caused the abandonment by Germany and England of their coercive expedition to Venezuela and led to the fortunate outcome of an arbitration of the matters in dispute. The friendliness for the United States expressed by England and Germany within the past few weeks, on occasion of the visits of our European squadron at Kiel and Portsmouth, was all the more cordial and reassuring in its tone because of the increased respect those strong powers have felt for the United States since our navy showed its qualities at Manila and Santiago, and since we have gone straight on building ships of which the *Kearsarge*,—inspected with so much interest by Emperor William and by German and English naval officers,—is a good example. With the Panama Canal in prospect, and the immense growth of our world trade and our external responsibilities, the further increase of the navy must be regarded as a sound investment. But we must also bear in mind that the country, which pays the naval bills, expects the highest quality of expert skill in the preparation of a general naval programme and in the planning of individual ships.

The Off Year in Politics. The "off year" in politics that precedes a Presidential election is almost as welcome to the politicians as to the business men of the country,—both classes quietly preparing for the stormier and more distracting season that is to come. The Republicans have been talking rather languidly about the choice of a so-called "running mate" for President Roosevelt. But a great national convention must be allowed to have some uncertainty and excitement ahead of it; and since it is agreed that President Roosevelt is to have the first place on the ticket by acclamation, the question of the second place must be left open. This, it is said, is President Roosevelt's own opinion. The question of a national chairman for campaign purposes has also been under discussion among party leaders. If Senator Hanna should not continue as chairman of the National Committee, it would not follow that Senator Quay must succeed him. It is more likely that a younger man, less prominently identified with

old-time contests, would assume direction of the campaign of 1904. This, like the candidate for the Vice-Presidency, is a choice that might well be deferred until next summer. The Democrats continue their search for a Presidential candidate, with ex-President Cleveland's name still heading the list, and the only one that has focussed public attention. Judge Parker, of New York, who addressed the Bar Association of Georgia last month, continues to be much talked of, particularly in the Southern newspapers. Ex-Governor Francis, of Missouri, head of the exposition, figures in the list of possibilities; but the Hon. Joseph W. Folk, also of St. Louis, bids fair to become more vigorously boomed than Mr. Francis. It is Mr. Folk who has made so brilliant a record in the prosecution of municipal rascality in St. Louis. He has now unearthed certain long-suspected facts regarding bribery on a colossal scale in the Mis-



JOSEPH W. FOLK.

souri Legislature that authorized the present street-railway monopoly of St. Louis. For a man of such courage and strength there ought assuredly to be a large political future. If he should win the governorship of Missouri, Mr. Folk might aspire to the Democratic nomination for the Presidency on new issues that would reunite his party. Among the men Mr. Bryan has been naming as available Presidential timber is to be mentioned Chief Justice Walter Clark, of North Carolina, a man of undoubted force and ability. It is understood that Mr. Bryan would readily enough consent to the nomination of Mr. Edward M. Shepard, of New York, who would



HON. ALTON B. PARKER.

also be entirely acceptable to the friends of ex-President Cleveland and Mr. Olney. Mr. Shepard has of late made several important addresses in the South, where he has gained a host of friends. Among the very ablest of the younger leaders of the Democratic party is Gov. A. J. Montague, of Virginia, who was honored at Brown University several weeks ago with the degree of Doctor of Laws, where, also, he made a commencement address. Governor Montague returned from his Northern visit to find it necessary to call out the militia to keep order during a stubborn street-railway strike in Richmond. A new name for the Democratic nomination brought out last month is that of Judge Gray, of Delaware, whose availability and strength are supposed to have been much enhanced by his services as a member of President Roosevelt's anthracite arbitration board. And so the list grows from month to month.

*Congress
and the
Currency.*

Since it is now determined that the new Congress will be called to meet in extra session on Monday, November 9,—just after the fall elections in Ohio and several other States,—the work of the session is already being carefully considered. Above all things, it is hoped that there may be legislation to provide for changes in our currency system in the direction of greater elasticity. It is fully agreed that Mr. Cannon, of Illinois, is to be

elected Speaker. Some apprehension has been caused by alleged interviews with Mr. Cannon in which he declares himself as opposed to any financial legislation. But it is not probable that he would, upon a question of that kind, oppose his power as Speaker to the will of the majority, or to the gradually forming convictions of the country. The tariff question will remain in abeyance for the present, although it may be forced prominently into the campaign next year. The Republican leaders will doubtless argue, with no little force and plausibility, that inasmuch as our general industrial and commercial interests continue to flourish, it would be highly advisable to await the result of pending tariff controversies on the part of our chief European rivals before making any radical changes.



HON. WALTER CLARK.

Business Conditions. The progress of the wheat harvest last month made it reasonably certain that we should have a very good crop of that standard cereal, while the outlook for the maize crop, on the other hand, was not very encouraging. The weather conditions which were unfavorable for corn in the great agricultural States were, on the other hand, providing the finest yield of hay and pasturage known for many years. Taking an average, therefore, 1903 is quite sure to add another favorable season for farmers to a series that has been unbroken for six or seven years. The latest reports of iron and steel production, and other leading manufacturing industries, are entirely reassuring.

The Government's statistical bureau shows, for the fiscal year that ended June 30, the largest imports of merchandise in the history of the country. The balance of trade in our favor, which had exceeded \$664,000,000 in 1901, and had for four years averaged almost \$600,000,000, had fallen in this last year to \$394,000,000. Nevertheless, the volume of our exports,—in round figures, \$1,420,000,000,—was larger than



MR. WILLIAM E. COREY, NEW HEAD OF STEEL TRUST.

in the previous year, and only a little less than that of the banner year 1901. The continued decline of prices in the Wall Street stock market bore no direct relation to the genuine business life of the country. The railroads whose shares were selling at prices much lower than prevailed a few months ago were earning and paying the same dividends, and continuing to do business under favorable conditions. The collapse of the boom in stocks was borne with entire equanimity by the banks and conservative financial institutions, and was altogether a wholesome indication. Another good sign was the collapse of several industrial enterprises in the nature of trusts which had been organized, not on business principles, but as wildcat ventures for the benefit of the promoters. Outside investors had an opportunity to learn something of the way in which the trust promoter baits his trap for their undoing. The experience of the past year has shown that for the present, at least, it is not the consuming public that has immediate occasion to fear the trusts, nor yet

the industrial employees of large concerns; but rather the investing public, upon which Wall Street has been trying to unload its new securities. The question of concern just now is how to protect the outside holders of stocks and bonds against the manipulations of the promoters, the directors, and the inside cliques. Mr. Charles M. Schwab, while retaining the nominal presidency of the United States Steel Corporation, has virtually retired, and has been succeeded by Mr. William E. Corey, president of the Carnegie Steel Company. Mr. Schwab, it is asserted, had not been content to devote his entire energy to the vast responsibilities of his position as head of the greatest financial and industrial corporation the world has ever known, but threw himself into various syndicates and promotion ventures,—all on a colossal scale. Among these ventures was the so-called shipyard trust, of which Mr. Lewis Nixon was president, and into which Mr. Schwab had merged the great Bethlehem steel works of Pennsylvania. This shipyard trust was last month placed in the hands of a receiver. This and several other events of a more or less similar nature, far from being indicative of the approach of a period of panic and business paralysis, were very timely evidences of sound health in the business world. The disintegration of mushroom schemes can only benefit well-conducted enterprises.

English Politics.

The net result thus far of the great discussion raised in England by Mr. Chamberlain over the proposition to establish an imperial zollverein and set up protective tariffs against the breadstuffs and raw materials of non-British countries has been to exhibit the vitality of British free-trade sentiment with a distinctness that must have been wholly unexpected to the restless colonial minister. All elements and factions of the Liberal, Radical, and Labor parties have come out solidly against Mr. Chamberlain's proposals. The dominant sentiment in his own Unionist party is equally against Mr. Chamberlain's views. Mr. Balfour's "open-mindedness" on the subject has exposed him fatally to the charge of weakness and vacillation on subjects where the country expects settled convictions. Mr. Ritchie, chancellor of the exchequer, who stoutly opposes his colleague, made a strong speech, last month, before the bankers and merchants of London, setting forth the present solidly prosperous condition of England, and denouncing any fundamental change of fiscal policy. The Irish bill made such favorable progress in the first half of July that it passed to its third and final reading on Tuesday, the 21st, and was sent to the



PRESIDENT LOUBET, OF FRANCE.
(Whose visit was the chief London topic last month.)

House of Lords, where no serious difficulties or delays were expected. Its passage was relied upon to smooth the way for King Edward's much-heralded visit to Ireland. While it was certain that he would not be insulted or rudely treated, there was not much prospect of an enthusiastic welcome on the part of the Irish people. The Irish leaders had, indeed, from the beginning served notice on the British Govern-

ment that the Land bill would be received merely as an act of tardy justice, and not as a ground for gratitude or as a substitute for home rule. With Mr. Chamberlain and his startling protectionist programme holding the center of the stage, and with personal incidents such as the visit of President Loubet of the French Republic to England, the rising tide of opposition to the enforcement of the new Education Act was comparatively without notice in England last month, but it cannot be ignored. Thousands of Nonconformists are refusing to pay the school rates as levied against their property, on the plea that the money will be paid to the Church of England for the maintenance of schools having a certain religious and ecclesiastical bias. Men like Dr. Clifford have adopted a process of reasoning according to which the compulsory taxation of all the people to support schools managed by a particular denomination is essentially a form of religious persecution. In principle, they hold it as a manifestation of the same spirit of intolerance that Russia has been exhibiting toward the Jews. This reactionary school policy in England, far from strengthening clericalism and the State Church, will in the end have the opposite effect. It may, indeed, bring about a revulsion before which the Establishment itself will succumb.

*Other
British
Topics.*

English diplomacy has been making great effort to oppose the Russification of Persia. An English Blue Book sets forth the fact of a new commercial treaty between England and Persia which on its face secures various commercial advantages and promises that no other country shall be better treated in future than England. But Russia has already gained a dominant place in Persian trade, and will sooner or later secure some kind of outlet to the Persian Gulf. While the anti-Russian feeling continues to manifest itself in the English press, there is no evidence of serious strain between the two great powers, and England's general diplomatic relations are more agreeable than usual. Very little has been said of late about army reform in England, although the subject is one that demands searching attention. Neither has the English public been much concerned about the perilous position of the troops in Somaliland. Apart from that difficult though petty situation, England is almost unprecedentedly free from expeditionary movements and minor disturbances of a warlike nature in Asia or Africa. Affairs in South Africa seem, for the present, to be quieting down, and Lord Curzon's administration of India is regarded as so successful that he is more of a par-

agon than ever in British estimation, and it is expected that he will remain for another term as viceroy. Furthermore, recent reports from Egypt, summarizing Lord Cromer's management of the affairs of that country, make very good reading for the British public. The Khedive, quite relieved of all responsibilities for the affairs of his country, has meanwhile been enjoying himself quietly, like any private gentleman, in London and Paris where he has been sojourning *incog*.

*German
Politics.*

Nothing in the world of politics has affected European thought and discussion so profoundly during the past year or two as the result of the recent Reichstag elections in Germany. For a summing up of the facts, we beg to call attention to an article in this number of the *REVIEW* from the pen of a well-informed writer, Mr. Wolf von Schierbrand. The substantial gains of the Social Democratic element have given encouragement to more or less kindred movements in other European countries. It must not be thought that German socialism, as now supported by 3,000,000 voters, means anything that from the standpoint of an American citizen would be regarded as dangerous or subversive. What this German people's party wants is, in the main, merely the sort of political liberty that exists in England and the United States. It is a protest against the high-handed militarism of Germany, and also against Germany's recent economic policies. One of the net results of the election is likely to be a change in German tariff rates and methods, and this will be to the advantage of food-exporting countries like the United States. In Saxony, the Socialists swept everything before them in these elections to the general parliament of Germany, this result being evidently a protest against a local policy in Saxony which is highly reactionary, and which practically deprives the workingman of political power.

*The
Czar's New
Chancellor.*

The ferment of Russian life, with its many difficult problems of administration and government, has been too much for the Czar, of late, and it is now reported that he has decided to make M. de Witte chancellor of the empire,—a position which has not existed for a considerable period. With Lamsdorff dominating foreign relations, Plehwe controlling in interior affairs with a high hand and doubtful wisdom, and the Procurator of the Holy Synod managing his great department with practical independence; Witte in control of financial affairs, Kourapatkin at the head of the great army system, and still other services of the em-

pire separately managed, and in the hands of strong, experienced, and ambitious men,—the young Czar has undoubtedly found it almost impossible to dominate a growingly discordant administrative system. M. de Witte is unquestionably the man above all others to be placed in general authority. If he had been there sooner, it is not to be believed that the Kishineff massacres would have occurred, his own wife being a Jewess. On the other hand, if he had been in full authority, the Manchurian question would have



M. DE WITTE, PROMOTED TO BE CHANCELLOR OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

been managed in a different way, since as it is now understood that much of Russia's apparent inconsistency has been due to the independent action and conflicting attitude of at least three different departments having to do with Manchuria, one being the foreign office, another being the war department, and another the department having charge of the railway and financial interests.

The last illness of Pope Leo XIII. exhibited at once the marvelous tenacity of his physical constitution and the world-wide recognition of his title to the respect and esteem of mankind. Elsewhere we publish from the pen of Mr. Stead an eloquent portrayal of his character and a review of his

career. Since for several weeks it had been known that he could not possibly recover, his death on July 20 did not come as a surprise. The important question of the successorship was already beginning to fill the minds of those whose thoughts had for a time been given to the contemplation of the life and career of Leo. The majority of the members of the College of Cardinals is Italian, and it has never been probable that Leo's successor would be a man of any other nationality. The most conspicuous candidate for years past has been Cardinal Rampolla, Papal secretary of state and Leo's most intimate associate and adviser in all his policies in so far as they were regarded as having a political or international bearing. Cardinal Rampolla has been long regarded as pro-French and anti-German in his views of Papal politics. Cardinal Gotti has been looked upon as the favorite candidate of those powers in the Church that are influenced by Germany and the Triple Alliance. Many other distinguished cardinals, however, have been frequently named for the high office. The work of the Papacy is carried on temporarily by the cardinal who holds the post of Dean of the Sacred College, or "Camerlengo," the present incumbent being Cardinal Oreglia, who will serve as acting Pope until the conclave or assembly of cardinals chooses Leo's successor.

Choosing a New Pope.

After the death of a Pope, the funeral ceremonies always occupy a number of days. On the tenth day, according to the fixed rule that has been in force for more than six hundred years, the conclave assembles for the choice of a new Pope. The cardinals remain strictly in residence in the Vatican during the period of their deliberations. There are many quaint rules and processes connected with the details for the maintenance of privacy. Morning and afternoon, the cardinals assemble in the Sistine Chapel to take a ballot. It is necessary to continue balloting until some candidate has obtained a two-thirds majority. No candidate may vote for himself. The conclave to elect Leo's successor may perform its function very promptly or may continue for a good many days. That point is one about which it would be wholly useless to speculate. Cardinal Gibbons, the only American member of the Sacred College, had sailed for Europe on July 9, when it was supposed that Leo was at the very point of death. Of the sixty-four members of the College of Cardinals, nearly all will have assembled at Rome, in spite of the age and infirmities of a few. Seven new cardinals had been chosen at a consistory held as recently as June 22. Of the total number, 36 are Italians.



CARDINAL FERRATA.



CARDINAL RAMPOLLA.



CARDINAL S. VANNUTELLI.



CARDINAL BACILIORI.



CARDINAL V. VANNUTELLI.



CARDINAL SVAMPA.



CARDINAL AGLIARDI.



CARDINAL SEGNA.



CARDINAL RICHELMY.



CARDINAL MACCHI.



CARDINAL CAPECEHATRO.



CARDINAL GOTTI.



CARDINAL OREGLIA.



CARDINAL SARTO.

**SOME OF THE PROMINENT CARDINALS WHOSE NAMES HAVE BEEN MENTIONED AS CANDIDATES
FOR THE PAPAL CHAIR.**



M. Avakoumovitch, President. Col. Maschin, Public Works. Dr. Velikovitch, Finance. Gen. Athanatskovitch, War.
MEMBERS OF THE NEW SERVIAN CABINET, REAPPOINTED BY KING PETER.

*In Latin
Europe.*

The Italian Government is naturally concerned about the election of a Pope, and would greatly prefer the choice of a man under whom there might come about an abandonment of the aspiration for the recovery of the temporal authority of the Papacy. So long as it is the avowed determination of the Church to deprive the Italian King of his present capital whenever the opportunity may arise, there can, of course, be no harmonious relations between the Vatican and the King and government of Italy. The relations between Italy and France grow steadily more friendly, although Italy seems firmly placed in the Triple Alliance, where she is likely to remain so long as there can be any question whatsoever concerning the permanence of united Italy, and the Italian supremacy over the Eternal City and its environment. The French Chambers adjourned for the summer on July 4. There has been a cabinet upset in Spain over the question of reconstructing the navy that the United States destroyed. Prime Minister Silvela had taken the definite position that Spain needs both a strong army

and a strong navy, in view of her profound interest in the question of Morocco, and, furthermore, he took the ground that Spain ought to enter into an alliance with France. The King asked Silvela to try to form a new cabinet last month, but he found it impossible to do this, and Marquis Villaverde, formerly finance minister, was made premier on July 19.

*Southeastern
Europe.*

In Austria and Hungary, there have been cabinet crises, but Premier von Körber continues in office at Vienna, while at Budapest there is a new ministry under the leadership of Count Hedervary. In Greece, there have been some rapid ministerial changes, with M. Ralli as premier, according to the last advices. Affairs in Serbia have remained quiet. King Peter took his oath of office at Belgrade on June 25. The provisional ministry which had been formed in connection with the army plot that assassinated the late king and queen was formally continued in office by King Peter, and decrees were published bestowing amnesty and perpetual indemnity upon all political offenders.



M. Ghivkovitch, Justice. M. Protitch, Interior. M. Stojanovitch, Education. M. Geutchitch, Commerce.
MEMBERS OF THE NEW SERVIAN CABINET.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From June 21 to July 20, 1903.)



H. F. Greene. Alford W. Cooley.
NEW MEMBERS OF THE UNITED STATES CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

June 22.—President Roosevelt removes from office Judge Daniel H. McMillan, of the New Mexico Supreme Court, on charges of immorality.

June 23.—Special counsel are engaged by the Government for the prosecution of the post-office cases at Washington....The new Springfield rifle is formally adopted by the United States Government for all arms of the service.

June 24.—Iowa Democrats nominate J. B. Sullivan for governor on a conservative (anti-Bryan) platform.

June 29.—Representative Cannon, of Illinois, prospective Speaker of the House, declares against all financial legislation at the coming session of Congress.

July 1.—Iowa Republicans renominate Gov. A. B. Cummins and indorse President Roosevelt.

July 6.—The Georgia House of Representatives, by an overwhelming vote, rejects a resolution calling for a distribution of the public-school funds of the State according to the taxes paid by the white and black races, respectively.

July 16.—Kentucky Republicans nominate Morris B. Belknap for governor and indorse the nomination of President Roosevelt in 1904.

July 17.—Secretaries Root and Moody constitute a joint board of army and navy officers to pass on matters requiring the coöperation of the two services.

July 20.—The Philippine Government begins the circulation of the new currency authorized by Congress.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

June 21.—The King of Italy accepts the resignations of the minister of the interior, Signor Giolitti, and the minister of marine, Signor Bettolo, who are succeeded by Premier Zanardelli and Vice-Admiral Morin, respectively.

June 22.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 416 to 32, defeats a motion to reject the budget clause

providing for the repeal of the grain tax....Wos y Gil is elected President of Hayti.

June 23.—A new Russian edict prohibits the sale in Finland of guns, ammunition, or explosives of any kind, excepting under severe restrictions (see page 213)....It is announced that the Nationalists and the government have agreed on a compromise regarding the Irish land bill.

June 24.—The French Senate approves a scheme involving an expenditure of \$51,200,000 on the improvement of ten French ports and canals connected therewith.

June 25.—King Peter of Servia takes the oath....As a result of the second ballots in the German elections, the new Reichstag is composed of the following: Clericals, 100; Social Democrats, 82; Conservatives, 53; National Liberals, 50; Radical Left, 21; Free Conservatives, 20; Poles, 16; Moderate Radicals, 9; Anti-Semites, 9; Alsatians, 9; other parties, 28 (see page 185)....The Greek Chamber votes lack of confidence in the present ministry.

June 27.—Count Hedervary forms a new Hungarian cabinet.

June 29.—Mr. A. R. Guinness is elected Speaker of the New Zealand House of Representatives.

June 30.—The Servian National Assembly is dissolved; elections are appointed for September 14....The



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THE AMERICAN YACHT "RELIANCE."



THE BRITISH YACHT "SHAMROCK III."

French Chamber of Deputies passes a bill raising the duties on cattle and fresh meat.

July 7.—An edict is issued at Peking cashiering the governor and other high officials of Kwang-Si, China, on account of corruption, incapacity, and connivance with rebellion.

July 8.—The cabinet of Greece resigns....The Irish land bill passes the committee stage in the British House of Commons.

July 11.—A new Greek cabinet is formed, headed by M. Ralli as premier and minister of foreign affairs.



KING PETER OF SERBIA TAKING THE OATH, SURROUNDED BY HIS MINISTERS.

July 13.—Premier Katsura, of Japan, withdraws his resignation....Martial law is proclaimed at Port-au-Prince, Hayti.

July 14.—A proclamation published at Dublin revokes the summary jurisdiction powers of the magistrates in those districts of Ireland which still remain under the Crimes Act.

July 17.—The Irish land bill completes the report stage in the British House of Commons.



THE LATEST PHOTOGRAPH OF KING EDWARD VII.

July 18.—The Spanish cabinet resigns; Premier Silvela advocates a Franco-Spanish alliance....The Cuban Congress adjourns.

July 19.—The Marquis Villaverde forms a new Spanish cabinet, constituted as follows: Premier, Marquis Villaverde; foreign minister, Count San Bernardo; minister of justice, Señor Santos Guzman; minister of finance, Señor Besada; minister of war, General Martitegui; minister of navy, Señor Estram; minister of the interior, Señor García Alix; minister of public instruction, Señor Bugallal, minister of agriculture, Señor Gassot.



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CARDINAL GIBBONS.

(The journey to Rome, last month, of the American cardinal, to take part in the conclave summoned to choose a successor to Pope Leo, was followed with great interest on both hemispheres.)

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

June 23.—The European Squadron of the United States arrives at Kiel; the commanders of the American and German vessels exchange visits.

June 26.—Emperor William of Germany, speaking at Kiel, expresses warm sentiments of friendship for President Roosevelt and the American people.

June 28.—Russian soldiers cross the Yalu River and establish stations on the Korean side.

July 1.—Bulgaria appeals to the powers to force Turkey to withdraw troops from the frontier.

July 3.—It is announced that Russia and Austria have cautioned Turkey not to provoke hostilities on the Bulgarian frontier....An order of the British Board of Agriculture forbids the landing of American hogs and New England cattle in England.

July 4.—General Hernandez, "El Mocho," is appointed Venezuelan minister to the United States.

July 6.—It is announced that the American and British counter-cases on the Alaskan boundary question have been exchanged.

July 9.—The officers of the American squadron are entertained in England.

July 10.—The Russian ambassador in London refuses to transmit to the Czar a petition against the lynching of negroes in the United States.

July 14.—The United States invites the Czar of Russia to appoint from the members of the Hague court three arbitrators to settle the questions submitted under the Venezuelan claims treaty.

July 15.—Terms of the new treaty between Great Britain and Persia are made public.... Mr. Riddle, the United States chargé d'affaires at St. Petersburg, is instructed by Secretary Hay to inquire if Russia will receive the petition on the Kishineff massacre signed by many citizens of the United States.

July 16.—The Cuban Senate ratifies the treaty granting to the United States sites for naval and coaling stations, and the treaty conceding to Cuba sovereignty over the Isle of Pines....It is announced at Washington that China and Russia have given pledges to open at least two Manchurian ports to the commerce of the world....Russia replies to the inquiry of the United States that the Kishineff petition will be neither received nor considered.

July 17.—Russia consents to the terms of the Brussels Sugar Convention.

July 18.—The Russian foreign office authorizes a statement of the reasons for rejecting the Kishineff petition.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

June 22.—A strike for higher wages involving 30,000 men is declared at Barcelona, Spain....Seven cardinals are chosen at a consistory held at the Vatican.

June 25.—The board of conciliation to arbitrate differences between the anthracite miners and the operators is organized at Wilkesbarre, Pa....An equestrian statue of Gen. Joseph Hooker is unveiled at Boston.

June 28.—More than 150 passengers are killed in an accident on the Bilbao-Saragossa line, in Spain.

June 30.—By an explosion in a coal mine at Harms, Wyo., 235 miners are killed.

July 2.—The international automobile race in Ireland

for the Bennett Cup is won by Janatzy, a member of the German team, who covers 370¼ miles in 6 hours, 36 minutes, and 9 seconds.

July 4.—The first message around the world is sent over the new Pacific cable, from San Francisco to Manila, by President Roosevelt at Oyster Bay.

July 5.—The condition of Pope Leo XIII. is reported grave; the last sacraments are administered....A flood at Jeannette, Pa., causes the loss of 75 lives and a property loss estimated at \$1,500,000.

July 6.—The annual meeting of the National Educational Association opens at Boston with a large attendance from all parts of the country.

July 9.—The Christian Endeavor convention opens at Denver, Colo.

July 19.—The Venezuelan government forces enter the town of Ciudad Bolivar and capture the cemetery from the revolutionists, with the loss of one hundred men; the insurgent loss is two hundred men.

July 20.—King Edward and Queen Alexandra leave London for Ireland.

OBITUARY.

June 21.—Maj. James B. Pond, the well-known lecture manager, 65.

June 23.—Sir Joseph Pease, M.P., 75....Dr. Edward L. Wilson, expert in photography, 65.

June 28.—Miss Constance Bache, a writer on musical themes, 56.

June 29.—Edward McDermott, proprietor of the *Railway News* (London), 83....Pemberton S. Hutchinson, president of the Philadelphia Savings Fund Society, 67....Ex-Judge Cyrus L. Pershing, of Pennsylvania, 78....Rev. Thomas A. Hoyt, D.D., of Philadelphia, 75.

June 30.—Lieut. Daniel Godfrey, a famous English band leader, 71....Dr. F. J. E. Rohmer, of Mobile, Ala., 91.



THE LATE P. M. ARTHUR.

(Chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers.)



Photograph by Hollinger.

THE LATE MAJOR J. B. POND.

July 1.—George Shattuck Morison, an eminent engineer, member of the Isthmian Canal Commission, 80....Lord Colville of Culross, 85....Gustavus Swan, a pioneer American telegrapher, 75....George Hathaway, known as a builder of street railways, 84.

July 3.—Mrs. Harriet Lane Johnston, mistress of the White House in Buchanan's administration, 70.

July 4.—John Donoghue, an American sculptor, 46.

July 10.—Ausburn Birdsall, of Binghamton, N. Y., last surviving member of the Thirtieth Congress, 89.

July 11.—Charles C. Martin, long chief engineer of the Brooklyn Bridge, 72....Sir John Douglas Armour, of the Canadian Supreme Court, a member of the Alaskan Boundary Commission, 73.

July 12.—William Ernest Henley, British poet and essayist, 54.

July 13.—Judge Robert William Wilcox, of the Hawaiian Islands, 48....Gen. John Q. Lane, of Philadelphia, 73.

July 15.—Mrs. Harriet Stanwood Blaine, widow of James G. Blaine, 73.

July 16.—Vice-Admiral Besnard, of France, 70.... Peter M. Arthur, of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, 72....George Foster Shepley, a well-known Boston architect, 43.

July 17.—James McNeill Whistler, the famous artist, 69 (see page 173)....Justice Samuel Lumpkin, of the Georgia Supreme Court, 54.

July 20.—Pope Leo XIII., 93 (see page 165).

SOME CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



"THE COUNTRY IS ALL RIGHT; THE ONLY TROUBLE IS IN WALL STREET."—From the *Herald* (New York).



BLOCKING THE WAY.—From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



INDEED WE HAVE A STRING ON OUR PACIFIC POSSESSIONS.
From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



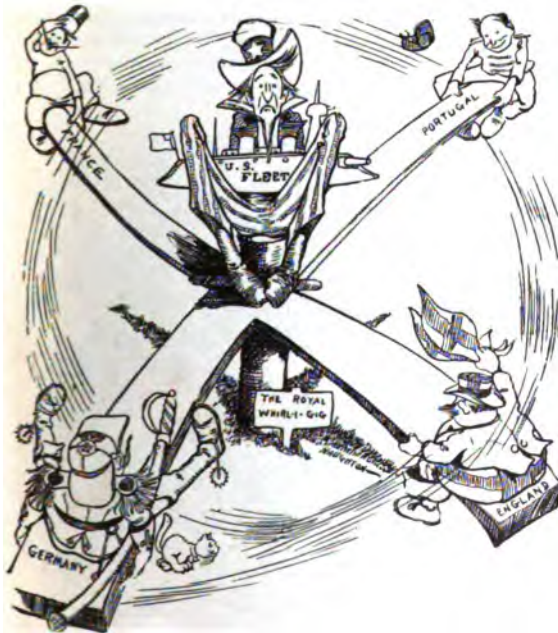
ANOTHER COAT-TAIL THAT MUST NOT BE TROD UPON!
From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

WE noted, last month, the lamented death of Mr. R. C. Bowman, who for some years had done cartoon work that showed such a keen sense of humor, together with such a quick perception in public affairs, that his drawings had gained for him a deservedly wide reputation. Even more famous is the work of an older Minneapolis cartoonist, Mr. Bartholomew, of the *Jour-*



ONE LITTLE MATCH MIGHT HAVE FIRED THE WHOLE BUNCH.
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

nal. In the adjoining city of St. Paul, Mr. Rehse, of the *Pioneer Press*, ranks with the leading cartoonists of the country. For some time past, Mr. Carter, of the *Minneapolis Times*, has been doing work of growing merit and claim to recognition, and we have this month found his cartoons of better average quality as humorous and satirical comments on the leading topics of the country and of the world than those of any other cartoonist at home or abroad. It is also to be noted that the *Minneapolis Tribune* has found in Mr. C. F. Naughton a strong successor to the talented Bowman. It is truly



ENTERTAINING UNCLE SAM.

UNCLE SAM: "I wish this darn thing would stop and give me a chance to get away."
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



IN DOUBT.

RUSSIA: "I wouldn't mind lickin' this Japan kid if I was sure that them big fellers were not with him."
From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



**"DISHONESTY IS THE GREATEST CRIME AGAINST THE NATION
A MAN CAN COMMIT."**—Roosevelt, at Huntington, N. Y.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

remarkable that the Twin Cities should have such a group of cartoonists at one time as "Bart," Rehse, Carter, and Naughton.

In our limited space, this month, we are using three of Mr. Naughton's drawings and eight of Mr. Carter's. On our first page, Mr. Carter notes the report that Mr. Cannon, as Speaker of the new Congress, is going to obstruct the proposed financial legislation. Cannon is



WEEDING THE GARDEN.

THE NORTH: "I guess I had better keep busy on my own side of the fence."—From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

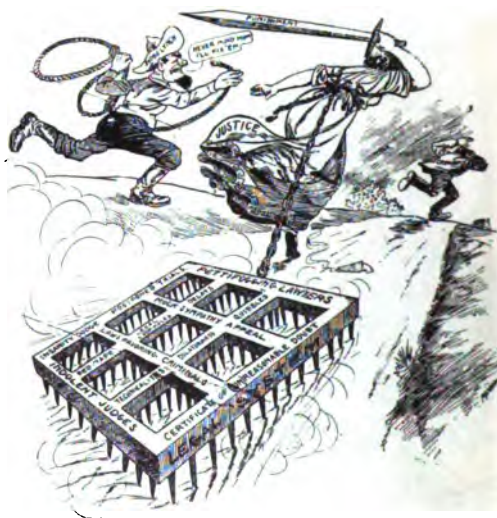


THE FOREMAN GIVES ORDERS FOR RUSH WORK.

From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

represented as a truck-driver blocking the track, with Senator Aldrich, as a trolley motorman, ringing the gong behind. It is an uncommonly clever cartoon. The next one puts on record the Fourth of July celebration of the completion of a new Pacific cable.

Most of the scores of cartoons that appeared in our American newspapers on the Manchurian question last month were either extravagant burlesques or else indicated an unduly embittered situation. Mr. Carter's drawing as to Uncle Sam's coat-tail, on the contrary, represents almost precisely the situation that Mr. Hay's



THE PURSUIT OF CRIME.

Why his dishonor Judge Lynch outsprints Justice.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



STANDING PAT.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

diplomacy succeeded in dealing with last month by the happy plan of getting the Bear to give satisfactory assurances that the coat-tail should not be disturbed. His cartoon on Russia and Japan shows similar sagacity in divining the real situation.

It must be remembered that the *Minneapolis Times* is a Democratic paper when one studies the cartoon in which President Roosevelt as foreman is ordering Mr. Payne to get the administration's tracks all clear before the Republican National Convention train gets 'round the curves to the scene of the landslide. Mr. Carter's

WILL HE TRAVEL FAR?—From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

cartoon on Mr. Hanna is obviously suggested by the Senator's denial, last month, that he was closing out his business interests, and his further remark that politics was for him a mere hobby. Finally, his two cartoons on the platforms, respectively, of the Republicans and the Democrats of Iowa will be readily appreciated by all who understand our current party politics, although it would take some time to explain them to those who have no political interest or aptitude.



MRS. PARTINGTON IN IOWA.

From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



BUT STILL IT SPROUTS IN ALL DIRECTIONS!

UNCLE BILL ALLISON (who has placed the platform, the elephant, and himself upon the "Iowa idea" plant): "There! I guess that will hold you for a while. How do you like being sat upon, anyway?"—From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



BALFOUR: "Jump in, Joe, and we'll save him whether he likes it or not."—*The Journal* (Detroit).

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's plan for saving John Bull from shipwreck on the free-trade craft by putting out the protectionist lifeboat has been the subject of almost countless cartoons, although this one by May in the *Detroit Journal* is the only one, so far as we know, that has carried out this particular simile. Mr. F. Carruthers Gould, of the *Westminster Gazette*, London, has been taking up the subject in some new phase almost every day. A characteristic specimen of these attacks by Mr. Gould upon Premier Balfour and Colonial Secretary Chamberlain is to be found reproduced on this page. Mr. Chamberlain is leading Mr. Balfour out into the protectionist surf, while the Duke of Devonshire grumbles on the beach and the remaining members of the cabinet linger in what our English friends call the "bathing machine."

On the opposite page are three cartoons from a powerful German exponent of the doctrines of the Social Democratic party,—the party that has made the largest gains in the recent Reichstag elections. The first represents the elections as the crossing of the Red Sea, with the destruction of many of their op-

ponents in the rise of the socialistic tide. Another shows a front and rear view of the Kaiser's military empire, while a third points out the way in which militarism really protects the homes of the people.



SHIVERING ON THE BRINK.

ARTHUR: "I hope he won't take me out of my depth. I don't half like it. It's awfully cold."

THE DUKE: "Beastly nuisance havin' to undress."

THE OTHER MINISTERS: "Let's wait and see how they get on."

Westminster Gazette (London).



THE DESTRUCTION IN THE RED SEA.
From *Der Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart).



MILITARISM AS THE GUARD TO OUR HOMES.
From *Der Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart).



GERMAN IMPERIALISM ON THE STAGE.
Before the scene. Behind.
From *Der Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart).



THE MANCHURIAN QUESTION.
From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).



THE LATE POPE LEO XIII.

Born, March 2, 1810. Died, July 20, 1903.

POPE LEO XIII.

BY W. T. STEAD.

WHEN the Pope died, the greatest among us passed away. Greatest in station, greatest in fame, greatest in the wisdom of the statesman. Leo XIII. was the Nestor of the human race. He had no fellow while he lived, and in his death he had no peer. Venerable alike from his age, his station, and his personal piety, the late Pope was even more venerable as a sovereign who had no rivals, a man who had no foes. One woe alone he had reason to fear,—the woe that is pronounced upon him of whom all men speak well. For when the Pontifex Maximus descended to the dust, and the frail and fragile anatomy which had served as a lantern revealing the soul that glowed within was laid to rest in the tomb of white Carrara marble which with characteristic solicitude he had prepared before his death, not even the most vehement Protestant, the bitterest Freethinker, had a word to say but of good. The favorite malediction of the fierce savages who inhabit the northern provinces of Ireland, a malediction which generation after generation has used as a battle cry, is "To hell with the Pope!" Last month, when Leo XIII. died, there was hardly an Orangeman even in Black Ulster who did not admit that "To heaven with the Pope!" would be the only possible formula. "To heaven with the Pope!" is a fitting sentence upon one who spent his life—the whole ninety-three years of it—in an honest, weariless attempt to bring heaven down from the skies, so that even here and now the toil-worn children of men should realize something of the peace and joy of Paradise. That he failed to realize his high ideal is true. All men fail. Was there ever a greater failure judged from the date of his burying than the failure of Jesus Christ? This disciple is not above his Master, nor the servant above his Lord.

It is difficult to realize the fact that the Pope is no more. For a quarter of a century he has been the muezzin of Christendom who from the highest minaret on this planet has constantly proclaimed in stentorian tones the summons to all men to labor and to pray. As there is no post of vantage in the world's broad field of battle comparable to that of the Vatican, so there has not been for centuries any occupant of that supreme position more worthy than Leo.

He nothing common did or mean,
Upon that memorable scene.

"It is we," he wrote in one of the most famous of his encyclicals, "who are the Chief Guardian of Religion, and the chief dispenser of what belongs to the Church, and we must not by silence neglect the duty which lies upon us." No Pontiff ever took himself more seriously, no Pope ever sustained more admirably the dignity or enhanced more greatly the influence of St. Peter's Chair. Instinct in season and out of season, he never really seems to have slept until last month, when thrice the silver hammer beat upon his ivory brow and the cardinal voice of summons fell upon the dull, cold ear of death. Every midnight, from his window in the Vatican, during the long years of his pontificate, Leo XIII. blessed the sleeping city, for the most part all-indifferent to his blessings or his curses. Every day, all his life long, he looked out from a still loftier pinnacle and blessed the whole multitudinous family of men. His creed may not be as our creed. He was not a great propagandist of the faith. In his pontificate, Rome cannot boast of the admission of convert nations to her fold. The temporal power for which he longed and prayed and schemed is as far beyond the reach of his successor as it was from his own. But he won a greater prize than the sovereign right to control the police and the drains of the City of the Cæsars. He may not have reclaimed Protestant nations to the Catholic faith; but he achieved a mightier conquest. He made thinkable once more the possibility of the realization of the great ideal of the early Popes, and he compelled even the most embittered enemies of the Papacy to recognize the immense possibilities for good that lie latent in what might be the central headquarters of the Intelligence Department of the moral sense of mankind. He has disarmed the hostility of his ancient foes, and round his bier Protestant, Freethinker, and Catholic sorrowed as brothers at the tomb of their common father.

A WONDERFULLY SUCCESSFUL CAREER.

From whatever point of view this is regarded, it is an achievement unparalleled in our time. That the little Italian lad who was learning his letters when the battle of Waterloo was fought should have succeeded in impressing the whole world at the beginning of the twentieth century with a sense of his own personality, that he should

have towered aloft above us all without exciting envy or provoking dislike, and have demonstrated to a thousand jarring and intolerant sects and churches the supreme beneficence of his character, is an exploit the like of which we have not seen in our time. No doubt the Roman Church helped. The organization which covers Christendom with its twelve hundred bishops was no doubt essential to his success. But it was necessary for him to capture the organization. And it must not be forgotten that although the organization helped, it also handicapped him badly with at least one-half of Christendom. And the greatest triumph of the late Pope was not that which he won within the Church, but that which he achieved outside its pale. Greek Orthodox, Protestant, and Freethinker alike learned to recognize that Leo XIII., despite all his papistical trappings, was a great statesman and a true man. The Russian Government was most anxious to welcome him to the conference at The Hague. The German Government repeatedly found occasion to appeal to his love of peace to assuage the bitterness of ecclesiastical strife within the empire. The King of England this Easter visited him in the Vatican, and in the United States the press with one voice has acclaimed him as the wisest and best of modern men.

That Pope Leo XIII. failed in many things is less surprising than that he should have succeeded in so many. He has left the Chair of St. Peter surrounded by the aureole of his own virtue and his own wisdom, which not even the bigotry and intolerance of the Roman Curia can dim.

How came it to pass that the Italian priest should have achieved so great a success?

The devout will attribute it to the grace of God, and they will be right. But divine grace has channels which can be traced. Why, then, was it that the Italian lad became the greatest man in the world?

To answer this question is not easy. But some suggestions may be offered that may be helpful.

PARENTAGE AND EARLY LIFE.

In the first case, he was born poor, of godly and healthy parents, and brought up in the open air. The Peccis were not peasants. They had neither poverty nor riches, but they had to work hard to make both ends meet. Ludovico Pecci, the Pope's father, was a colonel in the army of Napoleon I. His mother, Anna, is said by those who lived in the same village to have worked like a man, riding from one estate to the other, superintending the laborers. When her

two boys came and there was no money to pay for their education, she began the rearing of silkworms, and from the sale of the silk from the cocoons she raised the school fees of the future Pope and his brother. She was a holy woman and idolized by her children. In this household, to which the mother contributed the piety and the Napoleonic colonel the energy and the enthusiasm of the revolutionary epoch, Joachim, who was better known as Vincensino, or the little Vincento, grew up a healthy, quick-witted, vigorous boy. The family was of noble origin, long-lived, of splendid physique. He started life, therefore, with the best gifts of the gods,—a healthy body, pious parents, and no superfluous wealth.

He received a good education, first at the Jesuit College at Viterbo, and afterward at the Roman College. When he was barely twenty-one, he was following with the instinct of a trained journalist,—although he never wrote an editorial,—the movement of European politics. His early letters to members of his family show him to have been even then intent upon the progress of the reform agitation in England and the fortunes of "Lord Wellington."

HOW LEO LEARNED TO RULE.

His collegiate career was so distinguished that he was sent to finish his studies in the college of noble ecclesiastics destined for pontifical service. When his course of study was finished, he had not long to wait for promotion. When twenty-eight years old, he became Governor-Delegate of Benevento, a district haunted by brigands. He speedily displayed the qualities of the Napoleonic colonel, his father. Finding that milder measures were of no avail, he captured fourteen brigands and executed them out of hand.

He reduced Benevento to order, and in three years' time he was fated to make his first acquaintance with the freer air of constitutional states. He was sent as Nuncio to Belgium, where he remained for three years. It was during this period that he visited England. He was an acute observer, and he never forgot what he saw in his brief sojourn in western Europe.

In 1844, he was recalled to Italy, and in 1847, just before the outbreak of the great revolutionary storm, he became Governor-Bishop of Perugia. He governed Perugia with such skill and firmness that he succeeded in holding his own against the storm which drove the Pope from Rome.

Then there came to him the second great benediction from on high, in the shape of a prolonged period of comparative seclusion. When the Pope came back to Rome, Cardinal An-



THE POPE'S FATHER.



THE POPE'S MOTHER.

tonelli was in the ascendant, and, in the expressive American phrase, had no use for Pecci. He was shelved for thirty years. Pius the Ninth was governing Rome on his own lines, and Joachim Pecci sat still at Perugia and studied. This sojourn in the wilderness, this exclusion from the whirl and distractions of the Papal court, was invaluable to the future Pope. He had served as Papal Nuncio to Belgium, however, and in 1853 Pius IX. had made him Cardinal.

LEO AS DIPLOMAT.

When Antonelli died, Pecci was sent for to become finance minister of Rome. The very next year, Pio Nono died, and Leo XIII., then in his sixty-ninth year, was installed in the Chair of St. Peter.

When he came to the throne of Christendom, the policy of his predecessor had involved the Roman Church in war with Italy, Germany, Russia, and France. By the adoption of what he himself described as the strategy of peace, he succeeded in converting two of these foes into friends, and in assuaging the bitterness of the strife which raged in the French Republic.

His very first move was typical of the man, and may be commended to the consideration of Mr. Secretary Hay. The Russian Government had been treating the Roman Catholics with a severity which had excited the liveliest indignation throughout the Catholic world. Pius the Ninth had sent a vigorous dispatch to St. Petersburg denouncing the conduct of the Russian Government. After a delay of several weeks, the dispatch was returned to Rome without comment. Thereupon Leo XIII. sat down and wrote a birthday letter to Alexander the Second, full of congratulations and good wishes.

Then, incidentally, he alluded with much feeling to the suffering of the persecuted Catholics, and assured the Czar that if treated justly they might be made stanch and loyal subjects. The Czar was much touched by the letter, and received it in the friendliest spirit.

Leo found Bismarck baffled and angry. "We shall not go to Canossa," the Iron Chancellor had said, when he began the Kulturkampf. But the new Pope invited him thither in such dulcet accents that Bismarck went to Canossa and made his peace with Rome.

In France, the Church was at loggerheads with the republic. The Pope saw that the republic had come to stay, and ordered his bishops to desist from the campaign in favor of the lost cause of Monarchy. He did not succeed in making peace. But he threw oil upon the troubled waters, and secured a truce for many years.

He never made peace with Italy. The usurper who had seated himself in the Pope's own palace in the Quirinal could never be reconciled to the Pontiff who to the last was a victim of the delusion that the world-wide sovereignty of the Church was absolutely dependent upon the possession of secular authority over the city of Rome.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN INFLUENCE.

With the exception of his devotion to the fetish of the temporal power, Leo showed himself singularly sagacious and free from ecclesiastical prejudices. It is interesting to discover how this came about. Why was an Italian bishop so great a statesman? It is somewhat flattering to our self-conceit as English-speaking men to know that in the opinion of shrewd observers, not of our own blood, the liberal policy of the Pope was largely due to the influence of English books, English example, and the direct advice of American prelates.

When the Pope was elected, he began to read Macaulay's famous essay reviewing "Ranke's History of the Popes." He was fascinated with the picture the great Protestant historian painted of the glories of the church over which he had been newly called to preside. Who that has read it can forget this famous passage:

The Republic of Venice was modern when compared with the Papacy, and the Republic of Venice is gone and the Papacy remains. The Papacy remains, not a mere antique, but full of life and useful vigor. The Catholic Church is sending forth to the farthest ends of the world missionaries as zealous as those who landed in Kent with Augustine, and is still confronting hostile kings with the same spirit with which she confronted Attila. . . . Nor do we see any sign that the term of long dominion is approaching. She saw the commencement of all the governments and of all the ecclesiastical establishments that now exist in the world, and we feel no assurance that she is not destined to see the end of them all. . . . It is impossible to deny that the polity of the Church of Rome is the very masterpiece of human wisdom. In truth, nothing but such a polity could against such assaults have borne up such doctrines.

Turning from the English historian's glowing picture of what the Church had been, he turned his eyes to the Church as he found it at the beginning of his reign,

to ascertain its condition, to examine its needs, and to discover proper remedies. In one of his first encyclicals,

he lamented the decadence, not only of the supernatural truths made known to us by faith, but of the natural truths, both speculative and practical, the prevalence of the most fatal errors, of the very serious peril of society from the ever-increasing disorders which confront us on every side. He said that the first reason of this great moral ruin was the openly proclaimed separation and the admitted apostasy of the society of our day from Christ and his Church, which alone has the power to repair all the evils of society.

Among the bishops to whom he sent his encyclical was Cardinal Manning. From this sturdy quondam Protestant at Westminster he received the following advice:

Leave dynasties to themselves; do away with concordats; give up the policy of Sixtus V.; abandon all antiquated and contingent forms, and all those historical conditions which have degenerated into mere ornaments or dangerous obstacles. Go forth to meet the people; apply the words of Christ, "I have compassion upon the multitude;" foster and direct the democracy; prepare the Church for the near future, and, instead of having nunciatures, establish more direct relations with the bishops, who are the natural representatives and advisers of the Pope.

The Pope took that advice to heart, and acted upon it to the best of his ability and skill.

The impetus which Cardinal Manning gave to the Pope's natural inclinations was powerfully stimulated by the influence of the twelve American prelates whom he summoned to Rome in 1883 to consult with them about the affairs of the Church in the New World. In the opinion of so capable and impartial an observer as Count de Voguë, "there is every reason to believe that the words of the American prelates supplied the spark which rekindled the flame in this smoldering genius."

"Leo," he said, "is unquestionably the European whose thoughts are most engrossed by America."

From my interviews with the venerable Pontiff, I have always carried away the impression that the New World, and particularly that part of it populated by the Anglo-Saxon race, was the pole toward which the meditations, calculations, and hopes of this intuitive genius were in preference directed.

But M. de Voguë would hardly be human if he did not attempt to bring France into the landscape, so we are told that

since a prejudice and an instinctive inclination have drawn him into the ranks of democracy, Leo XIII., in the depths of his heart, cherishes a special solicitude for France and the United States. A steadfast conviction shows him France as the field where the harvest for the coming summer will ripen; the United States as that in which he is sowing seed for harvests in years to come. He looks upon mysterious America as Noah must have gazed at the peak of Mount Ararat when the waters of the deluge were rising, seeking there the place of refuge in which the divine promises shall be



POPE LEO TAKING A STROLL IN THE VATICAN GARDENS.

fulfilled, and whence the preserved races will start afresh and begin a new cycle of life.

The Pope's tendency in this direction was powerfully accelerated by American influence. In the year 1887,

the American prelates, Cardinal Gibbons and Archbishop Ireland, arrived in Rome to defend the rights of the Knights of Labor. The ideas they brought astonished and scandalized the venerable dignitaries of the Sacred College; it might be said that the all too bracing air of the Atlantic still clinging to the garments of the travelers made those aged Italians gasp. The Pope alone was unamazed,—he understood this adaptation of Catholicism to a society free and democratic.

Indeed, he is said to have remarked that he

saw little hope for the settlement of the Church troubles in Mexico except in annexation by the United States, which he hoped might also take in all Central America!

In his last encyclical condemning "Americanism" falsely so called, he emphasized his admiration of America and things American. He declared:

"We highly esteem and love exceedingly the young and vigorous American nation, in which we plainly discern latent forces for the advancement alike of civilization and of Christianity."

It is to the equity and liberty established and sanctioned by the American laws, and which are contravened by those who seek to deprive Catholics of their

full enjoyment, that the Pontiff ascribed, in part, the prosperity of the Catholic Church in this republic. "Moreover (a fact which it gives pleasure to acknowledge), thanks are due to the equity of the laws which obtain in America, and to the customs of the well-ordered republic. For the Church among you, unopposed by the Constitution and government of your nation, fettered by no hostile legislation, protected



POPE LEO IN PONTIFICAL STATE.

against violence by the common laws and the impartiality of the tribunals, is free to live and act without hindrance."

THE FAMOUS ENCYCLICAL ON LABOR.

It was under the influence of the Anglo-American inspiration that the Pope finally broke with the dynasties and threw in his lot with the people. He told M. de Vogüé :

We must go to the people, conquer the hearts of the people. . . . We must seek the alliance of all honest folk, whatsoever their origin or opinion. . . . We must not lose heart. . . . We will triumph over prejudice, injustice, and error.

He became "the Socialist Bishop."

His encyclical on labor represents the last word of the great Pontiff on one of the most vexed questions of modern society.

String together some of its sonorous passages and it reads like a new declaration of the Rights of Man.

At this moment, the condition of the working population is the question of the hour. . . .

It has come to pass that workingmen have been given over, isolated and defenseless, to the callousness of employers and the greed of unrestrained competition. That evil has been increased by rapacious usury, which, although more than once condemned by the Church, is, nevertheless, under a different form but with the same guilt, still practised by avaricious and grasping men. And to this must be added the custom of working by contract, and the concentration of so many branches of trade in the hands of a few individuals, so that a small number of very rich men have been able to lay upon the masses a yoke little better than slavery itself. . . .

Wages, we are told, are fixed by free consent ; and therefore the employer, when he pays what was agreed upon, has done his part, and is not called upon for anything further. . . . Nevertheless, there is a dictate of nature more imperious and more ancient than any bargain between man and man,—that the remuneration must be enough to support the wage-earner in reasonable and frugal comfort. . . .

The employer must never tax his workpeople beyond their strength, nor employ them in work unsuited to their sex and age. . . . To exercise pressure, for the sake of a gain, upon the indigent and the destitute, and to make one's profit out of the need of another, is condemned by all laws, human and divine. To defraud any one of wages that are his due is a crime which cries to the avenging anger of Heaven.

Self-conservation is a law of nature which it is wrong to disobey. Now, if we were to consider labor merely so far as it is *personal*, doubtless it would be within the workman's right to accept any rate of wages whatever ; for in the same way as he is free to work or not, so he is free to accept a small remuneration, or even none at all. But this is a mere abstract supposition ; the labor of the workingman is not only his personal attribute, but it is *necessary* ; and this makes all the difference. The preservation of life is the bounden duty of each and all, and to fail therein is a crime. . . .

Most important of all are workmen's associations. . . . We have spoken of them more than once ; but it will be well to explain here how much they are needed, to show that they exist by their own right, and to enter into their organization and their work. The experience of his own weakness urges man to call in help from without. . . .

To enter into "society" of this kind is the natural right of man ; and the state must protect natural rights, not destroy them ; and if it forbids its citizens to form associations, it contradicts the very principle of its own existence ; for both they and it exist in virtue of the same principle,—viz., the natural propensity of man to live in society.

Speaking summarily, we may lay it down as a general and perpetual law that workmen's associations should be so organized and governed as to furnish the best and most suitable means for attaining what is aimed at,—that is to say, for helping each individual member to better his condition to the utmost in body, mind, and property. . . .

Among the purposes of a society should be to try to arrange for a continuous supply of work at all times and seasons ; and to create a fund from which the members may be helped in their necessities, not only in cases of accident, but also in sickness, old age, and misfortune.

Let the state watch over these societies of citizens united together in the exercise of their right ; but let it



HIS HOLINESS TAKING A DRIVE THROUGH THE VATICAN GARDENS.

not thrust itself into their peculiar concerns and their organization; for things move and live by the souls within them, and they may be killed by the grasp of a hand from without. . . . And it is for this reason that wage-earners, who are undoubtedly among the weak and necessitous, should be specially cared for and protected by the commonwealth. . . .

It is only by the labor of the workingman that states grow rich. Justice, therefore, demands that the interests of the poorer population be carefully watched over by the administration, so that they who contribute so largely to the advantage of the community may themselves share in the benefits they create—that, being housed, clothed, and enabled to support life, they may find their existence less hard and more endurable. . . .

When workpeople have recourse to a strike, it is frequently because the hours of labor are too long or the work too hard, or because they consider their wages insufficient. The grave inconvenience of this not uncommon occurrence should be obviated by public remedial measures. . . . The laws should be beforehand, and prevent these troubles from arising; they should lend their influence and authority to the removal in good time of the causes which lead to conflicts between masters and those whom they employ. . . .

It is neither justice nor humanity so to grind men down with excessive labor as to stupefy their minds and wear out their bodies. Those who labor in mines and quarries, and in work within the bowels of the earth,

should have shorter hours in proportion as their labor is more severe and more trying to health. . . .

As a general principle, it may be laid down that a workman ought to have leisure and rest in proportion to the wear and tear of his strength; for the waste of strength must be repaired by the cessation of work. In all agreements between masters and workpeople, there is always the condition, expressed or understood, that there be allowed proper rest for soul and body. To agree in any other sense would be against what is right and just.

To consent to any treatment which is calculated to defeat the end and purpose of his being is beyond his right; he cannot give up his soul to servitude; for it is not man's own rights which are here in question, but the rights of God, most sacred and inviolable. From this follows the obligation of the cessation of work and labor on Sundays and certain festivals.

In regard to children, great care should be taken not to place them in workshops or factories until their bodies and minds are sufficiently mature.

If by a strike, or other combination of workmen, there should be imminent danger of disturbance to the public peace; or if circumstances were such that among the laboring population the ties of family life were relaxed; if religion were found to suffer through the workmen not having the time and opportunity to practise it; if in workshops and factories there were danger to morals through the mixing of the sexes, or from any

occasion of evil ; or if employers laid burdens upon the workmen which were unjust, or degraded them with conditions that were repugnant to their dignity as human beings ; finally, if health were endangered by excessive labor, or by work unsuited to sex or age,—in these cases there can be no question that, within certain limits, it would be right to call in the help and authority of the law. The limits must be determined by the nature of the occasion which calls for the law's interference—the principle being this, that the law must not undertake more, or go further, than is required for the remedy of the evil or the removal of the danger.

In these and similar questions, however, such as, for example, the hours of labor in different trades, the sanitary precautions to be observed in factories and workshops, etc.—in order to supersede undue interference on the part of the state, especially as circumstances, times, and localities differ so widely—it is advisable that recourse be had to societies or boards, such as we shall mention presently, or to some other method of safeguarding the interests of wage-earners, the state to be asked for approval and protection.

It is gratifying to know that there are actually in existence not a few societies of this nature, consisting either of workmen alone or of workmen and employers together ; but it were greatly to be desired that they should multiply and become more effective.

No practical solution of this question will ever be found without the assistance of religion and the Church.

As far as regards the Church, its assistance will never be wanting, be the time or the occasion what it may ; and it will intervene with the greater effect in proportion as its liberty of action is the more unfettered ; let this be carefully noted by those whose office it is to provide for the public welfare. Every minister of holy religion must throw into the conflict all the energy of his mind and all the strength of his endurance.

No wonder that an American writer discovered that

one of the strangest and most interesting movements in history was that, under the lead of Leo XIII., international Catholicism should have brought its ideals closer to the force-ideas of Americanism. The time will come, perhaps, he ventured to predict, when the tiara and the starry flag will join in pursuit of the same ends, to bring about the same force of civilization.

Whether this be so or not, there is no doubt that the Pope did throw the whole force of his enormous influence in favor of using the Church as an instrument for improving the condition of the people.

The natural result of this new departure will be a breaking down of the barriers which sectarian theology has built up between Christians of different rites and creeds. When you are concerned solely upon hoisting an invisible soul into an impalpable heaven, you may without sense of shame or of guilt refuse the coöperation of all who do not see eye to eye with you about the Immaculate Conception or the Procession of the Holy Spirit. But when it comes to be a question of hauling a half-drowned donkey out of a mud-hole in which it is in danger of suffocating, there is not a bigot

in any of the churches but would feel condemned before God and man if he let that donkey drown rather than take his place at the windlass side by side with a heretic and a schismatic. And the more the Church sticks to the outward and visible works of charity and philanthropy, the more anti-Christian will seem to be the spirit of exclusion and excommunication which destroys Christian power by exaggerating the significance of Christian differences.

A PROMOTER OF PEACE.

The Pope's own version of his mission is to be found in his Encyclical for Pentecost, 1897, in which he says :

We have endeavored to direct all that we have attempted and persistently carried out during a long pontificate toward two chief ends,—in the first place, toward the restoration, both in rulers and peoples, of the principles of the Christian life in civil and domestic society, since there is no true life for men except from Christ ; and, secondly, to promote the reunion of those who have fallen away from the Catholic Church either by heresy or by schism, since it is most undoubtedly the will of Christ that all should be united in one flock under one shepherd.

Cardinal Satolli's account of the Pope's idea may be given in his own words :

From the time when Leo XIII. succeeded Pius IX., he had formed a grand plan in which he took cognizance of all the needs of humanity, and determined on the provisions he would make for those needs during the whole course of his pontificate. We can best distinguish this design of the Pope in three particular directions. First, in the Holy Father's zeal for the development of studies ; secondly, in the continued interest which he has shown in social science ; and, thirdly, in his untiring efforts to bring peace into the Christian countries by the spread of civilization, the teaching of religion, and the promotion of concord between Church and State.

Of the sincerity and earnestness with which he labored for peace, the whole world is witness. When the Spanish-American War broke out, the Pope, speaking in the Sistine Chapel on April 1, declared, with deep emotion : "I prayed God, with the whole force of my being, with the deepest fervor, to avert this sad war, and not to allow my pontificate to end in the smoke of battle. Otherwise I should have implored the Almighty to take me to Himself."

His prayer was not answered. He lived to make intercession for peace when the war was fought to a close.

And now he is himself at peace, where the wicked cease from troubling and the weary are at rest. Round his bier mankind stands as mourner and sadly murmurs :

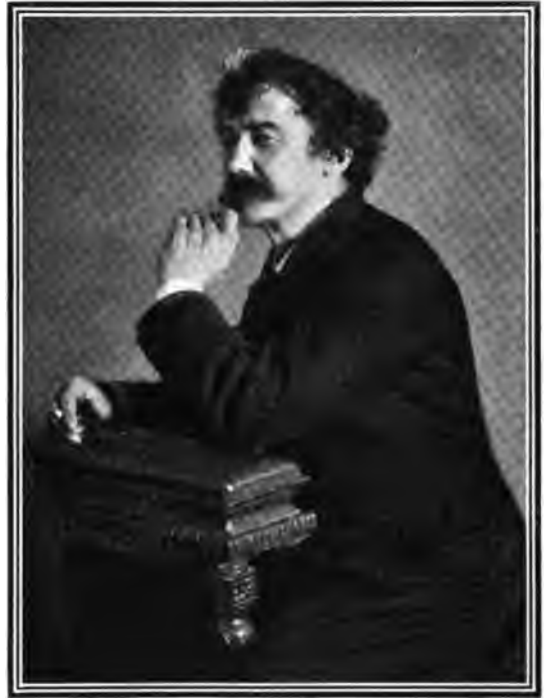
He was a man ; take him for all and all,
I shall not look upon his like again !

JAMES ABBOTT M'NEILL WHISTLER.

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT.

IN the death of Whistler the world of art loses one of its foremost lights. His fame presents, however, some curious contrasts. Though at every exhibition his works receive the highest award,—while he was an officer of the Legion of Honor,—while his portrait of his mother is one of the treasures of the Luxembourg, and his portrait of Carlyle in the Glasgow gallery one of the greatest of modern portraits, so far from being universal is his fame, it is notable that there are none of his paintings in the permanent galleries of London, where he worked for half a century, nor are there any in the permanent exhibitions of New York!

His art will ever be difficult to classify. Realizing that, though designated as an American painter, his art cannot justly be called American art, so preëminently cosmopolitan is it, future historians may be tempted to weave a theory of exotic influence from the painter's life-history, which is, that his grandfather was a colonel, his father a West Point engineer, his mother came from Wilmington, N. C.; he was born,—some say in Baltimore, some in



JAMES A. M'NEILL WHISTLER.



PORTRAIT OF WHISTLER, FROM A LITHOGRAPH BY PAGON.
(Loaned by Frederick Keppell & Co.)

Stonington, Conn., and others in Lowell, Mass. He himself has testified in court that he was born in St. Petersburg, Russia; but in White's "National Cyclopædia of Biography" an article which he revised gives the place and date as *Lowell, Mass.*, in 1834. At any rate, he spent his childhood in St. Petersburg, Russia, where his father was superintending the construction of the St. Petersburg & Moscow Railroad. In 1851, Whistler entered West Point, where he was far from being an ideal student. In drawing alone did he receive first-class marks; chemistry was one of his stumbling-blocks, and he has said, "If silicon had been a gas, I should have been a soldier." And it is not surprising that the man who was afterward so entirely a law unto himself should have cut a sorry figure in the army, where discipline takes precedence of the three R's.

It is rather in 1856, when settled in Paris in the studio of Gleyre, that he finds his element. Here he was fellow-student with George Du

Maurier and Edward Poynter. Here he studied for two years, and then settled in England. In 1859 and 1860, his paintings were refused at the Salon. Years afterward, Du Maurier, in "Trilby," caricatured the student Whistler under the alias of "Joe Sibley."

From 1856 to 1863 was a revolutionary period in French art, out of which stand the names of Millet, Corot, Rousseau, Courbet, Manet, Degas, Regnault, Alfred Stevens, Fortuny, Puvis de Chavannes, James Maris, Joseph Israels, Sisley, and Fantin-Latour. It would be idle to say that Whistler was influenced by any one of these, though it is recorded that for a time he followed Courbet; but it is certain that the revolutionary protests against the bituminous browns of antiquity and the hard and-fast draughtsmanship of academic training was not lost upon the young colorist, who was Minerva born as regards color sense.

Although on his arrival in England he again was rejected by the Paris Salon, some canvases were accepted by the Salon des Refusés, among



BLACK LION WHARF.

(Published in 1871, from the etching by Whistler; loaned by Frederick Keppell & Co.)

them "The White Girl." This picture created a sensation, and this marks the beginning of his fame, though notoriety came from his lawsuit with Ruskin.

The quarrel with Ruskin arose from the lat-



AT THE PIANO (1867).

(In the possession of Edmund Davis, Esq. From the painting by Whistler.)

ter's criticism in *Fors Clavigera*: "I have seen and heard much of Cockney impudence before now, but never expected to hear a coxcomb ask two hundred guineas for flinging a pot of paint in the public's face."

Whistler brought suit, and gave such novel testimony on cross-examination that the eyes of justice must have sparkled under their bandage. He obtained one farthing damages. He hung the awarded piece on his watch-chain.

WHISTLER THE PAINTER.

It is likely that Whistler's paintings will always be "caviare to the general," for the public invariably insists upon the story picture. Whistler detested the story picture. He himself gives the open sesame to the understanding of his paintings when he calls them "nocturnes" and "symphonies." He painted like a musician,—tonal qualities, harmonies, pitch, and concord are part of his science of painting. He has said :

Nature indeed contains the elements in color and form of all pictures, as the keyboard contains the notes of all music. But the artist is born to pick and choose and group, with science, these elements, that the result may be beautiful,—as the musician gathers his notes and forms chords, until he brings forth from chaos glorious harmony.

His predilection for color is toward the pearly gray tones so characteristic of Velasquez. The German critic, Muther, gives, perhaps, the best description of Whistler's technique :

The Parisian Impressionists gave him softness and fluency of modeling, and the feeling for atmosphere ; the Japanese, the bright harmony of their tone, the taste for fantastic decoration, and the surprises of detail. Diego Velasquez, the great line, the black and gray backgrounds, and the refined black and silver-gray tone—values in costumes. From the quaint and bizarre union of all these elements he formed his exquisite and personal style.

Although his recognition was slow, his rapid-



PORTRAIT OF THOMAS CARLYLE (1872).

(From the painting by Whistler, in the Corporation Gallery at Glasgow. From a photograph published by Frank Hegger.)

ity of production almost equaled that of Rembrandt, Rubens, and Turner. His paintings are yet to be catalogued, but a partial list includes :

"La Mère Gérard," a "reine des Halle," in the possession of his friend, the poet, Swinburne.

"The White Girl" (1882), exhibited in New York at the Metropolitan Museum of Art some years ago ; an effort was made to buy it for the museum, but the effort failed. "Portrait of Rose Whistler" (1882).

"The Last of Old Westminster" (1863) ; "Princesse du Pays de la Porcelaine" (1865), owned by Wm. Burrell, Esq. ; "The Little White Girl," in the possession of A. H. Studd, Esq., England ; "At the Piano" (1867) ; "Portrait of Carlyle" (1872), now in the Glasgow gallery ; "Gold Girl" (1878) ; "Nocturne in Blue and Silver" (1882) ; "Blue Girl" (1882) ; portrait of his mother (1872), now in the Luxembourg.

"Arrangement in Black" (Lady Archibald Campbell), exhibited in Munich in 1888 and owned by the Philadelphia Academy.

"Arrangement in Gray and Green" (Miss Alexander), exhibited in Munich, in 1888 (both painted at Lime Regis, England).

Many of his paintings are in America.

"Little Wild Rose" and "The Blacksmith" are in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.



PORTRAIT OF THE PAINTER'S MOTHER (1872).

(Arrangement in black and gray, by Whistler; now in the Luxembourg.)

"Rosa Corder" and "Comte de Montesquieu" are owned by Richard Canfield, whose portrait is the last work Whistler had in hand. "In Andalusia" and "The White Girl" are owned by Mr. Whittemore, of Naugatuck, Conn.; "The Thames in Ice," "Trouville," and "The Balcony" are in the possession of Colonel Freer; the portrait of Sarasate is owned by the Pittsburg Academy. It is to be hoped that the management of the St. Louis World's Fair will secure the majority of these paintings for a memorial exhibition.

SOME OF HIS MAXIMS.

In his Paris atelier he had framed upon the walls this motto of his own composing, "Art is the science of the beautiful," and he used for the further guidance of his pupils printed quotations from his "Ten o'Clock" aphorisms. He insisted upon his pupils seeing flesh low in tone. "Lights have been heightened until the white

of the tube alone remains; shadows have been deepened until black alone is left and scarcely a feature stays in its place."

HIS ETCHINGS.

Whistler obtained recognition as an etcher with more ease than he did recognition as a painter. His first etching was made in 1857, and in 1859 he published the Thames series. Of this series, Mr. Joseph Pennell thinks the "Black Lion Wharf" one of the greatest engraved plates that has been reproduced in modern times.

About a year ago, Whistler closed his beautiful studio in the Rue de Bac, Paris, and sought seclusion in a picturesque vine-clad old house overlooking the Thames that he had occupied in his etching days,—74 Cheyne Walk, Chelsea. Here he died suddenly on July 17.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF THE AMERICAN LABOR MOVEMENT.

BY JOHN R. COMMONS.

THREE years ago, there was much alarm over the organization of trusts. To-day, this alarm is transferred to the organization of labor. The capitalization of trusts was estimated at \$6,000,000,000, and the membership of unions has doubled since the trust era began. The trusts put up the prices of commodities and the unions the price of labor. But it was found that the prices of non-trust commodities also went up, and the wages of unorganized labor have also been increased. Both the trust and the union have thrived on the general growth of prosperity, and both have been organized to get a larger share of that prosperity.

IMPROVED LOT OF THE WORKER COMPARED WITH INCREASED EARNINGS OF CAPITAL.

Yet there is a difference between the two organizations. The prices of commodities rose earlier and went higher than the wages of labor. Dun's "index number" shows that the general level of prices rose 40 per cent. from July, 1897, to November, 1901, and has been nearly stationary for a year and a half. But there are very few unions that have secured an advance as high as 40 per cent. The bituminous mine-workers, the longshoremen, the housesmiths,—unions of practically unskilled labor,—have made advances of 40 per cent. to 100 per cent., but anthracite mine-workers, street-railway employees, and the skilled trades generally have advanced only 10 per cent. to 30 per cent. Railway net earnings per mile of line increased 50 per cent. from 1897 to 1902, but it required another year for railway wages to reach their increase of 15 per cent. to 20 per cent.

The very large increases above mentioned took place in occupations where wages had been seriously reduced during the period of depression, owing to immigration and lack of organization. The smaller increases in the skilled trades occurred where wages had not been reduced. The stove molders, for example, suffered no reduction whatever during the depression, but they have since secured advances amounting to 15 per cent.

The contrast between non-trust commodities and unorganized labor is even greater than that between trust prices and union wages. Bread-stuffs and other farm products have risen 50

per cent. to 70 per cent.; and, while farm wages in the middle West have advanced 50 per cent., the wages of unorganized labor in manufactures and transportation have risen 10 per cent. to 20 per cent. And in all cases the rise of wages has followed at a distance of one to two years behind prices.

True, the amount of employment has greatly increased, and this has occurred at the time of the increase in prices and before the increase in wages. Where there has been an increase of 20 per cent. in amount of employment, and where daily wages increased 20 per cent., the aggregate gain in yearly earnings has been 44 per cent. From the standpoint of the *standard of living*, the wage-earner's condition has more than kept pace with the rise in prices,—i.e., his yearly earnings will purchase more goods at the increased prices than could have been purchased in 1897 at lower prices. But from the standpoint of his *share in distribution*, his position is lower. While the wage-earner has gained in two ways,—increase in rate of wages and increase in amount of employment,—the capitalist has also gained in two ways,—increase in prices and increase in amount of production. If the wage-earner works a larger number of days, the employer gets a larger output. So that, with prices 40 per cent. higher and wages 20 per cent. higher, the wage-earner's *share* of the increased production is less than his share of the smaller production. His command of comforts has increased, but the profits and rents from investments have increased still more.

IMMIGRATION AND ORGANIZED LABOR.

This precession of prices and wages is characteristic of all periods of prosperity in all countries, but it is especially marked in the United States, where the tariff protects prices from foreign competition, while free immigration admits foreign workmen as competitors for wages. In the five years from 1898 to 1903, the imports of merchandise increased 66 per cent., while the number of immigrants increased 270 per cent. The rise in wages is checked by immigration, but the rise in prices is favored by protection.

Yet the most significant fact of the organization of labor at the present time is the organiza-

tion of recent immigrants. These belong mainly to the unskilled or less skilled occupations, where immigration works its full effect. The unions of skilled workmen, like the manufacturers, through the tariff laws, have been able to protect themselves against immigrants through the contract labor law of 1885. But this law affords almost no protection to unskilled labor. Consequently, if this class of labor succeeds in organizing and advancing its wages, the movement is extremely significant as regards the future of organized labor in general. It is all the more so because, through division of labor and substitution of machinery, unskilled labor is encroaching upon the territory of skilled labor. The mine-workers' union, which in five years has raised the minimum wage in the bituminous field from \$1 or \$1.25 per day to \$2.36 per day, is composed of nearly all races of Europe. They are the immigrants from southern and eastern Europe whose ingress for twenty years had driven out the English-speaking miner, but who have now themselves acquired the spirit and capacity of organization. The strength of their union is in the Central and Western States, and we find, as we approach the Eastern States, that they are less able to overcome the impact of immigration. The same class of workmen in the anthracite field gained an advance of only 20 per cent. in the minimum wage, and the organization of fifteen thousand Italian laborers in New York City, in 1903, was utterly defeated in their strike for an increase above the \$1.35 and \$1.50 which they have been receiving.

In this connection, the most remarkable organization produced by this period of prosperity is that of the Longshoremen, now numbering seventy thousand members. This union includes some fifteen races and thirty-six occupations or classes of work, from that of tug-boat captains, receiving \$165 per month, to divers and wreckers, at \$10 or \$15 per day, many kinds of unskilled labor, and even sawmill employees of the lumber regions. Many of its local unions are divided on racial lines, there being Italian, Polish, and Hungarian locals on Lake Erie, Finnish and Scandinavian locals on Lake Superior, and colored locals at Southern ports.

THE GARMENT WORKERS AND THE UNION LABEL.

The United Garment Workers is another organization of twelve or fifteen nationalities, the Russian Jew being a prominent factor. It includes a large number of separate unions under a federal form of government. These unions have made a notable advance toward abolishing the sweat shops, or small contractors' shops. With them, the union label is a source of strength

in proportion to the growth of unionism at large, and the spectacle is daily offered of employers seeking the national headquarters and asking for the unionization of their shops. The overall and workmen's clothing trade is thus almost completely controlled through the label, and the union has gone so far as to organize an association of label-using manufacturers, in order to cooperate with them in regulating prices, sales, output, and quality of product. It is an interesting fact that this union grants the label only to large establishments, and is thus using the labor movement to contribute to the concentration of industry. Of the fifty-two union labels now recognized by the American Federation of Labor, only two or three, such as those of the Brewery Workers and the Cigarmakers, have been as effective aids to unionism as the label of the Garment Workers.

UNIONS OF UNSKILLED WAGE-EARNERS.

Another notable fact in the organization of unskilled labor is that of the so-called "federal labor unions." These are organizations of all classes of labor not provided for by a trade-union in the locality. They are organized directly by the agents of the American Federation of Labor, for the purpose of taking in every wage-earner. It is in the smaller industrial towns of the middle West, with a population of from ten thousand to fifty thousand, that these federal unions have been most successful, and one may find several such towns where a man or a woman cannot work at any job unless he or she has a union card. The federal union is often the largest in point of numbers, including, as it does, all who are not enrolled in trade-unions, and in certain cases it has raised the minimum wages of common labor from \$1 or \$1.25 to \$1.75 or more. In this way, the skilled trades of the country are looking out for the interests of the unskilled, and are thereby protecting themselves by lessening the pressure of competition from below. The union of fifteen thousand Italian laborers in New York City was of this class, and their cause was sponsored, though unsuccessfully, by the federated unions of the city.

There are but two large cities, Chicago and San Francisco, where the universal organization of labor has come as near fruition as in the smaller cities just mentioned. The key to organization in these cases has been the success of the teamsters' unions, whose members have sympathized with the other unions, for no industry can continue without teamsters. It would require a magazine article of itself to describe the industrial revolution which has occurred in Chicago within a single year just closing. Classes

of unskilled labor never hitherto organized have suddenly come forward with complete organization, recognition of union, large increases in pay, and decreases in hours. To indicate the new wide-reaching fever of unionism in that city, it only needs the mention of the Window Washers' union, the Elevator Conductors' and Starters' union, the Stablemen's union, the Scrubwomen's union, and the Teachers' Federation. Those who have been familiar with the industrial conditions of Chicago since the time of the anarchists' hanging have predicted for that city the coming decisive struggle of capital and labor, and the really great surprise is, not that labor has organized, but that its organization has been accompanied with no greater violence and vindictiveness than the past two years have seen. Undoubtedly, the prime reason for this comparatively peaceful revolution has been the conciliatory spirit of employers, who have accepted the new conditions and have entered upon arbitration agreements with the new unions. In this policy, the employing team-owners, with the manager of Marshall Field & Co. at their head, have furnished the balance-wheel which has held in check the employers and the unions in their own and nearly all other industries.

THE TEXTILE OPERATIVES.

The leading exception to the successful struggles for increased wages is that of the Lowell Textile Workers. Eighteen thousand operatives, the majority newly organized, came against two factors that could not be overcome,—namely, a corner in raw material and Southern competition. The mill-owners were indifferent, or actually welcomed the strike, and found greater profits in selling their raw cotton than they could have found in working it up. Southern competition has shown itself to be an influence equal to immigration in checking wage demands and labor organization. The extremely low wages and long hours, and the child labor of the whites who have come down from the mountains to the factories, have kept back other workers in cotton textiles who themselves had been wage-depressing immigrants from Europe and Canada. The great strike of seventy thousand operatives in the woolen textile industries at Philadelphia, which is now being stubbornly fought on both sides, also hangs largely on the prospects of Southern competition.

INTERUNION DISPUTES.

With the increased membership and strength of unions, a hitherto latent cause of strikes has come into prominence,—that of contests for jurisdiction. A growing union, confident in its

success, encroaches upon the territory of another union. The Electrical Workers dispute with the Bricklayers as to who shall cut the groove in the brick wall along which the wires are to run. The Longshoremens attempt to organize workmen claimed by the Seamen or by the Freight and Baggage Handlers, and so on. At the recent convention of the American Federation of Labor there were eighteen of these contests acted upon. Many of them were submitted to arbitration; but so bitter is the feeling in a family dispute of this kind that the defeated union often refused to abide by the decision. Employers fairly inclined toward organized labor have seen their business stopped, not because of contests between capital and labor, but because one union demands that employers shall discharge all the members of another union. President Gompers, in addressing his fellow-unionists, said: "Beyond doubt, the greatest problem, the danger which above all others threatens, not only the success, but the very existence, of the American Federation of Labor is the question of jurisdiction. . . . Unless our affiliated national and international unions radically and soon change their course, we shall at no distant day be in the midst of an internecine contest unparalleled in any era of the industrial world." In fact, it was a dispute between two carpenters' unions that first drove the employing builders of New York to effect an organization in opposition to all the building trades unions and to declare a lockout which, with the original carpenters' strike, has thrown employees out of work for three months in the summer of 1903.

Some progress is being made toward the settlement of jurisdictional disputes. Usually, they are settled only when the employers take a hand, as in the New York building trades. The Garment Workers absorbed the Special Order clothing makers of Chicago within the past three months, after a strike which threatened a loss of many millions of dollars to the employers. The employers joined with the American Federation of Labor to enforce the decree of that body and to compel their employees to join the Garment Workers. Here the race question played a part, for the Special Order workers are Swedes and Norwegians, who objected to incorporation in a union largely composed of Russian Jews, Italians, and other nationalities with lower standards of living, and the consolidation would have been impossible without the powerful alliance of the employers with the Garment Workers.

THE QUESTION OF TRADE AUTONOMY.

Jurisdictional disputes, in some cases, have merged into another dispute which has come

forward with the growth of large corporations and the increasing preponderance of unskilled labor. This is the dispute between the old-line trade-union and the new industrial union. The Mine Workers, the Brewery Workers, and the Longshoremen represent the new principle which holds that every employee working for the same employers in an entire industry should, without distinction of trade, belong to the same union. Firemen, carpenters, and everybody (except engineers) in or about a mine are mine-workers, and everybody employed on or about a dock is a longshoreman. The latter union has recently added to its title the words "Marine and Transport Workers." On the other hand, in the building trades, and the stronger unions, like engineers, in other industries, each union strongly adheres to its trade autonomy. But the building trades accomplish the object of the industrial union through the Central Board of Delegates and the sympathetic strike. Notwithstanding jurisdictional disputes, and, in fact, for the sake of settling such disputes, there is a strong tendency of unions in a single industry to come together, by amalgamation, as with the longshoremen, or by federation, as with the garment workers, the printing trades, the metal trades, and the building trades. There have sprung up all kinds of central bodies, with more or less jurisdiction over constituent unions, such as marine trades councils, metal trades councils, building trades boards, water-front federations, steam-power councils, team-drivers' councils, allied printing trades, and so on. In this way, trade autonomy is preserved, but joint action, sympathetic strikes, and jurisdictional demarkation are secured. At the same time, the hardest fought of all strikes are likely to occur in these struggles of the new industrial unions to absorb the stronger unions, like the engineers.

EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

The organization of labor has forced the organization of employers. Over against each union or federation of unions is an employers' union. The Longshoremen are met by various associations of Dock Managers, Lake Carriers, Lumber Carriers, and others; the Mine Workers by the Mine Operators; the metal trades councils by the metal trades associations; the molders by the founders; the printing trades by the Newspaper Publishers' Association and the Typothetae. The ups and downs of these associations of employers is a chapter in this industrial revolution fully as cogent for the future as the ups and downs of the unions. In some localities, the employers have "smashed" the

unions; in others, the unions have smashed the employers; while in others, a new form of industrial government, with representation of interests and a complete system of judicial and executive departments, has arisen. In San Francisco, the Building Trades Council lays down the law to the employers; in Chicago, the Building Contractors' Association does the same to the unions; while in New York, a Joint Court of Appeals and Executive Board is being formed.

While employers' associations differ widely in their policies, it begins to appear that they are generally working toward two principles in their resistance to the unions,—the right to employ non-unionists and the right to prevent restrictions on output. The Anthracite Coal Strike Commission set up the standard for both of these principles, and employers' associations are finding therein a policy which saves them from indiscriminate attacks on unions but preserves to themselves freedom in the management of their business.

SIGNS OF GROWING CONSERVATISM.

Out of this organization of employers and their own consciousness of strength there are signs of growing conservatism on the part of unions. The Building Trades Council of San Francisco resolved that no more wage demands should be authorized so long as present business conditions continue. The Chicago Federation of Labor resolved that no constituent union should go on strike without first placing its demands in the hands of the federation's executive committee for attempted settlement. The Longshoremen have given to their international president a veto power over sympathetic strikes and exorbitant demands of local unions. Practically all of the serious strikes of the past two years have been those of new unions or rejuvenated unions. With the first flush of power, and resentment over past wrongs, they hasten to show their strength by extreme demands, and the restraining control of older unions is beginning to be asserted.

That the unions are appreciating the importance of strong leadership is suggested in the liberal increases in salaries which they are giving to national officers like John Mitchell and E. E. Clark. That they are preparing themselves for the future is seen in the new million-dollar reserve fund of the mine-workers, and the quarter-million fund of the steel-workers. Able leaders with strong reserve funds tend to eliminate small strikes, and to make the strike of the future something that both sides will hesitate long before permitting, except as a last resort.

THE PLIGHT OF THE ENGLISH WORKER.

BY FRANK FAYANT.

"CHEAP foreign labor" is a cry little heard now in this country, although a few years ago it was a political issue. Since then, the nation has had a wonderful material progress, and our expanding industries, by the help of highly efficient workmen and marvelous machines, have invaded the world with their products. Although our steel-workers are the most highly paid in the world, yet we can profitably sell our steel rails under the shadow of English rolling mills; our molders and machinists earn wages undreamed of in Europe, but our locomotives and electric generators are sold around the world; instead of suffering from the competition of foreign mills, our cotton-weavers, the best paid anywhere, are making goods for the Orient; our New England shoes are worn by the workers in English shoe factories, despondent over declining wages. In our prosperity, we have stopped worrying about "cheap foreign labor." Our industries, such a short while ago on the defensive, have taken up offensive warfare. The cry of alarm now comes from the other side of the Atlantic,—it is not "cheap foreign labor," but "efficient American labor."

THE BLIGHT OF CASTE.

One does not have to live very long in England to discover where the trouble lies in the condition of English workers. The fetters of caste bind most tightly on the workers. By stifling the ambition of the workers, caste stifles industry. That the present crisis in English industry,—a crisis which is growing more acute day after day,—is not the fault of the English workers, but the fault of the English social system, must be apparent to any one who has come in contact with English-born workers in American industries. The moment you set an Englishman at work in the free atmosphere of America, he becomes as efficient as the native-born. Many of our American captains of industry were originally plain English workmen. Freeing themselves from caste fetters, and coming to a land where every man has the opportunity of free development, they have achieved distinction that would have been denied them in England.

An English philanthropist who believes that he can best serve his country by educating the workers is sending to America delegations of Englishmen from the workshops. He hopes, by

thus opening their eyes to the nobility of labor in our democracy, to infuse into English workers some of the energy and strenuousness of the Americans. Our workmen need no spurring on to greater effort, but they do need to be shown how fortunate they are. An American philanthropist could well serve this country by sending over to England workers from our industries, that they might see the other side of the picture. No observing American worker could fail, on returning from an inspection of English industrial life, to feel more than he ever did the dignity of American citizenship. He would be infused by a lasting optimism; when he touched foot again on American soil, he would be brimming over with thankfulness that he was an American worker.

DETERIORATION OF THE ENGLISH TOWN WORKER.

Caste conventions decree that the workers in England are of baser metal, that they must live within the narrow barriers set for them. This submerging of a great mass of the people has been more pronounced during the past half-century. Before the repeal of the Corn Laws, England was an agricultural nation. But the statesmen of that period wisely foresaw that England could only retain a commanding position in world trade by giving its whole energy to manufacturing. America, with its golden prairies, it was seen, would rapidly become a world-provider of food; England must become a provider of manufactures; and so agriculture was killed by a single stroke. The nation plunged into manufacturing. The result has been that the best blood of the farms has gone into workshops. In America, where agriculture has grown to be a greater and greater industry, there is an abundance of vigorous reserve force, constantly feeding the towns. The vigor of America is in the farms. But this is no longer true in England. There, the farms have been sapped of their strength, and they no longer freshen the life of the crowded towns. Deprived of their source of vitality, the towns are deteriorating, and the physical standard of the masses is slowly declining. This has been vividly brought to view within the past three years by the inability of the army to maintain its physical standard. The new recruits are a sorry contrast to the old English soldiery.

THE DRINK EVIL.

The American workingman in England is amazed by the amount of drinking done by the English worker. Two months' wages of the average English worker's yearly income goes to the "public-house." In no country in the world is there so much drunkenness among the common people. That this abnormal indulgence in drink is a serious tax on industry, is undoubted. English manufacturers whom I have met all tell me that could they keep their workmen sober there would be less to fear from American competition. The "drink bill" of England, the tax on which produces three-eighths of the total revenue of the government, is about eight hundred million dollars a year. Of this huge amount, it is estimated that the working people spend five hundred and fifty million dollars. In proportion to his earnings, the English worker spends four times as much money on drink as does the American.

But no statistics are needed to show the slavery of English workers to drink. One needs only to roam through the streets of the poorer quarters of London at night to get at the facts. The dirty, ill-smelling public bars are crowded with dull-eyed men and women and children, drinking heavy beers. The women often stand at the bar or sit on a wooden bench, holding an ale jug in one arm and a baby in the other. I have walked for miles at night through the lanes and alleys of London, glanced in at scores of public-houses, and never failed to find women in them. One always expects to see the poorly dressed women and the red-coated soldiery. One night, in roaming about Whitechapel, I chanced into a barroom in Dorset Street, said to be the worst street in London. Five unkempt denizens of the quarter were drinking at the bar, and all five were women—old women. And down the wretched little street, a few doors from the public-house, there was a wretched lodging-house, where, in a single room, I found a score of unkempt women—old women—cooking their frugal suppers over an open fire. The night's lodging cost four cents. A little earlier, down on the river-front, I had happened upon a pitiful line of five hundred men, shivering in the cold, waiting for the opening of a free shelter,—the only free shelter in London. Every night of the year, that line forms on the docks.

PHYSICAL DEGENERACY.

The submerging of the workers in the crowded towns has developed a class of physical decadents such as are to be found in America only among destitute aliens. Mr. Walter Wyckoff,

who has done so much practical research work among the workers, here and in Europe, says that in all his wanderings about America he never saw an American among the destitute poor. In East London, you see poverty and wretchedness that have been bred for generations in English families. Of every hundred men in all London over sixty-five years of age, nineteen are paupers; of every hundred women, twenty-two are paupers. And then there is the army of vagrants and the ever-increasing thousands of insane. But one need not go into the East End or search through government Blue Books for evidences of physical decadence. Stroll down the Strand and into Fleet Street, on any Sunday night, and study the faces of the thousands of young men and women from East London who pour through this thoroughfare, six and eight abreast, laughing and singing, and you need go no farther. They are not the destitute poor; rather are they young working people who can dress neat enough to join this weekly parade. They represent the average of London working people. But their faces are stamped with the marks of their class. On holiday nights, hordes from East London invade the West End. On the night of the King's coronation, two human streams that filled the Strand from wall to wall flowed on for hours,—hundreds of thousands of the King's subjects, whose lives, from birth, have been stunted, mentally, morally, and physically.

It is not the poverty of the submerged millions that sickens one,—it is the hopeless type of men and women that caste has bred. Bitter poverty can be dealt with; but what can be done with the lowly who are quite content with their condition, and in whom the fire of ambition has ceased to burn?

SUICIDAL POLICY OF BRITISH TRADE-UNIONISM.

The refusal of the English higher classes to educate the working classes accounts, in a large measure, for the state of contented ignorance in which the submerged millions live. But no amount of education, unattended by an effacement of caste barriers, will put the English workingman on the same footing as the American. Our workers throw their whole strength into their tasks because they are ambitious to go higher, and because they know that no one will try to stop them from climbing. But the English worker looks upon his trade merely as a means of gaining a livelihood, and, knowing that he is expected to keep in his own social plane, he does not seek to achieve greater things.

English workmen have banded themselves together into organizations that not only cripple

the industries in which they are employed, but that deprive them of any chance of bettering their condition. The whole idea of English trade-unions is that the workers are fixed on a certain level of material prosperity; as they cannot reach a higher level, therefore they must take measures to prevent their dropping to a lower. Labor, therefore, arrays itself in direct antagonism to capital. It accepts the caste brand set upon it by the higher classes, instead of fighting to efface the mark.

The "ca' canny" system permeates English industry. To "ca' canny" is to "go easy." The English worker's idea is that the less work he does, the more there will be left to do, and therefore the less will be the chance of his or his fellow-workers' getting out of employment. This system went on very well before the days of American competition; but now that the products of American industries are invading English markets, the "ca' canny" workers are in a sad plight. Their slothful way of working so increases the cost of manufacture that the products of American shops may be sold with profit in the very towns in which the English articles are made, despite the fact that American workmen receive much higher wages, while their products have to be transported thousands of miles.

RESTRICTION OF OUTPUT.

The first idea of English workers is to restrict the output of the individual. The bricklaying trade in London is a good example. Thirty years ago, an English bricklayer laid twelve hundred bricks a day. Ten years later, the number had been reduced to a thousand. Now an English bricklayer who laid more than four hundred a day would be ostracized by his fellows as a traitor to labor. The trade-union decrees four hundred as the maximum number of bricks that may be laid, and on work done for the municipality the maximum is further reduced to three hundred and thirty. But even this low standard is not adhered to. In the building of a London board school, the average proved to be but two hundred, while on another municipal building the contractor found that his men were laying but seventy bricks a day. This gradual reduction of the workman's output has been in the face of advancing wages. It needs no study of engineering or political economy to understand what a disastrous effect such willful "leveling down" of industry has on national progress.

What the English worker can do when he has an incentive for honest labor has been strikingly illustrated in the building of the new American electric shops in Manchester. English builders

estimated that the work would take three or four years; an American contractor has done it in twelve months. He increased the rate of wages by two cents an hour, weeded out the incompetent, encouraged the ambitious, and raised the bricklaying standard from four hundred to eighteen hundred bricks a day. On plain work, he actually got the native workmen to lay twenty-five hundred bricks a day. The trade-union agitators were threatening at times, but they were not ready to oppose an employer who paid higher wages. The result was, that by adding a few cents to the workmen's daily wages, the American contractor got them to do four times as much work as they had been in the habit of doing.

EVILS OF "CA' CANNY."

This "ca' canny" spirit vitiates the workers, just as their excessive drinking does. Held down by caste fetters, they do not strive, by the strenuous life, to achieve greater things. They work, like men in a chain gang, because they must work to live. No restless enthusiasm, no divine discontent, spurs them on. Holidays they demand in increasing number. Sir Christopher Furness, one of the leading English captains of industry, says that the increasing idleness of the English workman is a heavy weight on industry. The trouble would not be so serious if the men did not extend a single day's idleness into several days of drunken carousing.

Naturally, the "ca' canny" spirit stifles invention. The mechanic who told his foreman of a better way of doing a bit of work would be promptly told to mind his own business. The mechanic is hired to work, not to think. A century ago, the English nation was leading the world in industrial inventions, but that day is past. English industry no longer originates,—it imitates.

OPPOSITION TO LABOR-SAVING MACHINERY.

Invention to-day has to do with machinery, and the English worker is opposed to the use of machinery. He always has been. He stoned the inventor of the spinning-frame. To this day, many of the Lancashire weavers tend but two looms, and the maximum is four; a New England weaver tends eight looms. In the early days of the steam-engine, there were the "plug-drawing riots," when workmen went about crippling the workshops by drawing the plugs of the boilers. Readers of Charlotte Brontë's "Shirley" will recall the riots that resulted from the introduction of machinery in Yorkshire, and the shooting of Moore. This

tale gives an illuminating picture of the period when machinery was first getting a foothold in England.

English workers have steadily opposed the introduction of labor-saving machinery, and when better machines have been put into workshops the trade-unions have rigorously applied to them the "ca' canny" principle. The inventor of a machine has one great goal—economical production; opposing this, the English workers have one idea—expensive production. The English worker, branded with the mark of his caste, regards capital as an enemy. He does not recognize, as does the American worker, that the cheapening of manufacture means increased industrial profits, not only to the manufacturer, but to the men in his employ. Every effort is made by the workers to destroy the efficiency of machinery. They no longer raise riots and destroy machines; now they arbitrarily restrict the output of machines and force the manufacturer to employ useless men in running them. If, in an iron-working shop, for example, a new machine is erected, and this new type has been so perfected by the inventor that its output is double that of the old type, the trade-union rules that it shall run only to three-fourths of its capacity. If the new type is so wonderfully automatic that a row of six machines can be tended by one machinist, the trade-union rules that six men must tend the six machines. "Ca' canny" is the idea.

SMALLER OUTPUT—LOWER WAGES.

"Ca' canny" work restricts output without restricting cost; therefore, it decreases the manufacturer's profits and decreases the worker's wages. Restriction of output can result in but one thing,—restriction of earnings. I wish I could blazon that on every workshop door in America. "Ca' canny" work in English machine shops restricts wages just as it does in the building trades. Where three men tend three machines in England, their combined wages exceed but little the earnings of a single American worker tending three machines of the same type but running his machines at higher speed. This is why it is that an American manufacturer, although he pays his individual workmen wages enormously in excess of the English scale, can actually exceed his English rival's output with a smaller wage account. And, moreover, because of this superior efficiency of the American workshop, our manufacturers are enabled to invade England's markets, deprive English manufacturers of trade, and decrease the earnings of English workers. And it is nobody's fault but the English worker's,—or, shall I say it is the

fault of the feudalistic scheme of society that brands the worker as a man of baser metal?

The American worker who accuses capital of taking all the profits of increased production,—and there is some of this un-American talk nowadays,—simply ignores the facts. The wage scales of the leading industries show that the workers are partners with large interests in the present prosperity of the nation. Take the railways, for example. Just as our workshops have been filled with more and more productive machinery, increasing alike the profits of capital and labor, so, too, have our railways been equipped with more and more powerful engines and capacious cars, with like results. The greatest of our American railways last year increased its mile-tonnage by a quarter of a billion tons, its passenger traffic by twenty-five million passengers; but the mileage of its trains actually showed a decrease. Every man worked a little harder, every train carried a heavier load, and the gross earnings increased by twenty-five million dollars. And the gainers by this prosperity have not been the shareholders alone, but the tens of thousands of workers.

THE STANDARD OF LIVING.

One often meets English workingmen who assert that the cost of living is so much higher in America that the higher wages are of no great value. While the necessities of life do cost more in America than in England, this difference is not commensurate with the difference in wages. The American worker spends much more on food and shelter and clothing than the worker in any other country, because he lives much more comfortably. No other working people have such good food, or are so well clothed and housed, as our own. And no other working people have such comfortable accounts in the savings-banks. The common people of this country have reached a plane of living not attainable by the workers of any other land. Our national prosperity is built on the prosperous condition of the great mass of the people.

That there is to be any great change in English industrial conditions so long as three-fourths of the English people are fettered by caste conventions, does not seem likely. If there is a change very soon, it will be due to the investment of American capital in English industry and the infusion of American ideas of democracy into English life. Just so soon as the English workingman has opened to him the way to achievement, he will enter into his work with enthusiasm and compete with the American. Meanwhile, the free-born American worker must continue to prosper.

THE GERMAN ELECTIONS AND THE SOCIALIST PARTY.

BY WOLF VON SCHIERBRAND, PH.D.

(Author of "Germany," "The Kaiser's Speeches," etc.)

FROM several aspects, the result of the recent German elections is of interest. What has principally struck the observer in other lands, of course, were the immense gains of the Socialists. But intrinsically of greater import was the fact that the nation set the seal of condemnation upon the recent tariff policy of the government and upon the rule of the Agrarian majority. This was partially bound up in the Socialist victories, for they had fought their campaign primarily on the tariff issue. However, the crushing defeat of the most fanatic leaders in the Agrarian movement, the men who had befuddled the brain of the rural population for several years preceding, was accomplished quite independently of the Socialists, in districts where scarcely any Socialists were to be found. Again, the losses sustained by the rest of the so-called Agrarians, though slight numerically, were also significant enough in this connection. The main result, therefore, of the elections, so far as immediate political issues are concerned, is the country's distinct disapproval of the high protective and Agrarian policy lately inaugurated, at the instigation of the manorial lords of Prussia's eastern provinces, and of their political allies, by Count von Bülow, the imperial chancellor. This disapproval extends, of course, to the new tariff law, the provisions of which so severely discriminate against American imports of every kind.

COMPOSITION OF THE NEW REICHSTAG.

The legislative period of a newly elected Reichstag is five years in duration, and the preceding election was, therefore, in 1898. At by-elections in the interval, the trend of public opinion could be indistinctly read; but the outcome of such elections is never a sure guide, even to the trained politician. As a matter of fact, the Agrarian majority in the Reichstag had counted on a sweeping victory this year, and the actual results came as a stunning surprise to them, notwithstanding Socialist boasts beforehand. It is worth while noting the changed party complexion of the new Reichstag, when compared with that of 1898-1903. The Socialists won 25 seats, giving them a total of 81 members.

Nearly every other faction or party lost, though not largely,—the Center, 4 seats; the Conservatives, 5; the National Liberals, 5; the Radicals, 14. The Poles (who make up a faction by themselves in both Reichstag and Prussian Diet) won 2 seats in addition to their 14, owing to the fierce race strife going on for some years past in the Polish provinces of Prussia. The other insignificant factions remained about stationary. Yet, measured by the practical influence these relatively small changes will have on the policy of the government, and on the action of the Reichstag in important matters, such as the tariff, commercial treaties, army and naval increase, etc., and internal improvements, the outcome of the elections will be, indeed, of far-reaching consequence.

RENEWAL OF COMMERCIAL TREATIES,—THE TARIFF.

For the slight shifting of factional strength in the Reichstag will, for one thing, destroy the Agrarian majority there. It will create a new composite majority, made up of the Socialists, the Radicals, the National Liberals, and the left wing of the Center, with the addition of a few Independents. This majority will favor the renewal of commercial treaties with Russia, Austria, Italy, Roumania, Switzerland, Holland, Argentina, and some less important countries,—treaties which are on the point of running out.

For the near future of Germany, these commercial treaties are of the utmost concern. They were concluded and ratified ten years ago, and the rapid rise of Germany as an industrial and exporting center is palpably due to them, at least in large degree. This becomes clear by analyzing the official statistics of the empire for the period of 1892-1902. They not only show that from the moment these treaties went into effect the volume of export trade rose, quickly and steadily, from less than \$800,000,000 in 1892 to nearly \$1,200,000,000 in 1900 and since (imports increasing at a corresponding ratio); but they also show,—and this is more to the point,—that this increase was mainly with the treaty countries. Now, the last Reichstag, favoring, above all, high duties on foreign agri-



AUGUST BEBEL.

(Leader of the Social Democratic party.)

cultural products, refused to renew these treaties save on terms unacceptable to the treaty countries. It was partly due to the apprehension in the commercial minds of Germany as to the government's ability to renew these treaties that a financial and industrial depression has prevailed in the empire during the last three years.

With the new Reichstag in the saddle, this fear will vanish, and trade, especially export trade, will revive. It is true, however, that Germany will have to sacrifice, to a certain extent, her agricultural interests in order to conclude trea-

ties satisfactory to the other contracting parties. But that is unavoidable, and since the manufacturing and exporting interests now predominate in the empire, in the ratio of three to two (when compared with the soil-cultivating interests), it is sound statecraft to consider them first. There has been a latent agricultural crisis in Germany for many years, and with the renewal of the commercial treaties it will become more acute. Agricultural conditions, however, will gradually adjust themselves there. For one thing, Germany will turn more extensively to dairying and cattle-breeding, and the raising of fruit and vegetables, and abandon in larger measure grain culture, in which she can no longer compete, even with moderately high protection, with the virgin soil of the United States, Argentina, and other countries. But her teeming population will have low-priced breadstuffs, and her laborers will be able to eat meat oftener than once a month.

Another indirect result of the elections will be the disuse or repeal of the recently enacted high-tariff law. Indeed, with the commercial treaties spoken of in existence, and with the new treaties Germany hopes to conclude with this country and

with England, this high-protection law could no longer stand.

PARTIES AND FACTIONS IN THE REICHSTAG.

Reference has been made in the above to party groupings in Germany. These are rather peculiar. I shall here confine myself to those in the Reichstag alone. Besides the Socialists, there are about a dozen factions in it, all more or less sharply divided. There are the two factions of the Conservative party, the Old Conservatives (*Altconservativen*) and the Free Conservatives (*Freiconservativen*) or Imperial party (*Reichspar-*

ten), which together have now a strength of seventy-one. They represent, in the main, the interests of the privileged classes,—of the nobility, the manorial estate-holders, the army officers, the court officials, and the whole bureaucracy, and are the more or less devoted partisans of monarch and crown. Next, there is the Center,—a political anomaly. For the Center pretends to specially and exclusively represent the Catholics of Germany, forming about one-third of the entire population (twenty-four millions out of fifty-seven millions), and is Ultramontane and Papal in its tendencies. Numerically, the Center is the largest party in the Reichstag, filling now one hundred and two seats out of a total of three hundred and ninety-seven. The National Liberals are supposed to champion the cause of the manufacturing classes, and, politically considered, favor the expansion and more perfect unification of the empire. They are a party which, in years gone, was in the ascendant, but which has been steadily shrinking. In the '80s, they rolled up a membership of one hundred and ten; at present they number fifty-one. The Radicals, split into the Richter faction (*Freisinnige Volkspartei*), the Barth faction (*Freisinnige Vereinigung*), and the South German Democrats (*Süddeutsche Volkspartei*), now have a combined strength of but thirty-six, having lost fourteen seats in the elections just held. They, in the main, favor a purely parliamentary form of government, largely modeled on England's; and though they have dwindled away greatly, they still count in their ranks much of the highest intellect, greatest wealth, and social progress in the empire.

This comprises the list of the larger groupings. But there are some smaller ones, such as the Polish faction (16); the Anti-Semites (9); the protesting Alsatians (9); the Danish (1); the Guelphs, being those unreconciled to the annexation of Hanover by Prussia in 1866 (3); the Independents (*Wilde*,—i.e., "wild ones"), which represent about every remaining shade of political opinion (11). These small groups not infrequently, on a close vote, hold the balance of power, and hence are not to be undervalued in practical politics.

PRESENT ISSUES IN GERMAN POLITICS.

Incidentally, a glimpse has been afforded as to the division of political opinion in the empire. But a somewhat more extended statement is, perhaps, required to afford an intelligent view of the matter. The principal pending questions for the Germany of to-day are the following:

Economically—1. The tariff and the commercial treaties, including new ones with England

and with the United States, about which enough has been said. 2. The further upbuilding of the imperial system of old-age, invalid, and accident pensions, which is favored by the Socialists and the entire Liberal Left, and opposed by part of the Center and the Right (Conservatives, Anti-Semites, Poles, Guelphs, Alsatians).

Politically—1. Curtailment of the general Reichstag franchise. This is desired by the whole Conservative party and its reactionary allies, also by the imperial government itself. But with the new composition of the Reichstag such a measure, which would necessitate the repeal of a paragraph in the constitution of the empire, could not pass. 2. The maintenance of the Dreibund, or Triple Alliance. This is favored by a decided majority of the Reichstag. 3. A closer understanding with the Papacy,—favored solely by the Center, the Poles, and the Alsatians. 4. An *entente cordiale* with both England and the United States,—a cause warmly espoused by the Radicals and the Socialists, and, to a slighter extent, by most of the other parties and factions. 5. Expansion of Germany territorially, colonially, and commercially. I will briefly say that although there is much utopian and chimerical effusion in such a programme, there is a strong current of public opinion, exploited particularly by the National Liberals (Pan-Germans), the Anti-Semites, and the Free Conservatives, steadily bearing in this direction. 6. The redividing of the empire into Reichstag election districts of approximately equal population,—a thing which has not been done since 1871. This is favored, of course, by all the parties (Socialists, Radicals, etc.) suffering under the present unfair system. It is opposed by all the other parties and factions, and also by the imperial government and by the Bundesrath (Federal Council), without whose concurrence the thing is constitutionally impossible. 7. A change of system in the official treatment of the Socialists and of all the other adherents of political opinions obnoxious to the present régime. This is favored by the Radicals and Socialists, but the existing repression is upheld by the remainder. However, with greater numerical power in the Reichstag, the Socialists will measurably influence the government and the whole administration in this respect during the coming legislative period of 1903–08. 8. Army and navy increase. The enlargement of the navy is fixed by law until 1916. If, meanwhile, the government should deem it requisite to insist on an additional naval increase, underlying circumstances and causes would, of course, have due weight with the Reichstag. Generally speaking, the government has always contrived to find a majority in the

Reichstag willing to indorse its desires and plans in this respect, as well as in the matter of either increasing the army or making modifications in the term or manner of service, equipment, etc. In 1893, though, the government was obliged to dissolve a recalcitrant Reichstag and order new elections, which resulted more favorably for government plans.

THE SOCIALIST PARTY.

The growth and present status of the Socialist party in Germany deserves special mention. Substantially founded by two Hebrews of German birth,—viz., Ferdinand Lassalle and Carl Marx,—the Socialist party of Germany has grown from small beginnings, since about 1860, to its present imposing strength and prestige. Lassalle first gave the German working class political cohesion under the shibboleth, "Proletarians, consolidate!" Marx wrought out scientific Socialism during his long exile in London, his maxims being in the main contained in his book, *Das Kapital*, which became for a long time the political, economic, and social gospel of the German workingman. In it he outlined and based, on what was long held by his followers to be undeniable truth, the Socialist system of government. To a large portion of his tenets the Socialists in Germany and elsewhere still adhere. But another Socialist thinker, Edward Bernstein,—likewise a German Jew, and likewise during his enforced expatriation in London,—destroyed by his more recent writings much of the Marx fabric, especially one of its cornerstones,—the theory of the perpetual and growing pauperization of the masses and the as steady concentration of wealth in the hands of the few. The kernel of the Marx doctrine, however,—the eventual *Verstaatlichung* (i.e., acquisition and management by the state, or national, government) of all the means of producing and distributing wealth,—is still firmly believed in by the Socialists of Germany.

As time went on, though, and the concrete needs of the toiling masses arose afresh at particular junctures of economic and political development, the Socialists of Germany added new planks to their platform. At their last "Party Day,"—i.e., national convention,—they restated all the essentials of their creed. They aim, besides, other things,—at a republican form of purely representative government (though in this respect the Bavarians and South Germans in the party are allowed some latitude, they preferring a strictly constitutional monarchy); at the substitution of a national militia in place of the regular army; at arbitration, under any and all circumstances, in lieu of war; at more liberal

terms of land tenure and homestead provisions; at the absolute equalization of rights between the sexes; at forcible public education and the strict separation of Church and State, religion being held by them to be a "purely personal affair." They have championed, besides, many measures of immediate utility, especially those benefiting the laboring classes.

Some of the Socialist ideas, notably among the last-mentioned category, were eminently sensible and practical, and have since been incorporated, largely owing to their agitation, in the national or state legislation of Germany. I will instance in this connection: the imperial old-age and invalid and accident insurance and pension system; the safeguards against accidents in mines, factories, and other manufacturing establishments; the better supervision of factories; the restrictions placed on child and woman labor; the mechanics' lien law; the abolition of the truck system of payment; the measures for the prevention of political, social, and economic intimidation and ostracism by employers; the enforcement of laws making the debauching of children or women by employers a penal offense; and many others.

During the period of the so-called "Socialist exception laws," the Socialists of Germany were practically outlawed and by thousands driven into exile in Switzerland, France, England, and the United States; but after Bismarck's retirement, the Reichstag refused to renew these laws, and since then Socialism has had, in the main, a better field for itself. From 312,000 votes in 1878-79, they increased rapidly in strength, and in 1893 they polled considerably over a million. In 1898, this had grown to 2,107,000, and at the recent election some three million ballots were cast for Socialist candidates,—i.e., just about three-eighths of the total vote. Owing to the huge gerrymander, however, to which allusion was made above, their 3,000,000 votes elected but 81 delegates, while the 1,800,000 votes of the Center elected 102, and so on in proportion. Their popular vote would entitle the Socialists to about 160 of the 397 seats in the Reichstag.

THE SOCIALIST LEADERS—AUGUST BEBEL.

The Socialist party has produced some remarkable men in Germany, it must be admitted. Besides Lassalle and Marx, the founders, and Liebknecht, the martyr for the "cause," it may prove useful to keep in mind the existence of such men as Edward Bernstein, whose analytical mind refashioned scientific Socialism, and who is now in the Reichstag; Emil Singer, who from a wealthy manufacturer turned Socialist agitator, and who has sat in the Reichstag ever since its organiza-

tion in 1871; Dr. Arons, the wealthy nephew of the multi-millionaire and Berlin banker, Baron Bleichröder, who is a lecturer on political economy in Berlin University; von Vollmar, a Bavarian nobleman and army officer, who was severely wounded and decorated with the Iron Cross in 1870, and who during his long convalescence succumbed to the Socialist faith,—one of the handsomest and most striking figures on the Socialist benches in the Reichstag.

Most deserving, though, of notice is August Bebel, the ablest and most impressive speaker in the house. The son of poor parents in a town by the Rhine, he was as a boy apprenticed to a turner and carver. He learned his trade thoroughly, meanwhile perfecting his school education. He started in business for himself and married. Then he turned Socialist. At the outbreak of the Franco-German War he and his friend Liebknecht issued a manifesto in the name of the German Socialists to the Socialists in France, deprecating the war. For this the two were tried by the Imperial Court in Leipzig for high treason, and sentenced to a term of imprisonment. Neither that, however, nor his subsequent convictions for *lèse majesté* and press offenses, could quench his spirit. He is moderately well-to-do. He has written many books, pamphlets, newspaper articles, etc., and one of his books, *Die Frau* ("The Wife"), an able exposi-

tion of the Socialist point of view as to woman and her rights as mother and wife, which has been translated into nearly every living language, alone yields him a modest competence in royalties.

Bebel is, however, not a great man, nor even a great party leader. He lacks balance and also the power to conciliate and to hold his followers together. As a party strategist he is easily outdone by Singer and several others. As the most courageous and forceful orator on the Socialist side, as a man whose tongue never utters what his heart does not fully feel, as a man of the nicest honor and of irreproachable morals, he wields an influence over his hearers of every kind in the Reichstag which is unprecedented in that body. He is the trenchant *espada* of his party, whose thrusts even the Kaiser is not always able to parry.

And what is the future of Socialism to be in Germany? That is a hard question to answer. Many of the shrewdest minds of Germany believe it will run its course, and will eventually tone down into a radical labor and reform party. The Kaiser himself intimated that recently, and there are many signs pointing that way. That under the present political and social conditions of Germany a party like the Socialist is really needed is not only my own belief, but also that of many others who have had occasion to observe things in the empire at close range.

JAURÈS, THE PRESENT LEADER OF FRENCH SOCIALISM.

BY OTHON GUERLAC.

M. JAURÈS is to-day the most prominent leader of the French Socialist party, as well as one of the most attractive figures in French parliamentary life. By general consent he is not far from being foremost among the great political orators of France, and for ten years a speech by Jaurès has always been sure to draw large crowds to the Palais Bourbon, or to the popular meetings where he often makes himself heard for the one cause that is dear to him.

Although belonging to a party in the Chamber that counts fewer than fifty members, he was this very year elected to the vice-presidency of the Chamber, an honor that is usually bestowed only on the most representative members of the Republican majority. In two sensational speeches

he recently challenged the attention of the world by bringing up two of the most acute and delicate questions in French politics,—the question of Alsace-Lorraine and the Dreyfus affair.

He is at the present time the Frenchman outside of the administration whose personality is the most striking and whose influence is the most powerful. His very career challenges attention and commands respect, for it shows the struggles of a man against the interests of his class to promote a social order more in accord with his notions of justice, and it shows the evolutions of a mind which has worked its way toward a higher ideal of life.

M. Jean Jaurès first entered political life in 1885. He was then a young professor of philosophy in a secondary school of his native de-

partment, the Tarn. Up to that time he had been a brilliant pupil, winning numerous prizes and scholarships; he had entered the great seminary that prepares the professors of the French schools and universities, the famous École Normale Supérieure of Paris, which has given to France Taine, About, Sarcy, and hundreds of eminent scholars and writers. Everywhere Jaurès had revealed himself as a vigorous mind, served by the most remarkable eloquence that had been heard since Gambetta. On festival occasions in his native city he would rouse the enthusiasm of the excitable southerners by impromptu speeches, into which he put all the fervor, poetry, and color that go with that rich soil of Languedoc, which seems to produce silver-tongued and sonorous orators as naturally as it produces olives and the vine.

At the École Normale, in the midst of that élite of young and hypercritical scholars, Jaurès passed for the most promising of them all, and in the debates on religion, philosophy, politics, and literature the versatile southerner outshone all the other lights. He is still vividly remembered by his comrades as a sturdy little fellow, with blue eyes, the eyes of a visionary, a strong, harsh, but ringing voice, a marked southern accent, a tremendous power of assimilation and work, and, above all, a haughty contempt of the conventionalities of life in dress, manners, and opinions.

ENTERS PUBLIC LIFE AS A CONSERVATIVE REPUBLICAN.

In the Chamber, M. Jaurès did not immediately reveal his powers, and was for a time known to only a few. He remained, for the most part, modestly in the background. Once or twice, on special occasions, on subjects with which he was especially familiar, such as educational questions, he made speeches which suggested to his auditory the great oratorical talent which he was soon to display. Strangely, indeed, he was the first to attack at the tribune with public and outspoken denunciation the schemes of the would-be Cæsar, General Boulanger. During that troubled period, Jaurès was one of the members of the most conservative groups of Republicans in the Chamber,—what is commonly known as the left center, *le centre gauche*. He was the pride and the hope of his party.

If he had remained there, his future would have been secure. Like M. Deschanel, he would have reached any honor within the gift of the majority,—the office of speaker, or any portfolio that he might care to have. At a time when the moderate party was losing its best leaders,

it was only too glad to have new and promising recruits to take their place.

But M. Jaurès remained in the Parliament only long enough to be regretted. In 1889, he was defeated for reelection by a local landowner. Few could have realized then in what guise he was to return, three years later, when the moderate Jaurès, with his conservative opinions, had given way to a rabid Socialist bent on the total destruction of the present régime of property and on the upbuilding of a new social order.

CONVERSION TO SOCIALISM.

What was the cause of the change? Of course, a man's enemies are apt to ascribe an alteration like this to the ambition of a demagogue, turning his sails to catch the passing breeze. But few men, even among his bitterest enemies, would charge Jaurès with insincerity. His evolution was a gradual one. Like Victor Hugo, another great instance of a man who changed his convictions, he can say, "*J'ai grandi*." His conversion to socialism was the inevitable outcome of his intellectual development. Those who knew him well, who knew what interest he took in social problems, wondered that he should have remained so long in a party which he had already outgrown when he entered its ranks.

After failing at the polls, Jaurès went back to his profession of teacher of philosophy. While at the University of Toulouse, preparing his two theses for the doctorate, he took a prominent part in municipal politics. In that old Roman city, where passions are strong and political excitement runs high, where every one strives to surpass his neighbor in so-called orthodox democracy, M. Jaurès found himself in an atmosphere that proved fatal to his moderation.

While writing his theses on "The Reality of the Perceptible Universe" and "The History of Socialistic Doctrine in Germany from Luther down to Karl Marx" he was unconsciously drifting away from his former associates, and suddenly found himself in the party of revolution. The afternoon of 1892, when he defended his theses at the Sorbonne, was a memorable date in the annals of the University of Paris. For the first time the new doctrine was discussed in the old medieval building, then not yet torn down, and, amid the applause of the audience, a young and powerful voice defended with an overwhelming eloquence theories which had never before been advanced in such a place.

Jaurès' conversion to socialism was definitive. He explained it by saying that he had become convinced that the social reforms necessary to make society just toward the working class could not be obtained through the good will

and generosity of the bourgeois class. Never in history has such a revolution been accomplished from the inside. The bourgeois class will have to be dispossessed by force, and the "incorporation of the proletariat into modern civilization," as Auguste Comte called it, must be the work of the proletariat itself, constituted as a self-conscious class, — fighting for its rights, and triumphing *envers et contre tous*.

M. Jaurès' formal entrance into the Socialist party coincided with a general progress of socialism in France during the period from 1889 to 1893, when Radicalism had lost its prestige as a party of opposition through the Boulanger and Panama affairs. At the same time as M. Jaurès, certain other young and gifted men from the Radical party, former lieutenants of M. Clemenceau, were likewise converted to the new doctrine, which pledged itself to the necessary and gradual substitution of social ownership for capitalistic ownership. Such were M. Millerand, the shrewd and skillful logician; Viviani, the powerful and impassioned orator, and scores of young university professors, lawyers, and physicians, who were carried away by the irresistible example of M. Jaurès.

In this new party, which, from 1893 on, counted in the Chamber from forty to fifty members, Jaurès was easily the most popular, if not always the most influential, member. In all great debates he played his part, furnishing a socialistic solution to every problem of government, whether social, political, educational, or economic.

JAURÈS AS AN ORATOR.

During this period he displayed, day after day, that marvelous eloquence which, with him, is an instinctive and irresistible force, and which seems rather to control him than to be controlled by him, and which carries away his audience, be it of unlettered or of cultured hearers.

M. Jaurès is not a man of prepossessing appearance. He is short and burly of figure, some-



M. JAURÈS, CHIEF OF THE FRENCH SOCIALISTS.

what rustic in his manner, and his dress evinces a lack of care, a lack of taste, almost a lack of cleanliness. It is only in his glance, the glance of a visionary, that distinction appears. His voice is sonorous, with a metallic quality which is neither musical nor agreeable, but which pierces the tumult of parliamentary debate, and commands the attention of an audience, however large.

At first sight, this man of vulgar aspect and slovenly appearance might pass for some rude mob-orator, the spokesman of some club of Jacobins. But as he begins to speak the listener forgets the lack of elegance, the vulgarity, the excited southern features of the speaker, and surrenders himself to the charms of that eloquence at once fluent, elegant, and picturesque.

I should not compare M. Jaurès to that Numa Roumestan of Daudet who never thought except while he was speaking. But it is certain that as he develops his brilliant metaphors, his poetic images, his ample and splendid periods, he is carried away, hypnotized, and intoxicated by his own words.

I remember the thrilling picture of the Armenian atrocities that he once drew before the Chamber of Deputies. On that day, Gladstone alone could have passed him in passionate indignation and in graphic and realistic description. His eloquent figures are without number. Some have become classical, as that one in which he spoke of religion, from time immemorial the refuge and the consolation of the disinherited in this world, as "the ancient song by which, through the ages, human misery has been rocked to sleep."

In the recent speech in which he was the first to have the courage to speak of the peaceful solution of the question of Alsace-Lorraine, he expressed in precise and enduring terms the grievance of France against Germany, saying that in 1870 "human beings and human wills were violently torn from the allegiance preferred by them," and he showed that France was right, after her heroic resistance in 1871, "in closing the detested book of war, for she has found in the republic a nobler ideal than that of revenge and conquest."

DEFENDER OF ZOLA AND DREYFUS.

In the Dreyfus affair, M. Jaurès displayed in unequalled degree the profound sincerity of his passions and the warmth of his heart. At the outbreak of the "affair," in 1898, his own interests would have prompted him to hold himself aloof, as did so many others, to withhold himself from the fray, as did a great number of skillful politicians, who knew better than to compromise their popularity by espousing an unpopular cause. But no sooner was Jaurès convinced on which side justice lay than he cast himself into the struggle with passionate recklessness. By his speech at the trial of Zola, by his magnificent articles entitled "The Proofs," in which with irresistible logic he demonstrated the innocence of Dreyfus, and which were read by all France, he accomplished more than any other one man for the liberation of the prisoner of Devil's Island.

The speech which he delivered only a few weeks ago, with the aim of throwing light upon the last mysteries of the "affair," and of demolishing one last myth, that of the alleged "letter of the German Emperor," was also an act of courage, for the majority in the Cham-

ber would prefer to see the "affair" interred, and the troublesome specter, eternally reappearing, that has caused them so much dismay, finally laid. But Jaurès turned a deaf ear to the pleas of the timid among his colleagues. During two whole sessions he revived the "affair," unveiling mysteries which had till then remained obscure, and castigating the Nationalists, who had played upon the credulity of the public.

AN IDEALIST.

This single aspect of the character of Jaurès, this generous independence, and this high act of conscientiousness, would suffice to give him a place by himself in the Socialist party. By his intelligence and his breadth of spirit he is not only superior to the mob,—primitive in its passions, of which he is the leader, and which at times he must flatter in order to lead,—he is superior to his political associates and allies, some of whom, a short while ago, attacked him violently for having allowed his daughter to be confirmed according to the rites of the church to which her mother belongs. He is far above the level of the great mass of politicians of all parties, and the idealism with which he is taunted has in it more wisdom than has the selfishness of the wise.

It may be added that this orator of sonorous utterance and glowing imagination is a worker of remarkable industry, whose intellect delights in exhaustive knowledge and thorough documentation, and who has distinguished himself by works of erudite scholarship.

During the year in which he was absent from the Parliament, in punishment for his activity in the Dreyfus affair, he wrote a history of the French Revolution, treated from a socialistic point of view, which was praised by professional historians for its substantial merit.

Thus the Socialist party, which before Jaurès had for its leaders ignorant and passionate men of the people, or half-educated men rendered bitter by failure in life, has now for its guide a philosopher and scholar, an idealist of warm heart and ardent imagination, who might have achieved any desired political or literary distinction in the bourgeois social order, but who has chosen instead to devote his great talents to the service of the masses,—of the unfeeling, unthinking, and often ungrateful mob,—and to strive, with little hope of recompense, for a distant and perhaps unattainable chimera.

To the honor both of the French public and of the proletariat, it must be said that M. Jaurès has won the esteem of the best men of all parties and the enthusiastic and devoted admiration of the great mass of the proletariat.



A COMBINATION HARVESTER AND THRESHER, SHOWING THE SIDE WHERE THE WHEAT IS SACKED, READY FOR MARKET.

THIS YEAR'S BIG WHEAT HARVEST IN KANSAS.

BY PHILIP EASTMAN.

TIME, tide, and wheat wait for no man; for thirty days, ending about the 20th of July, the annual battle between man and nature was fought in the wheat fields of Kansas. The campaign began in the southern counties and progressed northward. Its course was marked by the stacks of grain and fields of stubble left behind. The great army of harvesters, equipped with the most modern machinery, conquered. The campaign was quick and decisive. Kansas called upon all her sturdy men to lend their aid. The State could not furnish enough, and twenty-eight thousand additional men, a force half as large as the standing army of the United States, were recruited from other sections.

Kansas harvests more wheat, annually, than any other State in the Union. Extending from the northern to the southern boundary, and including the thirty counties in the central third of the State, is the famous wheat belt. In this area, three-fourths of the entire crop of the one hundred and five counties of the State is raised. Not a county in the wheat belt raises less than a million bushels annually. Sumner County, on the southern line, was credited with 6,812,102 bushels as the result of one year's harvest, which was more than the combined yields of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Mississippi, Wyoming, New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, Alabama,

and New Jersey. Sumner is the buckle of the wheat belt.

All who were willing and able to work found employment awaiting them during the harvest. A wheat field is like the proverbial street car,—there is almost always room for one more. Barton County, which ranks next to Sumner, called for four thousand four hundred extra men and more than two thousand additional horses. In Saline and Cloud counties, when the harvest started and there was a shortage of hands, the farmers' daughters went into the fields while the thermometer was close to the one hundred mark and did the work of men.

COLLEGE BOYS IN THE WHEAT FIELDS.

The harvest leveled all social barriers, and at the same time raised the standard of living in the country. The sturdy college man whose mighty muscles won him glory on the football field worked with the country lad whose distinction lay in the fact that he had shocked twenty acres of wheat in a day, rubbed elbows with the Mississippi levee hand temporarily turned harvester, slept at night in the cool of the open beside some laborer, with only a wagon overhead as shelter from the dew, and felt the better for it. And all of these, the college man, the levee hand, the country lad, and the laborer, demanded

that their employer set a table that would shame, in abundance and quality, the fare of many a house that attracts the summer boarder.

Harvest hands, in companies of one hundred and two hundred, were sent from employment agencies in the States adjacent to Kansas to various points in the wheat belt. Just before the harvest, some farmers found themselves needing more help. Then the farmer used all the guile and promises at his command to induce men to stop with him instead of journeying to the point to which they were ticketed. Harvest hands who ventured on to the platform of some railway station while the engine took water have actually been kidnaped by farmers, who used force to hold them until the train had gone. One farmer who raises hundreds of acres of wheat always secures his full quota of harvest hands from colleges. He prefers the collegians, and says they make the most intelligent and trustworthy help, and he selects them in preference to some other classes of men able to do more work each day.

Men are not alone in the vocation of harvest hand. Women play no unimportant part in the work necessary to the gathering of the grain. The men have to be fed, and during the harvest scores of women worked in the field camps as cooks. In the western counties, where one man may have thousands of acres to be harvested, the fields may be many miles from a farmhouse. Then small one-story buildings are built in a corner of the field, to be used during the harvesting, threshing, plowing, and planting seasons. Such houses are often supplemented by tents. Harvesters often travel in covered wagons and camp in gypsy fashion.



HARVEST HANDS WASHING AT A WINDMILL.

KANSAS A RECORD-BREAKER IN WHEAT.

The demand for extra help during the harvest resulted from the fact that, despite the floods which devastated many of the most fertile valleys of the State, Kansas harvested more acres of wheat this year than were cut in 1901. In that year, the State passed her own record, which up to that time was the highest yield credited to any State, and led the list with more than 99,000,000 bushels as the result of the year's harvest. In forty years, the wheat acreage of Kansas increased from 185,379 acres to 5,355,638, and in the same time the value of a year's crop advanced from about \$100,000 to \$58,456,789.

Kansas raised the first record-breaking wheat crop in 1892, with a yield of nearly seventy-four million bushels, which was more than had ever been raised before by any State. From that year until 1900, the position of the State in the column of wheat statistics fluctuated, but in the latter year Kansas raised 82,488,655 bushels, and Minnesota, her nearest competitor, raised 51,509,252 bushels. In 1901, Kansas distanced her own record and was credited by the United States Year Book of the Department of Agriculture with 99,079,304 bushels, raising more wheat than Minnesota by nearly nineteen million bushels, although the acreage of wheat sown in Minnesota was greater than that of Kansas by 853,868 acres. The Kansas crop in 1902 suffered from climatic conditions, and the yield was 54,623,839 bushels.

F. D. Coburn, secretary of the Kansas State Board of Agriculture, never estimates or guesses on the wheat crops of the State. He counts the bushels after they are threshed. His advance report on the conditions of the wheat crop, June 20, 1903, on the eve of the harvest, gave the proportion of the total acreage to be harvested as 94.6 per cent. of the total area sown, or 5,709,485 acres, and the average condition as 89 per cent., which was 7 per cent. better than the famous crop of 1901 at the same period.

NEW HARVESTING MACHINERY.

Chickens cannot be safely counted before they are hatched, and the farmer is not certain of his wheat crop until it is threshed. Too much rain just before the time for the reapers to enter the field, a hailstorm or a heavy wind shortly before the harvest, and a field which may have promised thousands of dollars is lost or seriously damaged. There are many anxious days for the farmer. He must watch his fields as closely as the steel-roller watches the molten metal. Between one day and the next, the determining



A SIDE VIEW OF TWO HEADERS AND TWO BARGES.

change in the heads of wheat may take place, and the field is then ready for the cutting. The time to harvest is short. Within two weeks after the grain has turned to just the right shade of yellow, the harvest must be over. If the wheat is too ripe, the harvesting machines will shatter it and the farmer will lose heavily.

The grower who raises a square mile or more of wheat is constantly looking for machinery that will lessen the expense of harvesting and threshing the crop. For this reason, the machine known as the header has come into favor within a few years. The header clips the stalks of wheat a few inches below the head of the grain, and no binding is necessary. It cuts a swath twelve feet wide. The four horses which furnish the power are hitched behind, and they push the

machine over the field. A self-binder is drawn by three or four horses and cuts a swath six or seven feet wide. A header will harvest forty acres a day, while the capacity of a binder is fifteen acres a day. The cuttings are carried from the header, by an endless belt, to a header barge, which is driven beside the machine. When one barge is full, it is driven to the stack and another takes its place. The advantage of a binder is that the wheat can be cut before it is thoroughly ripe, as the ripening process will continue in the shock. Harvesting is often begun with a binder and finished with a header. A new machine which is being tested by the farmers is a combination binder and header. A header is indispensable when the wheat is short. It lessens the expense of harvesting, as the wheat



A THRESHING CREW AT WORK.



GANG PLOWS AT WORK ON A 1,200-ACRE WHEAT FARM IN PAWNEE COUNTY.

goes at once into the stack, instead of being shocked and then stacked.

The trusts have long since cornered binding-twine, and that has advanced the header in favor. The trusts have put the price they wished upon twine. Just before a harvest, binding-twine may advance 50 per cent. in price. The cost of twine for a harvest varies with the thickness and the stand of the wheat. From thirty cents to fifty cents an acre for twine means an expenditure of from three hundred dollars to five hundred dollars for a field of a thousand acres.

To counteract the trust, the State of Kansas, a few years ago, established a plant for the manufacture of binding-twine at the State penitentiary. This year, the floods in the Missouri and Mississippi valleys inundated many warehouses filled with twine. At Kansas City, over five million pounds was ruined. The farmers then looked to the penitentiary plant for relief, and before the harvest in southern Kansas had begun, that section of the State sent in rush orders for three million pounds. One farmer sent a check for eighteen hundred dollars with his order. The twine sold at nine and one-half cents a pound.

Every machine that goes into the harvest fields must be in perfect condition. A break in the mechanism

means a costly delay. And still the Kansas farmer takes no care of his machinery. The binders and headers stand in the fields from one harvest until another. Threshing-machines and engines are left to care for themselves from season to season. The profits of the large harvesting-machinery companies would be more than cut in two if the Western farmer cared for his implements after the manner of the New Englander.

Machines are in use, both of horse and steam power, which harvest the grain on

one side and turn it out threshed and in sacks on the other. Such machines cut a twenty-foot swath and will cover sixty acres in a day. Steam machines harvest the crop and plow and harrow the ground at the same time, leaving behind a strip twelve feet wide ready for the planting. As coming between the ordinary plow and this machine are gang plows, which are really two plows in one, drawn by four horses. They will turn twenty acres a day.

THRESHING AND MARKETING THE CROP

The threshing of the stacks which hold the year's crop is a work of no small magnitude,



AN 800-ACRE WHEAT FIELD READY FOR THE HARVESTERS.



A THRESHING OUTFIT READY TO TRAVEL.

though not so exacting as to time as harvesting. One of the largest threshing-machines,—or separators, as the farmers call them,—is credited with turning out three thousand five hundred bushels of wheat in a run of nine hours and forty-five minutes. The big machine is provided with labor and time saving devices, such as an extension feed-carrier and hopper scales which automatically weigh the grain and load it into a wagon. It takes but a few minutes for this machine to load a sixty-bushel wagon, and then arises a difficulty for the farmer to overcome. The wheat must be gotten away from the thresher, for if the machinery is forced to stop, that much time is lost, and time is money while the threshing crew is being paid. The owner of the threshing outfit has contracted to thresh the crop for so much a bushel, and the grain is delivered from the machine. The owner must then take charge of it. To haul and store it in a granary on the field means that it must be handled twice before it reaches the market. If the field is ten miles from a town, which is not at all uncommon, it requires at least fifty wagons, making one trip a day, to carry the grain from the separator to the elevator. In this manner the grain is often handled, and on country roads leading to town can be seen a steady line of wagons, passing from sunrise till sundown, loaded with wheat.

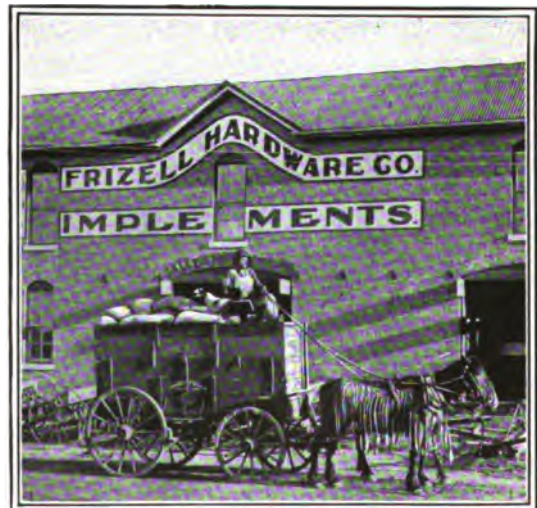
The owner of a threshing-machine contracts ahead for as much work as he can do from harvest until winter. The traction engine used to furnish power for the thresher is also used as motive power to haul the threshing outfit, the coal-wagon, the water-wagon, and the "cook-shack" over the country roads from one field to another. The "cook shack" is a product of the West. It is a small house on wheels which serves as a kitchen and dining-room. The trac-

tion engines and their trains may travel several hundred miles during a season.

LARGE AND SMALL WHEAT FARMS.

Sumner County, on the southern line, and Pawnee County, on the western border, show a marked contrast in the manner of raising wheat. The average wheat farm in Sumner is about 300 acres. The population of the county is 25,797. In Pawnee, the average wheat farm is about 1,000 acres. The population of the county is 5,680. A Sumner County farmer owns all the horses and machinery necessary to the planting of his fields, and he hires but little extra help during the harvest. Wheat land in Sumner is worth as high as seventy-five dollars an acre.

The total cost of planting and harvesting for a Sumner County wheat farm of 300 acres, taking



A LOAD OF 125 BUSHELS OF WHEAT AT THE END OF A TEN-MILE HAUL.

an actual example of a farm, three miles from a railway station, which was bought in 1884 for \$20 an acre, has been planted to wheat every year since, and is now worth \$60 an acre, would be, for this year's crop, \$1,650.

Reckoning the yield at 30 bushels an acre and the price at 62 cents a bushel, the income will be \$5,580, to which should be added the value of the crops for grazing, \$450, and the value of the straw, \$150.

In Pawnee County, a wheat-raiser may own several thousand acres and not possess a plow, a single harvesting machine, nor any horses. He contracts for all the work, from the time the ground is plowed until the grain is delivered at the elevator. Col. William Scott, who harvested four thousand acres this year, estimated the expense as follows :

Plowing—One dollar per acre.....	\$4,000
Drilling—Twenty-five cents per acre.....	1,000
Seed—Three pecks per acre.....	1,800
Cost of planting.....	\$6,800
Heading and stacking, at \$1.25 per acre.....	5,000
Threshing—Twenty bushels per acre, or 80,000 bushels at six cents.....	4,800
Hauling, at four cents a bushel.....	3,200
Cost of crop at market.....	\$19,800

The receipts, on the other hand, may be computed thus :

Eighty thousand bushels at sixty cents.....	\$48,000
Use of fields for grazing during the winter.....	2,500
	\$50,500

A New York capitalist owns several thousand acres of wheat land in Pawnee County which he has never seen. He farms by mail. All the work is done by contract, through an agent. Some of the accounts of money made by raising wheat in Pawnee and other of the thinly settled

counties where land is to be had for ten dollars an acre put to shame the most enticing announcements of the "get rich quick" concerns. For instance, a man who worked through the season as harvester, then at threshing and fall plowing and planting, earning about one hundred and fifty dollars, bought a team of horses and arranged to plant a quarter of a section of land,—160 acres,—to wheat, and take, as his share, two-thirds of the crop. In favorable seasons, when the crop was threshed, his share, on a yield of twenty bushels an acre and a market value of sixty cents, was over twelve hundred dollars. With this, a payment was made on a quarter-section and his own crop planted. Another as good a year and the land is paid for.

Muscle is the only capital absolutely necessary for the man who wishes to engage in wheat-raising. Fifteen years ago, a stone mason left Ohio, followed Horace Greeley's advice, and went West. He arrived in Pawnee County with a large family and very little money. He took up a homestead claim. He began raising wheat. Last year, his daughter was married, and as a wedding present he gave her a ten-thousand-dollar farm. He is worth not less than fifty thousand dollars.

Four years ago, a man, with his wife and three children, drove into Larned. He had a wagon and two mules, and was penniless. He borrowed fifteen dollars, and then made arrangements to raise a quarter-section of wheat on shares. He lived in a granary on the land. Now he owns that quarter-section and another, has built a large, comfortable house, has barns and sheds and granaries, windmills and stock, and he reckons that this year's crop will bring him nearly seven thousand dollars.



A COMBINATION HARVESTER AND THRESHER AT WORK IN PAWNEE COUNTY.



CHANGING THE COURSE OF THE HUDSON AT SPIERS FALLS.

THE HARNESSSED HUDSON.

BY THOMAS COMMERFORD MARTIN.

IT is no wonder that the high price of fuel has of late stimulated interest in water-power development. The inevitable result of dearness or scarcity of any article is to intensify activity in the production of substitutes, and this is as true of power as of other necessities of civilization. But just as a high price of silver or copper will bring into the area of yield a number of mines from which in normal periods no profitable supply would be expected, so the artificial cost of coal gives an unreal value to many oil or gas belts, and inflates, temporarily, the price of sundry streams and waterfalls that ordinarily would waste their babble on the desert air. It is an undeniable fact, established by the census office returns, that in spite of the vast and spectacular developments of water power in certain districts, the proportion of steam is much higher among all powers than it was thirty years ago, when, apparently, the use of "white coal," as the French call it, touched its climax. In other words, in 1870 steam furnished, in the United

States, 1,215,711 horse power, or 51.8 per cent. of a total of 2,346,142; in 1880, the amount of steam power used was 2,185,458 horse power out of a total of 3,410,837, or 64.1 per cent; in 1890, out of an aggregate of 5,954,655 horse-power, 4,581,595, or 76.9 per cent., was steam; while in 1900 steam figured to the extent of 8,742,416 horse-power, or 77.4 per cent., in a total of 11,300,081. This increase in thirty years, from 51.8 per cent. to 77.4 per cent., of the total power shows how much more rapidly the use of steam power has increased than that of other primary sources of power. The total amount of water power reported as used by American manufacturing establishments in 1900 was 1,727,258 horse-power, 1,263,343 horse-power in 1890, 1,225,379 horse-power in 1880, and 1,130,431 horse-power in 1870. The increase from 1890 to 1900 was 463,915 horse-power, or 36.7 per cent. From 1880 to 1890 the increase was 37,964 horse-power, or 3.1 per cent., while from 1870 to 1880 there was an increase of 94,948

horse-power, or 8.4 per cent. In 1900, water power constituted 15.3 per cent. of the total, as compared with 21.2 per cent. in 1890, 35.9 per cent in 1880, and 48.2 per cent. in 1870. Apparently, the use of water power for manufacturing purposes has decreased relatively in thirty years from nearly one-half of the total motive power to less than one-sixth.

Thus, to any one who studies the returns, it is obvious that but for the coming in of electric-power transmission and the electric motor, the use of water power in America would have fallen off very seriously. As a matter of fact, much of this electrical utilization does not appear in the statistics, for the reason that a large proportion of the recent development not brought to account is for electric-light stations, street railways, and other enterprises that do not fall within the "factory" group. One great question of the present time is, therefore, the extent to which water power, with the aid of electricity, can reassert or regain its place, with benefit and economy. It is a most-interesting problem, and so many factors come into play that a forecast is well-nigh impossible. We get dry seasons and wet seasons. We see rain belts shift north or south. We have new coal-bed discoveries. New oil wells gush. Unsuspected gas fields blow off suddenly. All the time, the trees on a thousand hills are being cut down, so that the smaller the precipitation of moisture the greater is the precipitancy with which it gets back to mother ocean from the unretaining soil. It is said that the water powers of New England have shrunk and shriveled until to-day they represent an investment that if it were fairly set forth would put them all "out of business" in competition with coal from distant Pennsylvania or Nova Scotia. Beyond a doubt, we have here an industrial question quite as vital to the welfare of the country as resistance to Russian aggression in Manchuria, the control of the Philip-pines, or the patrol of the Caribbean.

While the present successful attempts to employ the water powers of California and the far West in general touch on the sensational, the great work in New York State is of equal importance, though of less appeal to the imagination. It has already been told in these pages how, in the Sierras, the "downward smoke" of the falling, pausing streams is converted into electric current flashed to the Golden Gate, two hundred miles away, over shining circuits of copper and aluminum filaments; and this ability to wrench energy from filmy fog goes beyond anything we have yet accomplished in compelling the irresistible tidal flow of Niagara to give up its power for all the necessities of the

Empire State. But California appears to be still sorely deficient in storage capacity; and Niagara, with all the great lakes back of it, ought to be good for at least half a million horse-power during centuries to come, without any lover of beauty being the poorer for it. That half million would take care of a lot of machinery all the way from Buffalo to Harlem.

New York State, however, has other water power resources besides Niagara, and I have already had the privilege of noting in these pages that of the St. Lawrence, at Massena, as an example. For some years past, the stately Hudson has also been in harness, and its energy at Mechanicsville is in daily use, thousands of horse-power being transmitted daily to the great General Electric shops at Schenectady, miles away. These two mighty rivers could twist the whole New York Central Railroad system around their little back-waters, so to speak, and presumably they will be allowed to do this some day. In the meantime, their industrial utility is enormous, and, with proper forestry, it will not diminish yet a while. The latest conquest of Hudson River power is at Spiers Falls, at the foot of Mount McGregor, where General Grant died, about sixty miles south of the point where the stream rises, and forty miles northward of Albany. At this point the river has lately been dammed up by a stone wall over 1,800 feet long, 100 feet high, and containing 180,000 cubic feet of masonry. Thus is the good old river lifted 50 feet above its former bed, and then made to do a lofty tumble of 80 feet back again, in the course of which it is to deliver over 30,000 horse-power for electrical transmission to Albany, Troy, Amsterdam, Schenectady, and any other place holding out its little tin cup for a share. To show how electrical energy can be transmogrified and whipped around the stump, it may be noted that the electric motors doing most of the hard work in the Spiers Falls construction get their current from the earlier plant at Mechanicsville, nearly twenty-five miles away to the south, so that if the Hudson is not exactly like Paris during the siege of 1870—"fried in its own fat"—it is at least being fettered by its own foam.

At Spiers Falls a large power house has been erected, to which the water from the power canal passes by means of ten steel tubes, each connecting with a wheel-case that contains a pair of turbines. Eight of these pair will drive eight electric generators, each of about 3,750 horse-power, and the other two are rated at about 2,750 horse-power each, the total water-power capacity of the plant, when complete, being 46,800 horse-power. In view of the fact that the watershed of the Hudson above Spiers Falls



GETTING AN AIR COMPRESSOR INTO SHAPE,—THE GREAT HUDSON RIVER DAM.

has an area of twenty-seven thousand square miles, with a mean flow at the falls of between six and seven thousand cubic feet per second, and that storage dams are also to be constructed, it will be seen that this plant is hardly likely to

suffer at any time from a dry throat. The current will be sent out at the high pressure of twenty-six thousand five hundred volts to substations at Glens Falls, Fort Edward, Saratoga, Ballston, Schenectady, and Watervliet, and will be called upon to perform an endless variety of work, from operating street cars and lights to driving sewing-machines and cement works. The Hudson River Water Power Company owns also the system at Mechanicsville, with which this will be interlocked electrically, and it has also another undeveloped power near the head waters of the same historic stream. By July of this year, it is expected that the first fifteen thousand electrical horse-power will be available from Spiers Falls. To that extent, and up to the full capacity of the plant, the whole region under consideration will be released from its present dependence upon coal, while another invincible argument will have been urged for the preservation of the grand Adirondack woods and forests, which ruthless vandalism would convert into miserable brush and bush.



SECTION OF THE DAM ACROSS THE HUDSON, 100 FEET HIGH AND 1,800 FEET LONG.

POWER-DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.

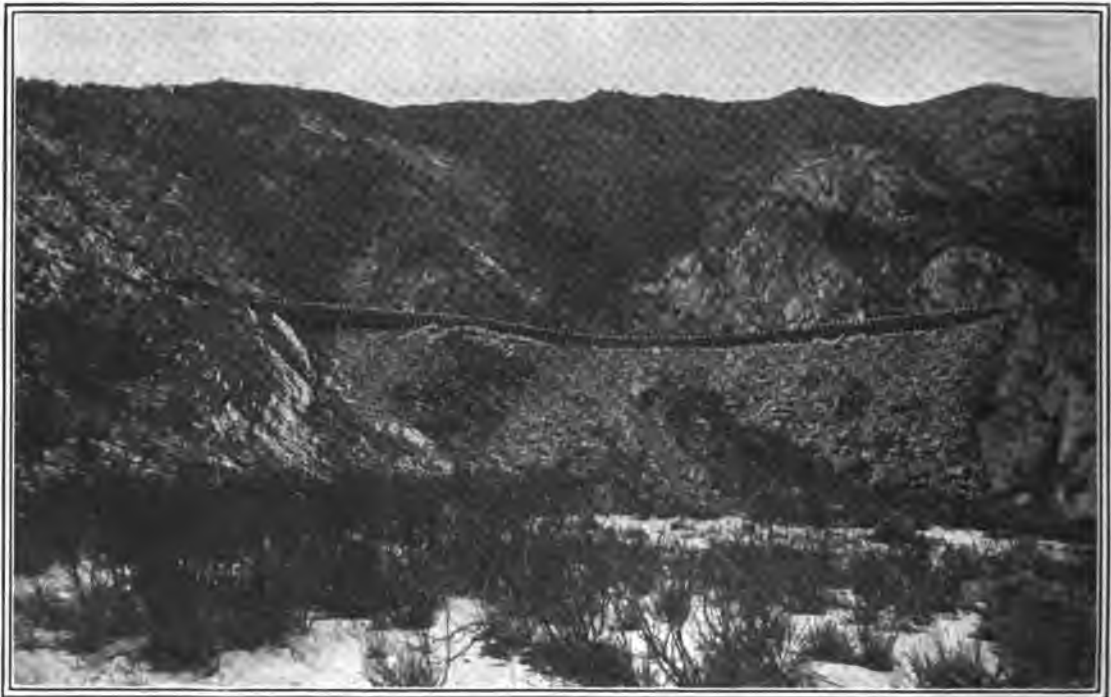
BY L. R. FREEMAN.

WORLD-FAMOUS for its scenic and climatic wonders since it was first explored, and holding, for close to half a century, the enviable position of first State in value of mineral and agricultural products, California has again proved herself entitled to premier honors by her recent achievements in power development and transmission. That western America, where the essentials of power-development,—water and fall,—are most readily available, should take the lead in the movement is not to be wondered at. In northern California, in many of the disused hydraulic mines, the work was almost done, and in some instances little was needed beyond a Pelton wheel at the foot of the old pipe line to have a complete power plant. But that arid southern California, composed of what are some times facetiously referred to as “the seven dusty counties,” should equal, and in some cases sur-

pass, the rest of the State in electrical engineering feats seems most remarkable.

It is nevertheless a fact that in a single southern California system,—that of the Edison Company of Los Angeles,—may be seen, not only the first transmission station ever built for commercial service in America, but where also may be traced, step by step, every advance made in the art of electric-power transmission down to the present time. Over this line electricity was transmitted, several years ago, at a higher voltage than was then used by any line in the world. What was marvelous then, however, is common now, and this same company shortly expects to transmit current at sixty thousand volts from its new plants on Kern River.

In southern California, every inch of water is numbered and has its value; for power-development, in the first place, and, after that, for irri-



THE PLUME BETWEEN TUNNELS IN CANAL LINE OF SANTA ANA CAÑON.



MAKING A ROAD ALONG THE MOUNTAIN-SIDE FOR THE CEMENT PIPE.

gation. The flow of each stream is utilized, wherever practicable, by a succession of plants, the intake of one coming in close below the tail-race of the plant above. Scarcity of water is offset by abundance of fall. Thus, in the new power house of the Edison Company, on Mill Creek, in the San Bernardino Mountains, a miner's inch of water is made to generate three and one-third horse-power, where the same amount of water in one of the low-pressure heads of the East would produce but a small fraction of one horse-power. The system, too, is different from that employed in the "big-water" plants, where a large stream is discharged upon turbine wheels. Here a small stream plays at a tremendous pressure against steel cups on a comparatively small water-wheel. The latter, known as the Pelton wheel, dates back to the early placer days, and it has been brought to its present perfection by modifying and improving a clumsy contrivance employed by the miners to lift water by its own power.

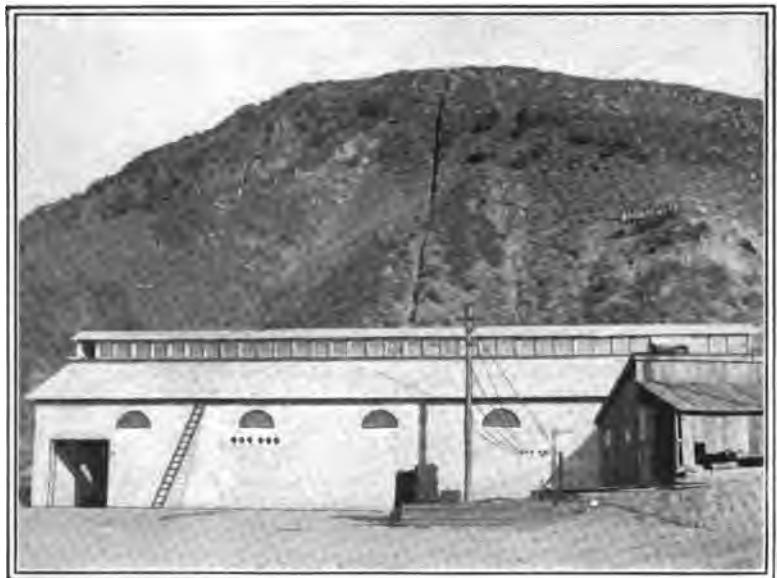
The precipitous slopes and steep cañons of the Sierra Madre and San Bernardino mountains of southern California lend themselves readily to the purposes of the engineer endeavoring to secure a considerable fall in a short distance, while the broad, well-timbered upper valleys, a soft, spongy soil

of good depth, and a heavy winter snowfall give conditions that are by no means unfavorable for the natural conservation of the water and its distribution through the six or seven dry months.

Water, through irrigation, has made the settlement of the arid portions of California possible, and it has been estimated that the electrical development in the San Bernardino Mountains has increased the water-supply in the contiguous valley country fully 50 per cent. Ten per cent. of this amount is credited to the minimization of the loss from evaporation and seepage through the carrying of the water in pipes and cement ditches. The remaining 50 per cent. is developed in wells, the pumping of which is made practicable by the use of the cheap power furnished by the electric company.

Perhaps the most interesting of the several plants in the San Bernardino Mountains is the recently completed one above referred to, and called by the Edison Company Mill Creek Plant No. 3; and as here is in successful operation the highest hydraulic pressure ever employed to drive water-wheels, a brief description may be of interest.

The new plant is similar in design to the half-dozen others projected or completed by the Edison Company on the San Bernardino watershed. From the intake to the floor of the power house by the pipe line is between six and seven miles. About 25,000 feet of this is gravity conduit, and the remainder, 8,400 feet, pressure pipe. The former is constructed of concrete pipe 3 inches



POWER HOUSE AND TRENCH READY FOR PIPE.

(The part of the trench for force main shown is but a small part. The length of force main is over 8,000 feet. The drop is 1,900 feet.)

thick and of 31 inches inside diameter. This pipe is laid through all of the nineteen tunnels, as well as in the open country between them, except at five points where inverted siphons are necessary. The grade is two-tenths of a foot per 100 feet, which gives a carrying capacity of 20 cubic feet per second.

Unusually thorough precautions are taken to clear the water of sand. The enormous head at which the wheels of this power house operate make it necessary that the stream from the nozzles should be as free as possible from grit and sediment; otherwise, the cups of the Peltons would melt away in a veritable sand-blast. The settling is done in an ingeniously constructed



A SAND-SETTLING BOX IN OPERATION.

box near the head of the gravity conduit. This box is 50 feet wide by 100 feet long, and is divided crosswise into eight chambers with V-shaped bottoms, which latter arrangement materially aids in collecting and expelling the sediment through gates at the end of each chamber. The large cross-section occupied by the water while passing through the sand-box reduces its velocity and allows the silt carried in suspension to be deposited before reaching the pipe line. The flumes and pipes are kept clear of leaves and other floating matter by means of screens and gratings. The screens are kept from becoming clogged by means of paddle-wheels that brush the leaves from their surfaces as fast as they collect. The gratings and "grizzlies" are automatically cleaned by rakes which are driven by paddle-wheels. These contrivances are particularly useful in the winter and spring, when the water is full of "float" and other *débris* brought down by the high water.

The utilization of the water is almost complete. Both the surface and the sub-surface flow are collected at the intake; the latter by means



INTAKE TUNNEL OF SANTA ANA CAÑON PLANT NO. 1.

of a tunnel 350 feet in length, projected through a spur of the mountain and under the bed of the stream at a depth of 15 feet below the surface. During the low-water period, toward the end of the summer, however, there will be times when the full flow of the stream will not be quite sufficient to keep the power house in full operation. To provide for this, a forebay, large enough to hold ten-second-feet of water, continuous flow, for six hours has been constructed at the end of the gravity conduit. This enables the surplus water to be stored during the six hours of the day when the load on the plant is light, and effectually distributes the supply over the whole of the twenty-four hours. In the dry months, enough water will be saved by this plan to generate 1,500 horse-power in Plant No. 3, and 400 horse-power in each of the lower plants.



HOISTING PIPE FOR A 1,900-FOOT HEAD-IMPULSE WHEEL PLANT.

From the forebay to the power house is a drop of 1,960 feet. The line consists of twenty-four and twenty-six inch open-hearth, box-annealed steel pipes, from seven - sixteenths to seven-eighths of an inch in thickness, and of a tensile strength of from 40,000 to 60,000 pounds per square inch. All joints are riveted. The line is fully equipped with air valves, blow-offs, and pressure-alleviators, which make accidents caused by the presence of a vacuum or of water-hammers impossible of occurrence.

This is the highest hydraulic pressure of its kind ever used. The force of the water is almost beyond comprehension. Should the pressure pipe by any means become punctured near its lower end, the released jet would pierce a man's body as cleanly as would a steel-sheathed bullet from a high-power rifle. Should the full stream from the main twenty-four-inch pipe burst its bounds, the power-house, steel and concrete though it is, would be riven and ground to pieces. The ordinary deflectors used in the tailraces of the other plants proved quite inadequate here in reducing the force of the stream when not playing on the wheel, but a special steel and concrete bowl was finally devised which splits the jet and throws it back upon itself, delivering it, smooth and harmless, at the foot of the tailrace. This invention, here em-

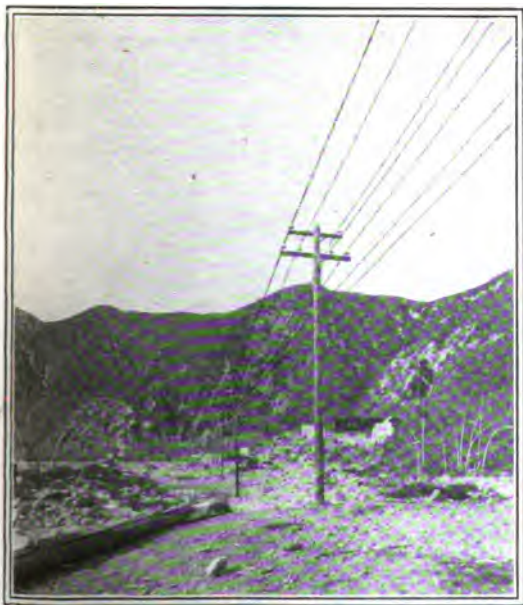
ployed for the first time, will undoubtedly come into general use in the new high-pressure plants.

The power from the above and its sister plants is used in running the famous Mount Lowe scenic railway and the street-car systems of several of the smaller southern California cities. It is used for lighting in Los Angeles and Pasadena, and in other towns having an aggregate population of close to two hundred thousand. The largest aggregate consumers, however, are pumping plants, the principal districts of which are located around Pasadena, Santa Ana, Pomona, and Redlands. The majority of these are centrifugal plants, working singly on the shallow wells and tandem on the deep ones, some pumping water under heads from 100 to 150 feet. The line from the foot of Mount San Bernardino to Los Angeles is between sixty and seventy miles long, and at present the current is transmitted at a voltage of 33,000.

The end of two years will see the completion of the proposed development of the two leading electrical companies of southern California, the Edison and the Pacific Light and Power, which means that at that time practically all the readily available power in that part of the State will be in harness. The sum total of the product of this combined development, however, added to that of the several mammoth steam plants now building, will be far from sufficient to meet the demand at that date. Both companies foresaw this some time ago, and to-day work is in progress upon plants on the Kern River, in central California, which, when completed, will supply in excess of 100,000 horse-power for the "dusty counties."

The Kern River heads up near the base of Mount Whitney, among more than a score of peaks over 14,000 feet in height, and besides flowing a magnificent stream of water the whole year, has a splendid fall, particularly toward its source. From the lowest of the Edison power houses, a transmission of 116 miles will be required to reach Los Angeles, and from the highest, about 200. A voltage of 60,000 will be maintained over the main line.

The Pacific Light and Power Company, whose principal source of power at present is the San Gabriel River, thirty miles from Los Angeles, will erect at least one turbine plant on the Kern, as it is believed that the quantity of water justifies such construction. The power so developed will be used exclusively in the operation of the vast interurban system of the Pacific Electric Railway Company, of which H. E. Huntington is the head.



A 33,000-VOLT TRANSMISSION LINE, 83 MILES LONG, TO LOS ANGELES.

(Designed to transmit 4,000 horse-power with a loss of 10 per cent.)

ELECTRIC POWER FROM MOUNT RAINIER.

A plan to develop electric power and distribute it for commercial purposes is being carried out in the extreme Northwest which rivals that which has resulted in Niagara Falls supplying light and power to the communities in its vicinity. The Pacific coast has already seen the inception of several projects of this kind on a very large scale, but that which is being undertaken in the State of Washington far exceeds any which have thus far been completed in this section of the country. If successful, the electric current can be produced on such an extensive scale that it will furnish illumination to the cities of Seattle and Tacoma, as well as a score of smaller towns located in the vicinity of Puget Sound, and supply the requisite power for all of their industries. In this case, however, there is no great waterfall to generate the supply, but the engineers have determined upon the novel plan of utilizing glacier-fed mountain streams. In fact, they depend entirely upon the glaciers of Mount Rainier as a source of their water-supply.

This peak, as is well known, rises to a height of about 14,500 feet above sea level. By reason of its proximity to the Pacific Ocean, the abundant rainfall continually "feeds" the glaciers, as it might be termed, and the ice-formation is very extensive. Scientists who have examined it say that no other mountain on the Western Hemisphere has such a coating of ice, for the surface, including the hill country at its foot, comprises a space of over 3,000 square miles,—nearly three times the area of the State of Rhode Island. While the glaciers are, of course, principally located at a high altitude, no less than 30 have been found extending over a space which embraces over 100 square miles, some of the ice-walls reaching to a depth of over 1,000 feet by actual measurement. Another source of water-supply comes from the immense snow-beds which accumulate during the winter season in the valleys which seam the sides of the mountain and provide a very large volume of the water which passes down the rivers having their source on Rainier.

Messrs. Charles A. Stone and Edwin S. Webster, the engineers who have investigated the question of securing power from the glacial stream, have decided to use what is known as the Puyallup River, which emerges from the ice fields at a height of about 3,000 feet above sea level. With the Mowich River, the Puyallup

drains five of the largest glaciers, its course being down the northwest slope of the mountain, toward Puget Sound. A notable feature of these streams are what are called glacial tides, which occur especially during the summer time. There is an increase in the flow of water at the head of each river between midday and two or three hours before sunset, caused by the sun's heat melting the ice more rapidly than at other periods. The increase in the volume of the water aggregates two feet in the narrower part of the rivers. Advantage has been taken of a gorge through which the Puyallup flows, just below the point where the Mowich enters it. The river at this point is 1,900 feet above sea level and 35 miles from Tacoma. Here, arrangements have been made to construct a very large dam, the water from which will be carried by a power canal to a point $10\frac{1}{2}$ miles below, where it will be discharged into a forebay and connecting reservoirs of suitable dimensions.

In the cañon below, a large power house will be built, and to it the water from the artificial lake above will be precipitated through tapering steel tubes 1,700 feet in length set at an angle of 45 degrees. These tubes will be 48 inches in diameter at the top, and will carry a column of water with a net head of 850 feet (the friction due to the slope of the pipes having been deducted). The nozzles will be 5 inches in diameter, and the water will issue from them at a



A CREVASSE IN ONE OF THE MOUNT RAINIER GLACIERS.



A GENERAL VIEW OF TACOMA AND MOUNT RAINIER FROM THE HARBOR.

speed of more than 14,000 feet a minute. This force will be used to revolve a set of four impulse water-wheels specially constructed for the purpose. It is calculated that the pressure will cause them to rotate with a velocity of no less

than 7,000 feet a minute, the four producing 20,000 horse-power. The energy thus developed would be capable of raising 99,000 tons at a rate of one foot per minute, and into the "cups" of the wheels will fall the enormous weight of



A VIEW OF MOUNT RAINIER IN SUMMER, SHOWING THE IMMENSE SNOW-FIELDS.

2,000,000 tons of water, daily, from a height over three times that of Niagara. The set of four will be used at first, others being added as required.

The power house will be located near what is known as Lake Kopowsin. The Tacoma Eastern and the Northern Pacific roads pass within three miles of its site, and there is building at the present moment a branch railroad, under the name of the Pierce County Improvement Company, for the purpose of bringing in the materials and the machinery necessary. Materials designed for the construction of the reservoir and flume will be hoisted up over the cliff by a wire-rope tramway. The generators in the power house will be second in size only to those lately installed at Niagara Falls, and the step-up transformers, for which an order is just being placed, will be of corresponding capacity. The electric current at the power house is to be "stepped up" from 2,300 volts to 50,000 volts.

A further idea of the magnitude of the undertaking can be given when it is stated that the electrical installation will include six electrical generators each of 3,500 kilowatts capacity — among the most extensive yet constructed. Transforming stations are to be erected at Tacoma, Seattle, and other suitable locations, from which the current will be distributed for operating street and interurban railway systems, lumbering and other industries, and, as already stated, for illuminating purposes. The cities named have a population, combined, of 125,000 people, but in the vicinity of Puget Sound is a population of over 200,000 which can be served by the system. The project of supplying light and power south of the mountain is considered entirely feasible by engineers, and the service will probably be extended, eventually, to Portland, Ore., as it is believed that ample power can be secured for generating an adequate supply of electricity.



THE HEAD WATERS OF A GLACIAL RIVER, SHOWING THE GREAT ICE-FORMATION WHICH IS ITS SOURCE.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE LEADER OF THE GERMAN SOCIALISTS.

ELSEWHERE in this number of the *REVIEW* OF REVIEWS an account is given of the recent German elections and the triumph of the Social Democrats. Miss Edith Sellers contributes to the *Fortnightly Review* for July a very interesting sketch of Herr Bebel, "the leader of the strongest party in Germany." She says:

BEBEL AS AN ORATOR.

"Even Herr Bebel's enemies admit that as a parliamentary orator he is without a rival in Germany. Some of his speeches, indeed, are perfect models of eloquence, original in matter, terse and vigorous in style. His language is singularly beautiful; and the Fates have given him one of the very sweetest voices in all Europe. He has not, it is true, that power of exciting wild enthusiasm which his colleague, Herr Liebknecht, possessed. For that he is himself too many-sided, perhaps,—too 'sweetly reasonable,' his friends would say. None the less, he is by far the most convincing speaker in the Reichstag. There is a certain fatalistic ring about many of his utterances which is in itself singularly impressive. As men listen to him a curious—and eminently unpleasant—sense of the inevitableness of the changes he advocates steals over them; the very calmness with which he enunciates his doctrines seems to render them the more incontrovertible. Although there is rarely a trace of violence in his speeches, until within quite recent days they were undoubtedly somewhat ruthless in tone, for he is the veriest Mohammed in his views as to the measure to be meted out to his opponents; he smites them hip and thigh when they fall into his power."

AS INDIVIDUALIST.

Bebel is not a demagogue; he rules his followers with a strong hand, and shows restiveness, but scant consideration. In his early days, he was a strong individualist, a radical of the Bradlaugh type, one with infinite scorn for the feeble folk who wish the state to fight for them their battles. He got some of his early teaching from Jesuits. He is a German to the core, and the thought of a united Germany appealed to him strongly.

"'United Germany!' he once exclaimed, with bitter scorn, in reply to some taunt or other in the Reichstag,—'I was fighting for a united

Germany at a time when the Hohenzollerns and the Junkers to a man were against it—its bitterest opponents.'"

HOW HE BECAME A SOCIALIST.

Bebel was cradled into socialism by wrong.

"From the day of his arrival in Leipsic, Bebel had been sorely troubled in his mind by the signs of poverty and suffering he met with at every turn. The conditions of labor there were then much the same as they had been in England in the early forties,—that is to say, the life of the great mass of the workers was one long struggle to ward off starvation. Even when in full health and strength, it was no easy task for a man to provide bread for his children; and when evil days came, if he were laid aside but for a week, he must turn them out to beg or see them hunger. Bebel was keenly alive to the intolerable misery of this state of things; the injustice of it, too, drove him wild with indignation. What had these men, his own comrades, done, he asked, that this fate should be theirs,—hard work, early and late, scant rations, and the end of it all, charity or starvation? The whole world was so completely out of joint, he felt, that it must be put right, and with all possible speed."

HIS TALENTS AS ORGANIZER.

It was Liebknecht who finally convinced him that in the reorganization of society on a Socialist basis lay the one hope of securing fair treatment for the poor, and it was under Liebknecht's influence that he joined the Socialist party.

"Bebel is a propagandist by instinct; no sooner did he become a Socialist than he promptly set to work to preach socialism from the very housetops; and so great was his influence among the working classes in Leipsic that he soon induced the majority of them to embrace his new creed. He then carried his gospel into more distant regions; he went about from town to town holding meetings, and wherever he went he made converts, although he had to fight, on the one hand, against Lassalle's followers, the State Socialists, and, on the other, against the anarchists. Meanwhile, he had developed a quite extraordinary talent as an organizer, and in conjunction with Herr Liebknecht was striving his hardest to weld into a united party the various groups into which the German Socialists were then divided. It is owing, in a great

measure, to the work he did in those days that the Social Democrats are to-day the best-organized and best-disciplined party in the Reichstag."

AS POLITICAL PROPHET.

During the Franco-German War, Bebel opposed the treatment of the French as foes; he was denounced as a traitor, and he and Liebknecht were finally arrested on a charge of treason which collapsed ignominiously. But Bismarck succeeded in having him locked up for two years on the charge of preaching dangerous doctrines and of plotting against the state. But Bebel was right in his forecast of the results of annexing Alsace-Lorraine, and many Germans, says Miss Sellers, have come round to his point of view in the last thirty years.

"For our own sakes, if not for hers, we must restore to France the provinces we have conquered," he told his fellow-countrymen roundly. "If we hold back but a single village, we shall drive the French into the arms of Russia and transform all Europe into a huge camp."

THE RESPONSIBILITY FOR KISHINEFF.

WHILE the facts may never be fully known, the surviving victims of the Kishineff massacre, with their coreligionists the world over, will always believe that the riots of last April were premeditated, and that the outrages which ensued were winked at, if not actually connived in, by those in authority. Prof. Richard Gottheil, of Columbia University, adds his support to this view in an article contributed to the current *Forum*. After describing the outwardly peaceful conditions that have long prevailed in Kishineff, where forty thousand Jews lived side by side with seventy thousand Christians, "in equity and friendship," plying with diligence whatever trades were open to them, Professor Gottheil relates the circumstances that caused these Kishineff Hebrews, even before the riots were started, to fear for their lives and property:

"About five years ago, a newspaper called *Bessarabets* had been established there by one Krushewan. It was the only newspaper permitted to exist by the authorities. Since the second year of its publication, it has been violently anti-Jewish, rivaling the *Anti-Juif*, of Paris, Algiers, and Brussels, and the *Staatsburger Zeitung*, of Berlin. Its whole object seemed to be to sow strife and hatred between the Christian and the Jewish inhabitants of the city. Its word of parole was 'Death to the Jews.' 'We will undertake another crusade against the Jews;' 'It is time Russian life were freed from parasites;' 'Jewish corpses shall be bound to cart-wheels,'—these

are only a few of the choice phrases used by Krushewan. No gag was put upon his mouth, no muzzle upon his pen, by the head of the local censor bureau, the vice-governor, Oustrugoff. It is in evidence that hand-written pamphlets were circulated in the cabarets openly proclaiming: 'The Czar has given permission to attack the Jews on the first two days of the festival of the Passover.' Nor was their circulation prohibited by the censor. He even went so far as to reassure the Jewish official representatives, who asked him for protection, that there was no danger. From across the Roumanian border, also, the poison was being instilled. In the month of March, the *Vocea Tutovei*, of Berlad, published the most inflammatory articles in connection with the celebration at Eastertide. It is stated upon good authority that the subsequent riots were organized with deliberation, and that the places where the organizers met are well known."

THE ANTI-SEMITIC PRESS AND THE GOVERNMENT.

Professor Gottheil supplements his narrative of the tragedy of April 19 and 20, which we need not repeat here, with the following comment:

"It is a dreadful thing to imagine that any one but an excited mob could be guilty of such excesses. Yet a mob never acts spontaneously. It must be prepared; it must be goaded on; it must be led. And upon those who have done this leader's work must the final blame lie. Heavy as the accusation may seem, and much as we should exercise the virtue of charity, a three-fold blame attaches to Russia—to the anti-Semitic leaders, to the local authorities of Kishineff, and to the central government in St. Petersburg. Enough has been said in the first part of this article to show how the riots were artfully prepared many months—nay, even years—in advance. The local anti-Semitic press has been powerfully aided by the anti-Semitic *Znamya*, *Novoe Vremya*, and *Sviet*, of St. Petersburg. One could quote article after article from their columns which in coldest blood exasperated the populace to just such dramas as have been enacted in Bessarabia. What better proof do we need than the words of the *Znamya*, in commenting upon the Kishineff disaster, which it declared to have been a 'well-earned lesson?' Once again the blessing of press publicity has been turned into a curse.

"The guilt of the local authorities of Kishineff, as second accessory to the crimes, is only too evident. Not only had the machinations of the *Bessarabets* been allowed free exercise, but their dilatoriness in calling out the military stamps them as *participes criminis*. Some of the houses were pillaged continuously for eight to twelve

hours. The authorities did nothing to prevent the storm from coming; they remained passive when it did come; and though a thousand persons were taken into custody for participation in the riots, they were brought before the examining magistrate, Davidovitch, a noted anti-Semite and one of the leading writers on the *Bessarabetz*. No wonder that many were allowed to go scot free upon the flimsiest excuses, though caught either red-handed or with stolen goods on their persons. In preventing the use of the telegraph for the purpose of communicating with St. Petersburg, the authorities directly contributed to prolong the suffering.

"Graver still is the silent complicity in the happenings at Kishineff with which one is obliged to charge the central Russian government at St. Petersburg. For years, the anti-Semitic press in the capital has been allowed a free hand to disseminate at will whatever it cared to say against the Jews. This is no small matter if one remembers the strict censorship of the press in Russia. The all-powerful censor's bureau can, in the twinkling of an eye, stop the publication of anything of which it does not approve. The Jewish and pro-Jewish newspapers have, on the other hand, been subjected to every manner of annoyance. The *Pravo* (Right), edited by Prof. Wladimir Gossion and Nicholas Lazarewski, has been severely censured for defending the Jews; and a like fate has befallen the Jewish journal *Woschod* for publishing details of the massacres. The St. Petersburg Jews were even prohibited from holding commemoration services in memory of the victims."

Complaisance of the Russian Bureaucracy.

In the *North American Review* for July, Mr. Abraham Cahan, writing on "The Jewish Massacres and the Revolutionary Movement in Russia," reverts to the anti-Jewish disturbances that followed the assassination of Alexander II., in 1881. The riots at that time spread from district to district until they covered some one hundred and fifty towns and villages. As in the recent Kishineff outbreak, the streets were full of police and troops, who, instead of protecting the Jews, encouraged their assailants, and in many cases even joined them in their bloody work.

"Indeed, the story of the Kishineff pandemonium, barring the number of persons killed and wounded,—in which respect it far exceeds any of the riots of 1881–82,—reads like a chapter from the history of that savage campaign. 'Easy, boys!' said the Governor of Kieff, with an amused smile, driving around among the riff-raff and their refined allies while they were busily engaged in their barbarous work. The gov-

ernors of other riot-ridden places acted similarly. In many instances, when a Jew implored an officer to rescue his wife or daughter, he was asked, by way of reply, whether he was sure that his passports were in proper shape.

"The natural upshot was an impression, which rapidly gained ground among the blind, illiterate peasantry, that the crusade had been ordered by the Czar, and that a document containing the imperial ukase to that effect would be sent to every town and village in which a single Jew was to be found. It was one of the characteristic incidents of the period for peasants to ask their village clerk when 'that paper' was expected to reach his office; or for the residents of some suburb to come to town with wagons, sacks, and implements of devastation, and to ask the first policeman they met when their services would be required. Sometimes, a muzhik who lived on friendly terms with his Jewish neighbor would tell the latter with tears in his eyes that he wished he could leave his house undestroyed, but that by doing so he would make himself liable to imprisonment for failing to do the behest of the Czar; and there were cases in which Jews saved their property and the honor of their wives and daughters by signing a document assuming all responsibility before the law for the failure of neighborly Gentiles to destroy their household goods or the contents of their stores. The object of that 'imperial ukase' was, in the belief of these ignorant people, to turn over 'the ill-gotten wealth of the Christ-killers to the beloved children of the Czar, the peasants of orthodox Christian faith.' These rumors spread like wildfire, through the efforts of the police as well as of special emissaries of the anti-Semites; and, as in the case of the Kishineff massacre, the ferocity of the mob invariably reached its highest point when their target was the population of the slums, poor, hard-working mechanics, whose 'ill-gotten wealth' consisted of their tools and the contents of their wretched hovels."

Mr. Cahan recalls the significant fact that the director of the police department, under whom all this happened, was none other than the present minister of the interior, von Plehwe, to whom, it is asserted, the Jews of Kishineff had applied for permission to publish a newspaper to counteract the incendiary agitation of the anti-Semitic *Bessarabetz*, but had received the laconic reply to their petition: "The *Bessarabetz* is good enough for Kishineff." It is not denied that the *Bessarabetz* had among its regular contributors the vice-governor and several other officials of the province, while several of the members of its editorial staff were among the leaders of the mob in the April massacres.

THE SERVIAN TRAGEDY.

THERE are two articles in the July *Contemporary* dealing with the Servian tragedy and its results, the first by "Ivanovich," whoever he may be, the second by Dr. E. J. Dillon. The papers agree strangely in style, and in certain other things.

"Ivanovich," at the beginning of his article, makes the important point that the Obrenovitch dynasty is by no means "extinct," as is generally supposed. The Salic Law does not exist in Servia, and Queen Draga's sisters, as descendants of Milosh, are heiresses presumptive. "The furious violence practised toward Draga's family may be accounted for by the constitutional position of the women descended from Milosh." "A descendant of Milosh's eldest daughter would have as good a legal right to dispute the title of Karageorgevitch as the sons of Duncan had to contest that of Macbeth." Of the tragedy itself, "Ivanovich" says:

"Belgrade is less than two days by the Oriental express from Paris, but the psychical state of the French officer is hundreds of years in advance of that of the Servian colonel and lieutenants who tried to clear off by massacre the Obrenovitch dynasty. The ultra-modern circumstances which accompanied their work render it more revolting. Officers who had studied in the Zurich Polytechnic School knew how to use dynamite without injury to themselves when they wanted to break in doors massive as those of a church. Those who had been told off to cut the electric wires communicating with lamps had india-rubber gloves. They searched by the light of composite candles they had brought in their pockets for the hiding-place of the king and queen. When they discovered the fugitives, some of the officers held high the candles for their comrades to lay on and not spare the unfortunate pair. There was no attempt to resist. All Alexander wanted was 'to die with Draga,' and this elevated him into the region of romance. It may hereafter furnish a theme to Servian bards. Another modern circumstance makes one's flesh creep. The bodies, flung out of a window, lay on a garden walk until dawn, when a soldier received an order to wash them there with a fireman's hydrant, and when they had been cleansed to lay them on the tables of the palace kitchen for dissection."

THE CHIEF CONSPIRATOR.

The queen received two pistol balls and sixty-two sword cuts and slashes, and her corpse bore black and blue marks that testified to a merciless pounding with strong fists. On Alexander's body there were six revolver wounds, all deadly.

and forty-two sword wounds. The writer knew Colonel Maschine, and describes him thus:

"Colonel Maschine resembles, outwardly, an eminent Irishman who had also a genius for conspiracy but had a sentimental, tender nature, in spite of his impassive exterior and the ruthlessness of the war he waged against his own class—the Irish landlords. I mean the late C. S. Parnell. Parnell, however, had a fair face and light-brown hair, came of a highly cultured race, had gentlemanly feeling, and held his own with the agitators around him, not by fighting or flatterer or entertaining, but by standing aloof and wrapping himself up in mystery. We are now apt to underrate gentlemanly qualities, which are really the finest flowers of the ages. Maschine, —to continue my comparison, which only applies to appearance,—is dark as night, and has a silky beard, black as jet, and a wolfish mouth in laughing. Otherwise, he might strike one as a dreamer, or at any rate as contemplative. He is not a gentleman, however, in bearing or in small matters that demand self-restraint or self-sacrifice. But Servia, perhaps, cannot boast of a single gentlemanly man in the good old acceptance of the term. Servians educated in Paris can and often do take a varnish, but it is only a thin coating. The arch-conspirator with whom I am dealing had the instincts of those barbarians who surrounded the Greek emperors in all the sumptuous gorgeousness of Byzantine apparel. They were masters, like him, in the art of bringing conspiracies to successful issues. If they had dogmatic faith, they were devoid of moral sense, treacherous and cruel, and found pleasure in torturing their victims."

"Ivanovich" describes the king as graceless and fidgety, and the queen as handsome but not altogether pleasing.

"The splendid eyes could express any feeling that boiled her blood, softened her heart, raised or agitated her soul. Her nose inclined to classical regularity, with a very faint inclination to *retroussé*, and she had the prettiest, sauciest, most perfectly formed little mouth imaginable."

She was the only woman the king was ever attached to, and from a domestic point of view the pair led a blameless life.

"Nothing pleased Alexander more than to see Draga, with her maid, inspect the linen that had come from the wash. She looked it over minutely, seeing where a stitch might be wanted. This domestic task she never failed to discharge. She darned, herself, the king's cycling stockings and his socks, and knitted the former. He read to her while she worked. She checked all the house accounts once a week, and ordered tradespeople who overcharged to be deprived of the

palace custom. The 'Home, Sweet Home' sentiment accounted for Alexander's constancy in the face of paternal and maternal opposition."

"Ivanovich" ends with a not altogether pleasing sketch of the new king, who, he declares, cannot help becoming a tyrant.

DR. DILLON'S VIEWS.

Dr. Dillon seems to think that the king earned, if he did not deserve, his fate. He was an intelligent, fairly well instructed lad, utterly devoid of education. He had a strong will and a steady nerve, combined with other qualities less desirable from an ethical point of view.

"He courted his destiny with fatuity, provoked it with perseverance. For latter-day Serbia is inhabited by a people of coarse, hard-headed swine-herds and farmers who, though passionately fond of license, which they take for freedom, are, like most Oriental races, easily led by the right ruler. But Alexander, far from being equipped by nature or education as a ruler of men, was, like his father, utterly devoid of self-mastery, the first condition of all good leadership. His government was the embodiment of contraries, the practical outcome of political paradoxes; to-day he would proclaim a veritable Saturnalia, to-morrow a *régime* of absolute despotism; one month a batch of cabinet ministers would be cooped up in dungeons or tried for their lives, and another month would see the criminals whose execution had just been declared to be a state necessity raised to the highest offices in the realm. His political maxims, if one may give this name to uncontrollable impulses, remind one of the simple notions of the Hibernian farmer who fed his pigs to excess one day and kept them wholly without food the next, 'in order that the fat and the lean of the bacon might be properly mixed.' Alexander thus used up every party in the state; he mortally offended the people's representatives, leaning on the support of the army, and finally humiliated the army at a moment when he had no support at all. He scorned all advice, ignored warnings, misinterpreted unmistakable tokens of the coming storm. And at last educated officers, men who had sworn to offer up their lives to preserve his, organized the blood bath of June 11, defiling the annals of their country with an indelible stain and involving in a common but unmerited obloquy the mass of the Servian people."

He says that the king was warned three days before the tragedy that he must proclaim Peter Karageorgevitch as heir, otherwise he was lost. The following account of the tragedy was given to him by one of the murderers:

"We were wild with passion, trembling with excitement, incapable of receiving any impressions from the things and people around us. Hence, we cannot say who shot the king in the head, who in the heart. But I have a vivid recollection of some things. I remember turning out the electric light and going to fetch candles to light my comrades on the way. That done, I remained together with them to the end. I remember our breaking into the king's bedroom, finding it empty, and then looking into the queen's wardrobe room, where we found the pair. Who fired first? I don't know; nobody knows. At first we did not fire at all. We drew our sabers and cut off the fingers of the king and queen; four fingers were hewn from the king's hand. Then we fired."

THE REIGN OF TERROR IN FINLAND.

THE saddest feature of the unhappy situation in Finland is the almost utter loss of hope by the Finnish people. This phase of the matter is clearly brought out in an article contributed by John Jackol to the *Arena* for July. Speaking of the general depression that followed the promulgation of the Czar's decree in 1899, this writer says:

"It is not necessary to dwell upon the deep feeling of indignation and grief that pervaded the country. It has found a freer expression outside of the grand duchy than within its boundaries. Wherever the human heart is beating in sympathetic harmony with universal progress, the oppressed Finnish people have found moral support. In spite of this, one by one, the Finns have been deprived of their hereditary rights and privileges. To the Finns, this new order of things seems appalling. It is like the drawing of the veil of the Dark Ages over their beloved country. They have lost everything that is dear to the human heart,—their language, their religion, and their independence. They can do nothing but mourn in silence and mortification, for a strict Russian censorship prevents the expression of their just indignation and grief.

A CASE OF SLOW STARVATION.

"The present condition of Finland is apathetic. Last fall, the loss of crops was almost complete, and pestilence and famine are devastating the country, which has been drained of its vitality by an excessive migration and military conscription. The young men of Finland are forced to serve five years in the Russian army, and the country is suffering from a lack of men to till the soil. The credit of the country has been ruined, and panic is spreading rapidly. Whole-

sale migration of the more thrifty has made the already difficult problem of readjustment more complicated. Those who remain behind are literally suffering from physical, intellectual, and moral starvation. There is left nothing to refresh, fertilize, and energize the nation's vitality. The Finns are utterly helpless.

A SERIES OF PETTY TYRANNIES.

"In this sad extremity of their people, the best men of Finland are exerting their utmost in the endeavor to alleviate suffering and infuse hope and inspiration among the masses. The young Finnish party has become exasperated by the humiliation that has been heaped upon the long-suffering people of their native land, and its leaders have advised active resistance. The old Finnish party has adopted the policy of passive resistance and protest. But the inroads upon the constitution of Finland, in the form of imperial decrees, rules and regulations by the governor-general and his subordinates have been so many and so sweeping in their character that even the most conservative are beginning to lose patience. As long as the unconstitutional acts affected only the political life of the people, many were able to bear it, but when the new rules attacked the time-honored social institutions and customs, indignation could no longer be suppressed. For instance, the order to open private mail caused a general protest. The postal director and his secretary refused to sign the order and resigned. No less obnoxious was the order forbidding public meetings and directing the governors of the different provinces of Finland to appoint only such men to fill municipal rural offices as will be subservient to the governor-general. The governor of the province of Ulasborg resigned, while several other provinces were already governed by pliant tools of General Bobrikoff.

"The long-suppressed anxiety of the people has changed into a heartrending sigh of anguish. These words of a national poet express the general sentiment: 'Better far than servitude a death upon the gallows.' A vicious circle has been established. The high-handed measures cause indignation, and the governor-general is determined to suppress its expression. There is no safety in Finland for honest and patriotic men. The judiciary has been made subservient to General Bobrikoff. Latest advices are ominous. April 24, 1903, was a black day in the history of Finland. It witnessed the inauguration of a reign of terror which, by the ordinance of April 2 and the rescript of April 9, General Bobrikoff had been authorized to establish.

"Bobrikoff returned to Finland with authority,

if necessary, to close hotels, stores, and factories, to forbid general meetings, to dissolve clubs and societies, and to banish without legal process any one whose presence in the country he considered objectionable. The expulsion will be ratified by the Czar, unless the nature of the case requires an immediate banishment. Persons thus deported are directed to live in a designated part of the empire."

BRITISH FREE TRADE VERSUS THE ZOLLVEREIN.

LAST month we reviewed several of the articles in the British reviews favoring Mr. Chamberlain's policy of imperial reciprocity, remarking, at the same time, that the champions of free trade had remained almost silent, so far as the magazines were concerned. The July issues, however, displayed the other side of the shield, and the arguments for free trade were as enthusiastically advanced as had been those for the Zollverein in the preceding month. It is safe to assume that England has not yet been won over to the cause of protectionism.

M. Yves Guyot's paper, which opens the discussion in the *Fortnightly*, is mainly devoted, not to predicting what protection will do, but to telling what it has done when tried in France. The article is entitled "Mr. Chamberlain's Programme in the Light of French Experience." Before dealing with this side of the problem, M. Guyot subjects Mr. Chamberlain's nebulous project to severe criticism on its inherent merits. Firstly, though Mr. Chamberlain points to Germany and the United States as examples, he does not propose to imitate the better sides of their fiscal systems. The German Zollverein is a customs union between the different states, and the customs duties collected are divided among the different states according to population. In America, the customs are collected for the profit of the Union as a unit. Under Mr. Chamberlain's system, the self-governing colonies will continue to preserve their economic autonomy. The result is that interests will be eternally clashing. "Under protectionism," says M. Guyot, "economic rivalry gives place to political rivalry." Every district imagines itself sacrificed to other districts, and every industry to other industries.

In France, the whole art of M. Méline, who has been the protectionist leader for twenty-five years, has consisted in uniting groups of often contradictory interests, always to the detriment of the consumer. "Beet-root strikes a bargain with wine; cotton and iron come to an understanding." The instability of French cabinets is due to the fact that ministries come to grief

because some protectionist appetite has not been satisfied, and protectionists are quite insatiable.

"France is cut into sections by the protectionist spirit, and it is a strange delusion to suppose that differential tariffs will draw closer the bonds of solidarity between the United Kingdom and the self-governing colonies. Every colony will think that it is sacrificed to the others."

M. Guyot points out that 44 per cent. of Australasian exports to Great Britain are wool, and if raw material were exempted, while gold, copper, silver, and tin could not be privileged, there would be no resource but to put a high duty on mutton, thus favoring New Zealand. On the other hand, the new system would favor Canada, 55 per cent. of whose exports is composed of foodstuffs and timber.

As for old-age pensions, M. Guyot says:

"To assume, therefore, that protective duties will suffice to meet expenses of this kind is to run counter to the best authenticated economic facts. *When a protective tariff fulfills its purpose, it yields no revenue.* In France, the duty on wheat produces the best financial result when wheat is scarce and bread is dear. Under a protectionist system, a bad harvest makes a good budget, and a good harvest a bad budget. In 1897, a bad harvest year, the duties on cereals brought in fifty-five million francs; in 1898, seventy-eight millions, and they would have brought in even more if they had not been suspended. They fell to twenty millions in 1900, and to thirteen million eight hundred thousand francs in 1902. How could any pension fund be made dependent on such fluctuating resources? If Mr. Chamberlain's duties had their full effect, they ought to extinguish any receipts by excluding the commodities at which they were aimed. Then what would become of the fund for 'old-age pensions' and 'other social reforms'?"

THE EXPERIENCE OF FRANCE.

M. Guyot gives a quantity of statistics to show how the protection of food in France affects retail prices. The difference between the price of wheat in Paris and London is almost exactly the difference of the French import duty.

"M. des Essars has picked out the catalogue prices of forty-six articles sold by the leading grocers of London and Paris, and assuming that the buyer buys one unit of each of these commodities, he finds that he will have to pay 109 fr. 95 in Paris, and 84 fr. 09 in London, or exactly 30.78 per cent. more in Paris than in London. But the French prices include 11 fr. 34 customs and *octroi* duty, whereas these represent only 1 fr. 57 in the English prices, so that the net price of the Paris goods is 98 fr. 01, and of

the London 82 fr. 52, or a difference of sixteen francs, making 19 per cent. to the detriment of Paris."

These high prices are entirely in the interests of the producers. Not ten persons in a hundred of the working population of France have any interest in protection.

"Mr. Chamberlain supposes himself a democrat, but his scheme of duties on food is oligarchical. It is a reversal of the formula of Helvetius, imported into England by Priestley and popularized by Bentham,—'the interest of the greatest number.'"

From the Liberal Standpoint.

The *New Liberal Review* for July is a special number devoted almost altogether to Mr. Chamberlain's departure. Thereby it renders good service to free trade; there are seven articles, dealing with the subject from different points of view, and dealing with it practically, and not from the point of view of electoral maneuvers.

THE REASONS FOR FREE TRADE.

The first article is by Alfred Emmott, M.P., and deals with "Preferential Trade." His argument may be summed up as follows:

"The real argument for free trade is that a nation cannot in the long run sell without buying or buy without selling, and that the individual or society will most profitably produce what he can best sell if he himself can buy what he wants at the lowest possible price. To increase the home demand by protective duties is to raise the cost of production and the cost of consumption in the country where the duties are levied, and this must handicap the exporter in his external trade. This is particularly the case in a country like England, dependent on its export trade for much of its daily bread. England's chief exports must be manufactured goods. If the cost of production is raised, the difficulty of selling profitably abroad must be increased.

"Now, if the food of the people is taxed, either wages will go down or remain the same, or go up. In the two former contingencies, the worker would suffer; in the latter, the cost of production would be raised. Mr. Chamberlain states (and, so far, without a shadow of proof) that wages would go up. If so, the cost of production would be increased, and the question arises as to how and where we can obtain an enhanced price for the £175,000,000 of our exports which now go to foreign countries? No one pretends they can be absorbed at home or in the British Empire. They must to a large extent go to foreign countries, and we obviously endanger the trade if we raise the cost of these goods. The

very foundation of our foreign export trade is cheap imports and cheap food, and depending, as we do, on our export trade for much of our food, our ports are open to all the world. So we have free trade, not because it pays other nations, but because it pays us and is in effect vital to the maintenance of our industrial position.

"Retaliation, says Mr. Emmott, will lead, not to the reduction of foreign tariffs, but to their increase."

A COLOMBIAN VIEW OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

FOR many weeks, it has been a matter of wonderment in this country that Colombia should hesitate for one moment in regard to the ratification of the Panama Canal treaty. In the *North American Review* for July, Señor Raúl Pérez, a native Colombian, sets forth some of the arguments that are employed by those of his countrymen who are trying to frustrate a transaction which is supposed in the United States to be fraught with the greatest benefits to Colombia.

WILL THE CANAL HELP COLOMBIA?

Passing over the contention of Señor Pérez that the Colombian Congress cannot ratify a treaty involving a cession of territory to a foreign power,—which is a point in Colombian constitutional law pure and simple,—we note his prediction as to the economic influence of the completed canal on Colombian interests.

"The conditions as they exist to-day place Colombia in the position of the owner of a bridge over which an immense traffic is constantly passing. There are many steamship lines converging on the ports of Panama and Colon that load and unload there enormous quantities of merchandise in transit, while large numbers of passengers are compelled to stop at both ends of the trans-isthmian railroad. All such patronage is very valuable to the Isthmus; and, being terminals, both ports have naturally considerable importance. Such will not be the case when the canal is opened. Steamers will go through as rapidly as possible, the passengers dreading the unhealthy climate. There will be no loading and unloading of cargoes; the ports will no longer be terminals, nor, perhaps, even coaling stations, and they will not have anything else to place on board but the scanty products of their own immediate neighborhood.

"It must be borne in mind that the Isthmus is a strip of land utterly detached from the remainder of Colombia, separated by an immense tract of low, marshy land, which is covered with virgin forests, where not a single road exists,

and into which but few explorers have penetrated, under the greatest hardships and at the extreme peril of life.

"Neither Panama, Colon, nor any other port on the Isthmus leads to any part of the settled regions of Colombia. The country has many ports on both the Atlantic and Pacific oceans which are much nearer the interior and are comparatively easy of access. The only gain with regard to trade—and even that is problematical—might be for a strip of land some three hundred miles long and fifty miles wide, situated on the Pacific coast. The productions of that region, entirely tropical and chiefly consisting of chocolate, have already good markets in Chile and on the western coast of the United States, and it remains to be demonstrated that the freight rates through the canal would be low enough to enable the chocolate planters of the Colombian Pacific coast to compete with the Venezuelan product on the Atlantic side. In any case, that narrow Pacific region is the only portion of Colombian territory that could derive advantage from the canal. Every country in the world would be a gainer rather than Colombia.

MOTIVES OF TREATY ADVOCATES.

"The facts stated are perfectly well known to Colombians, who from the time of Bolívar have imagined that within the narrow strip linking the two American continents Colombia held her great trump card. It would be an unspeakable disappointment to them to see that advantage fall into other hands, with no return but a few millions of dollars, to be employed, not for, but against, their welfare and prosperity. Indeed, so strong is this sentiment that it seems more patriotic to feel that no compensation at all would be preferable. There are many who maintain that a seizure of the Isthmus by a world power would be more satisfactory, inasmuch as Colombians would be in a position to repeat in all coming years the phrase: *Tout est perdu, hors l'honneur*. The rights of Colombia in that case would hold good forever, and the day might come when they would be revindicated; but no such hope could be entertained if the dishonest band of clericals who act as the government of Colombia give a seemingly legal consent to the transaction.

"The members of that band are in favor of the canal, not because they believe it to be of practical good to their country, and not because they have any love or admiration for the United States, but simply because they see the possibility of securing ten millions of dollars, to be applied to their own purposes. They argue more or less thus: 'The Isthmus is a segregated limb

of the country where we have not full sway. We may just as well abandon it in exchange for ten millions of dollars with which to establish our uncontested dominion in the rest of the territory.'"

In his concluding paragraph, Señor Pérez states what he believes to be the real desire of the Colombians in regard to the canal. That is, to have Colombia hold a permanent interest in the enterprise as a partner of the United States, "deriving an income that would benefit, not a few officials and one political party, but all the people for generations to come." Señor Pérez sees no reason why such a partnership between nations could not be as successfully carried out as a partnership between individuals.

THE NEW GENERAL STAFF OF THE ARMY.

ON August 15, 1903, the establishment of a general staff corps for the United States army will mark the culmination of Secretary Root's noteworthy reforms in army administration. The importance of this new body of trained

vented its establishment; explains its functions, mediate and immediate, as prescribed by law; and discusses a few of the many subjects with which it will deal, so as to enable even the non-military reader to judge of the importance and comprehensiveness of its sphere of action.

EVILS OF THE WASHINGTON BUREAU SYSTEM.

Perhaps the most noteworthy feature of General Schwan's paper is its arraignment of the old bureau system of army administration. He shows that for many years, at Washington, "not the line, but its servant, the staff, has been virtually supreme (each staff within its own province), and that there is little correlation between the various departments of the staff." The heads of the special staffs have been subject only to the authority of the Secretary of War, a civilian, who cannot, from the nature of the case, be assumed to possess adequate knowledge on matters of military detail to enable him to decide independently the questions submitted to him by his bureau chiefs, who are frequently not themselves in close touch with the line, while one bureau may be quite ignorant of what another bureau is doing.

"That this condition of things is highly unsatisfactory, even in peace time, is easy to see; each of ten unrelated bureaus holds, through its chief, direct communication with the Secretary of War, who cannot fitly represent the line, and much of whose time is necessarily occupied in conference with the President, members of Congress, and the general public, not to mention the urgent business of a quasi-civil nature that he is constantly obliged to dispose of, such as that pertaining to the colonies, and the improvement of rivers and harbors. In some of the bureaus, though apparently working under high pressure, much of the time of officers and clerks is frittered away, on the one hand with the consideration of small details or purely routine matters that do not legitimately belong at the War Department at all and ought to be determined by the local or departmental authorities, and on the other hand by the attention they are required to give to oral requests of a personal nature coming from men in high station, or to schemes or proposals more or less visionary pressed upon the Secretary or Assistant Secretary, and which they feel bound to have investigated and reported upon. Under the circumstances, questions vitally affecting the policy or welfare of the army at large have little chance to receive just consideration, and in many cases must be, and are, allowed to 'drift.' When war comes, the hurly-burly and confusion at the War Department, apparent even in ordinary times, is turned into chaos, and this is



GEN. THEODORE SCHWAN.

and seasoned officers as a factor in the military system of the country is well brought out in an article contributed by Brig.-Gen. Theodore Schwan, U.S.A., to the *Journal of the Military Service Institution* for July-August. General Schwan shows in general outline the conditions that make a general staff corps necessary, pointing out the causes which have until now pre-

instantly felt by the troops or at the front, and may produce disastrous results. Let the war office be held by the ablest and strongest man living, and he would stagger or be crushed under the weight of the labor and responsibility falling on his devoted head. This lack of unity, this pulling and hauling at cross-purposes, cannot justly be laid at the door of the chiefs of bureaus, each of whom, in his own way, according to his own lights, is conscientiously striving to work out the destiny of his specialty. It is not their fault if there is no united effort toward a common end."

QUALIFICATIONS OF GENERAL STAFF OFFICERS.

After reviewing the provisions of law for the general staff corps, pointing out that the corps will consist of two parts, one of which will serve directly under the chief of staff as the organ of the Secretary of War and will be stationed at Washington, while the other part will be attached to commanding generals of departments, General Schwan proceeds :

"In examining, now, the all-important subject of the kind of officers to be chosen for the general staff, we should once more center our minds upon the fact that the object of its existence is the insurance of success on the field of battle ; that the effectiveness of the fighting force is the thing aimed at. This being the fundamental consideration, that which overshadows all others, it follows that the general staff officer should be one who has grown up in, understands the nature, needs, and limitations of, is in full sympathy with,—in fact, is of that force. In other words, the general staff officer should, as a rule, be selected from the line, and, inasmuch as the demands upon him will be greater than those upon the average officer of the line, from the best officers of the line. The officer who has been estranged from the troops by long service in a bureau, who has lost his physical activity, is no longer an expert rider, has not a quick and trained eye 'for country,' does not understand or has forgotten how to handle troops in the field or to place them properly in position for battle,—such an officer would, unless he possessed rare compensating talents, be of little use in the general staff.

"In Germany, where the national life is thought to depend upon the army's preparedness 'to strike,' no tests are omitted that seem calculated to insure the selection of the *élite* of the line for the staff ; no pains are spared to prevent the general staff officer, while engaged in work tending to sharpen the intellect and strengthen the judgment, from deteriorating physically ; and no consideration, however po-

tent, is allowed to stand in the way of his elimination from the general staff if from any cause he has become unfit for it. Thus, a general staff officer who grows corpulent or physically indolent, or who is noticed not to take his daily gallop, is unceremoniously sent for a short term to an infantry battalion at a season when it marches at daylight every morning to its drill ground and is there put through its paces for four or five hours before returning to barracks. And, as a rule, all general staff officers are employed as umpires, or on the staff of umpires, at the maneuvers. It is told of General von Moltke that when he found he could no longer mount his horse without difficulty he asked the Emperor to relieve him from duty as chief of staff. It is seen, therefore, that the provision in our law for the periodical return of the general staff officer to the branch of the army in which he holds commission is based on valid reasons.

THE REQUIRED TRAINING.

"We find, then, that whatever else may be required of a general staff officer, he must, first of all, be a practical soldier. . He should have a general knowledge of the drill regulations of all arms, of which, without burdening his mind with unimportant details, he should master the great tactical principles forming their bases, paying special attention to those rules which apply to camping, marching, and combats. He should, of course, be well versed in the science of war, including all which that term implies. With methods of administration, he should be especially familiar ; and it would be advantageous if he had a speaking knowledge of the language of the countries with which the United States are likely to become involved in war, or in whose territories our armies may have to operate. A knowledge of the leading principles of public law, of the structure of our government—federal and State—as well as of the relations of the one to the other, is indispensable to him. It may be desirable that the general staff corps, in its entirety, should count among its numbers some who, favored by special opportunity or talent, have become wrapped up, so to speak, and excel in particular branches of the military art, or in the sciences contributory to it ; but it would be undesirable if all or many general staff officers had taken up specialties to an extent limiting their general usefulness.

"Undoubtedly, the difficulty of finding men in whom all the qualities and qualifications requisite for the general staff are combined is great. European nations have sought to overcome or lessen it by giving to young line officers of marked aptitude for handling troops and of studious

habits a special training at the so-called staff colleges. Mr. Root has already taken the necessary steps for the establishment of a similar institution for our army, to be known as the War College. Until a general staff can be supplied from this source, officers will have to be selected for it whose records warrant the expectation that they will meet the requirements. A board of officers sworn to impartiality has selected the first general staff, and it cannot possibly be doubted that fit men have been chosen."

THE GUGGENHEIMS, CAPTAINS OF THE SMELTING INDUSTRY.

THE remarkable story of Meyer Guggenheim, head of the smelting industry in the United States, is told by Mr. Edwin Lefèvre in the August *Cosmopolitan*. Mr. Meyer Guggenheim is a quiet little old man, of low voice, and unassuming. He has seven stalwart sons, whom he has trained to be great smelters of silver, lead, and gold. There is now comparatively little of this industry in the United States and Mexico that this family does not control.

Mr. Guggenheim did not come to America from Switzerland until he was nineteen years old, when he took a sailing vessel with his father and four children. They had been poor from his babyhood, and when Mr. Guggenheim arrived in Philadelphia, after a four months' voyage, he started out as a common peddler.

He began to concentrate on selling stove polish, and in this business he showed the quality of insatiable thirst for knowledge that, joined with his racial commercial instinct, made him a successful man. He made friends with a chemist, found out what stove polish was composed of, and began making it himself for about 15 per cent. of what he had been paying. Then he found out how to make glue, and manufactured that. His restless mind finally turned to Swiss embroideries, and after having mastered the subject of Swiss embroideries to its last detail, he proceeded to become a millionaire in that business. In the meantime, he had married a young Swiss girl who had come over on the ship with him, and who became the mother of eight sons and three daughters.

HOW THE GUGGENHEIMS BECAME SMELTERS.

With the money made out of embroideries, Mr. Guggenheim began to make investments, and some of them in mines. A mine in which he became a partner filled with water, and was a failure. Mr. Guggenheim, after reading a great many reports, went West, got down into the flooded mine and learned all about the en-

gineering questions involved by asking innumerable questions, camped out on the ground, and made the mine pay.

From the mining business it was an easy step to the smelting business. He thought he was paying too much to have his ores treated, and he began to learn all about smelting ores. He invested a large sum in a smelting company in Denver, and put one of his sons there to learn how to do the work. The venture was a success, and in 1888 he built a fine smelter at Pueblo, Colo., at a cost of a million and a quarter.

WHY THE GUGGENHEIMS SUCCEED IN SMELTING.

"They erected smelters in other parts of the United States, east and west, in Mexico and in



MR. MEYER GUGGENHEIM.

far South America, until they ranked among the leading refiners and producers of precious metals in the world. They became interested in mines in this country, but principally in Mexico, the mineral resources of which country they have done much to develop. Their methods were highly successful, because they were thorough, broad-minded, intelligent, and modern. For example, at Monterey they built the first complete silver-lead smelter in Mexico, with a capacity for treating more than thirty thousand tons of ore monthly. But they also built comfortable residences for their employees, a building containing a library, reading-room, billiard tables, and bowling alleys, and they 'ran' an up-to-date American store. At Aguas Calientes they built

an even better plant. They erected large refining works at Perth Amboy, N. J. ; so that, with their various smelters in Mexico, the United States, and Chile, they could smelt ores and refine the products of their smelters. In all their plants, no expense was spared in obtaining the highest possible efficiency from the use of every scientific method and every improvement. They are models in every respect, admirably equipped and managed."

THE CARNEGIE OF THE SMELTING BUSINESS.

A half-dozen years ago, people were trying to combine the smelting plants into a trust, and the position occupied by the Guggenheims toward the project was about the same as that taken by Mr. Carnegie in the earlier efforts to make a great steel combination. The Guggenheim interests were too great to make a trust successful without them, and on the other hand they were too valuable to the Guggenheims to part with. Finally, however, the American Smelting and Refining Company—the Smelter Trust—was formed, and later the Guggenheims joined it, the trust doubling its capital stock in order to pay for their plants.

OUR GREAT BANKS OF TO-DAY.

TWO articles appear in the *Atlantic* and the *World's Work* for August on the more recent development of banking enterprises in the United States.

Concentration of Banking Interests.

In the *Atlantic Monthly*, Mr. Charles J. Bullock inquires into the danger resulting from the tremendous movement toward the concentration of banks into new institutions with from \$10,000,000 to \$25,000,000 capital each. This movement has taken place almost entirely in the past five years. Corporation loans have been centralized to a marked degree, New York being the chief beneficiary of the change.

Before 1898, only two New York banks had a capital of \$5,000,000, and the average for the Clearing House institutions was less than \$1,000,000. To-day, the average capital is nearly twice as great, while three banks have \$10,000,000 each, and one has \$25,000,000.

THE NEW SPHERES OF INFLUENCE.

Mr. Bullock shows interestingly the concentration of influence resulting from the big bank mergers. The first great sphere of influence is dominated by the Standard Oil interests. Through the National City Bank, a chain of institutions is linked together, the whole having a

capital and surplus of \$92,000,000, and deposits of \$377,000,000. A second Rockefeller chain of institutions is that headed by the Hanover National Bank, with an aggregate capital of \$16,000,000, and deposits of \$97,000,000. These figures, too, take no account of the control exercised over banks located outside of New York.

The second great sphere of influence in banking is controlled by J. P. Morgan & Co. and two of the largest insurance companies. This Morgan sphere includes the First National Bank and a group of institutions possessing an aggregate banking capital of \$33,000,000, with deposits of \$149,000,000. The Morgan sphere, like the Rockefeller, includes, too, a second chain of banks. The group led by the National Bank of Commerce brings the total banking capital in the Morgan sphere of influence to \$97,000,000, and deposits to \$472,000,000. A third, though smaller, group is the Morse chain of institutions, with an aggregate capital of \$23,000,000 ; and the National Park Bank group, with a capital of \$13,000,000, is a fourth. Thus, the Morgan and Standard Oil alliances control not less than \$205,000,000 of the \$451,000,000 of banking capital invested in the city of New York.

RUMORS ABOUT THE MONEY TRUST.

Mr. Bullock discusses the possible dangers from the concentration of such enormous money power in the hands of a few. People say that the weekly statement of the New York banks is manipulated by these great forces for speculative purposes. If it is desired to depress stock prices, it is said that large sums are withdrawn from the Clearing House banks in order to reduce the surplus reserves, commonly accepted as an index of the condition of the money market. "This charge is, from the very nature of the case, extremely difficult to prove or disprove. Such transfers of money might certainly be made, but in the absence of positive proof one cannot assert that they are a frequent occurrence." Nor can Mr. Bullock find any decisive proof behind the rumors frequently heard that discrimination is made in extending or withdrawing loans, by which it is said certain concerns attempting to compete with some of the trusts have been forced to inevitable ruin. "Up to the present time, the evil is probably more potential than actual."

WILL BANKING BE A MONOPOLY ?

The question is often asked why, if two groups of magnates control already a half of the banking capital of New York City, should not the two groups join and obtain a practical monopoly? Mr. Bullock shows, in answering this

question, that banking capital is the freest of all forms of capital. No expensive plants need be erected, no crude materials have to be transported, and the average small customer prefers to have personal relations with his bank. "Under such circumstances, the establishment of anything resembling a complete monopoly is quite inconceivable."

SOME UNPLEASANT FEATURES.

However, the new situation is not free from unpleasant features. It would be difficult to finance a corporate enterprise of the largest size now without the consent of the Morgan or the Rockefeller interests. "Then, again, it is unfortunate to have the largest banks and their affiliate institutions so closely identified with particular corporate interests. This gives to the great captains of industry almost unlimited control over other people's capital, and enables them to tie up in their own enterprises banking resources that should be available for the use of the community at large. Especially undesirable is it to have life insurance and trust companies drawn so largely into the domain of speculative finance."

Are the Profits of Banks Too Large?

A writer in the *World's Work* inquires into the reasonableness of the attacks upon banks on the score of their profits being too large. We hear that the Chemical Bank pays 150 per cent., the Fifth Avenue Bank 100 per cent., etc.; but this writer explains that none of these institutions really earns or pays any such rate of profits as the dividend on the stock indicates.

The Chemical Bank, paying 150 per cent. on its stock, actually earns less than 6 per cent. on the capital invested in the business, for the capital it is using all along is the capital stock plus the undivided profits. Taking the whole body of Clearing House banks in 1902, the dividends paid were only a trifle over 9½ per cent. on the capital stock, and these dividends actually amounted to less than 4½ per cent. on the total capital invested. With figures like these, it is shown that the banking business is not much more, if any more, profitable than that of railroads, manufacturing companies, and the mercantile concerns.

Some banks and, to a larger extent, trust companies, have increased their profits by investments, more or less speculative, in stocks and bonds, and by engaging in underwriting operations. Still, no trust company has failed in New York State for eighteen years. Underwriting is the most profitable, and at the same time the most risky, of all banking operations.

A BOY-DESTROYING INDUSTRY.

THE blowing of glass bottles has grown, during the past thirty years, into an important industry in the States of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Writing on the subject of boy labor in the bottle works, Mrs. Florence Kelley says, in *Charities* (New York) for July 4:

"No industry has ever been more effectively protected than the manufacture of glass bottles. The manufacturers are protected by the tariff, and the skilled workers, the glass-bottle blowers, by their powerful trade organization. For many years, the manufacturers and the skilled workers have gone to Washington to lay their common claims before the Committee of Ways and Means; and they have not gone in vain. Congress has never turned a deaf ear to their wishes. On the other hand, under an old rule of the union, only fifteen boys can be apprenticed for every hundred blowers actively engaged in the trade; and apprentices are usually seventeen years old at the time of beginning work. The blowers are thus effectively protected against the competition of boys.

"The only unprotected persons are the wretched little boys known in some glass works as 'blowers' dogs,' victims alike of the manufacturers and the skilled workers. For, under the present organization of the glass-bottle industry, a blower requires three boys to carry bottles from the molder to the annealing oven. Little boys are, therefore, employed in numbers far exceeding the possibilities of entering the trade as apprentices. In some factories, the blowers are required to furnish boys; and as they do not sacrifice their sons (whom they introduce into the trade as apprentices, if at all), they are continually searching for available sources of supply. For years, the rumor refused to die out that certain charitable institutions of Philadelphia systematically furnished orphan boys who reached the twelfth birthday to glass works in New Jersey, where the law, until this year, permitted boys to begin work at that tender age. These orphans were nominally adopted by glass-blowers, whose slaves they became. Within a year, applications have been made to a philanthropist in New Jersey for young lads to be 'adopted' by glass-blowers who were required to furnish more boys than they could obtain."

As the earnings of the blowers depend somewhat on the speed of the boys who fetch and carry for them, the latter are kept trotting as fast as they can for hours at a stretch.

"The load of bottles which a boy carries at one time is not large or heavy; and there is no heavy lifting to be done. Hence, such work is

uniformly described by employers as 'light and easy.' But the circumstances attending the work, the surroundings amid which it is done, fill such words with grim sarcasm. The speed required and the heated atmosphere render continuous trotting most exhausting. An hour's steady trotting in pure air tires healthy school-boys of seven to fourteen years; but these little lads trot hour after hour, day after day, month after month, in heat and dust.

CHILDREN EMPLOYED AT NIGHT.

"There was no restriction upon night work. Any child who was eligible for work at all (often by means of perjured affidavit of parent or 'guardian') was used indifferently by night or by day; the pitifully little children were found at work at 2 o'clock in the morning. On going out into the black, cold winter morning from the heat and glare of the glass-ovens, the boys went, as the men did, to the nearest saloons, to drink the cheap drinks sold just across the street from the works. All the boys used tobacco, usually chewing it. They were stunted, illiterate, profane, and obscene—wrecked in body and mind before entering upon the long adolescence known to happier children. The sharp contrast between the heat of the glass-ovens and the frost of the winter morning produces rheumatism and affections of the throat and lungs, so that many of the boys die, before reaching the age of apprenticeship, from disease due directly to the circumstances attending their work, and more common elsewhere among adults than among children."

LAXITY OF THE LAW.

While the Illinois Legislature succeeded, last May, in enacting into law the bill prohibiting night work for children, the situation in the other States where the glass-bottle industry has a foothold is far less favorable.

"Night work for children is not yet prohibited in Indiana or Pennsylvania; and in New Jersey, glass works are expressly exempted from the law which prohibits the employment of women and minors under eighteen years of age in manufacture after 6 o'clock at night. Thus, in Indiana and New Jersey, boys of fourteen years may legally be employed throughout the night in the glass works, and in Pennsylvania they may be so employed at the age of thirteen years.

"That young children are thus employed, is shown by the report of the State factory inspector of Indiana, who records thirteen prosecutions of glass manufacturers for violations of the child-labor law; while it is but a few months

since a little boy in New Jersey, returning from his night's work, fell asleep, exhausted, upon the tracks of the railway and was killed by a passing train. In Pennsylvania, on February 27, 1903, the Western Pennsylvania Association of Glass Manufacturers held a meeting at Pittsburg at which it denounced and ridiculed those sections of the child-labor bill then pending before the Legislature of the State which required that children should be able to read and write simple sentences in the English language before beginning work and should not be employed at night. The association appointed a committee to go to Harrisburg to oppose the passage of the bill, which accordingly failed to become a law. Thus, Pennsylvania, Indiana, and New Jersey still permit the glass industry to use up and wear out by night work little boys who are nominally thirteen and fourteen years of age, but are really of any age at which the employer finds them available. Evidently, the 'child-eating ogre' needs the alert attention of the friends of working children in these States."

THE LIFE OF ENGLISH FACTORY GIRLS.

THE observations of an American-born woman among English factory girls are recorded in the July *Contemporary* by the Hon. Mrs. Bertrand Russell, who had herself sought and obtained employment as a factory hand, in order to gain information for practical use among the poor.

As an American, she was much struck by the fact that in London women and girls are constant *habitués* of public-houses. In America, women are practically never seen in such places. In England, girls of fourteen, on beginning factory life, are at once initiated into drinking, and are expected to pay for beer and whiskey out of their first week's wages. They are even asked to join "spirit clubs," paying so many pennies a week for several weeks before a wedding or a holiday, and the money thus saved is spent in one drinking bout in the factory or in the public-house.

"'But it is not only the young men who do the paying,' said Matilda to me, one evening. 'Before holiday times, girls save up their money, and go into a public-house directly they are paid off. Then each girl stands a twopenny whiskey to her friends, and if it is a party of five or six friends, each girl has five or six glasses, and pays tenpence or one shilling. Sometimes they go together in even a larger party, and spend, each one, as much as two shillings or two shillings and sixpence.' 'How can they possibly afford it,' I asked, 'when their wages are only ten shillings

a week or under?' 'They pay first and afford it afterward,' she answered."

HOW FACTORY LIFE GOES.

Mrs. Russell disguised herself in old clothes and curling-pins, which latter, she says, are the unmistakable mark of the girl factory hand. She had some difficulty in getting taken on, owing to her ignorance of work. It meant getting up at 4:30 in the morning and waiting outside factories. All the girls in the factory in which she worked got up at the same time, and worked till 8 o'clock without food, with the result that "languor and lack of interest" marked their work. Arrivals after six were fined one penny, and those who failed to turn up before 6:30 were not admitted till 8:30, and were fined fourpence.

"They had for dinner more bread and butter and tea, and one or two of them would generally go out to fetch a ha'porth of fried potatoes and two ha'porths of fried fish or some pastry, which they ate by themselves or shared with the others. I never saw them eat any meat except once or twice in a sandwich or a meat stew. They were extremely generous in offering me their food, and seemed a little hurt when I invariably refused. They talked very freely, as they ate, about their tastes and interests and friends, and I found it difficult not to answer their questions as openly as they answered mine. Toward the end of the time, indeed, as I grew to know and like the girls, my necessary deceit was really painful and seemed a most unfair return for their generous and implicit faith in me. Every girl had a bloke, and they wanted to know if my bloke ever 'it me,' as theirs constantly did, they said.

"What does your bloke do?' they asked.

"He's out of a job,' I was obliged to answer.

"Is 'e in one of them unemployed processions?"

"No,' I answered, 'he's too grand for that.'

"A good job 'e isn't,' they said; 'they're all boozers. They goes to the next pub and gets drunk.'

"At about a quarter past five a curious unrest pervaded the room, and the girls began to slack work and to tidy their hair and put away their aprons. The instant the bell went at 5:30, there was a bolt for the mess-room, and the girls were dressed in hat and jacket and out in the street almost before the bell had stopped. Those girls who lived in my direction walked with me until I was so tired that I had to get into a 'bus, Clara, my 'mate,' on one arm, pretty Lizzie, with her earrings and bold bright eyes, on the other; several other girls rollicking in

front, a few more straggling behind. They were in riotous spirits, and pulled an occasional door-bell as we passed along, and shouted at every man we met. They saw me into my 'bus with many 'good-nights,' which they repeated with redoubled shouts and laughter as a little later they drove past the 'bus in the open cart of some kind wagoner.

"My second and third days passed in a very similar manner, and the better I got to know the girls, the more I admired their kindness and generosity. On my last day, Friday, I was taken into the yard and shown the shed where the hot water for the tea was boiled. At one side was an old brick fireplace, and this the girls filled with hemp rubbish and lighted up, and we had a splendid blaze at which to warm ourselves. Nine weeks before, one of their mates had caught fire there, through her own carelessness, and had been badly burned. Now she was coming out of the hospital, and the girls were raising a subscription 'to get some clothes round her,' as they said. There was a rumor that the machinery was out of order, and that the factory might be closed for a week, which meant no wages, but in spite of this prospect of destitution, these generous creatures subscribed, each one, sixpence or threepence to the fund."

DRINK AND GENEROSITY.

Drinking is the great vice of the factory.

"Another girl named Edith, aged seventeen, told me that she was going to be married on Easter Sunday to her 'bloke, who was always drunk.' When I remonstrated with her, she said that she was fond of him, and that she was not a drunkard herself. Annie, who was only sixteen, talked of having been drunk as most girls would speak of having a headache, and said that she had been drunk on Christmas Day, Boxing Day, and Sunday in the holidays, though she could drink sixpennyworth of whiskey without getting silly. Lily, on the other hand, a tall, fine-looking girl of nineteen, confessed that one glass of beer made her light-headed, and that she was drunk very often, 'not every night,' as her mate declared, 'but on Saturdays and Sundays and holidays.'

"I did not see any of the girls drink anything or go into a public-house during my four days, but that was partly because they had just spent all their money during the holidays, and partly because, even in my short time, I was able to make teetotalism the fashion. I do not believe that all or even the majority of these girls are often really drunk, but I know that they think nothing of going into a public-house and of getting drunk occasionally. The reasons for this

are obvious. As children, all these girls were constant *habituées* of public-houses, fetching the drink for their parents. The public-house was never a forbidden place to them, and as soon as they became wage-earners it was their first resort. Tired out with a long day's work on insufficient food, the quickest and pleasantest pick-me-up was to be found in their old haunts, 'with the landlady all smiles behind the counter,' as one girl said, and the lower their wages the more reckless and improvident their manner of spending them. Then all their social events are celebrated with drink, — weddings, birthdays, even funerals, and all holidays mean a drinking bout. For six weeks before Christmas, these girls each contributed twopence a week to a 'spirit club.' On the day before Christmas, this money, amounting to several pounds, was spent on whiskey and port wine (with a little ginger beer for a few teetotalers), and was drunk in the factory at breakfast and dinner time. And then those girls who felt they had not had enough went out to a neighboring public-house and got more drink."

THE TOURIST INDUSTRY IN SWITZERLAND.

THE astute Swiss, unable to raise large crops on their barren, mountainous fields, are nevertheless reaping harvests of gold from their lakes and glaciers. Their methods of converting the natural beauties of their country into cash by entertaining tourists are described by Louis Farges in the mid-June number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in an article aptly entitled "A New Industry." What profits this industry yields appears from the following figures, which the writer quotes from a report sent to our government on October 31, 1899, by Consul Ridgely, at Geneva: "It is estimated that between January 1, 1899, and the above date at least two million five hundred thousand travelers visited Switzerland, and that each one left in the country the sum of eighty-four francs, making a total of two hundred million francs [\$40,000,000]. As Switzerland has only a population of 2,933,300 inhabitants, the significance of these figures is evident. Until now, the wealth per head in Switzerland has been estimated to be 72 fr. 50 [\$14.50]; the influx of money above referred to increases this sum at once to 152 fr. 50 [\$30.50],—that is to say, it converts Switzerland from one of the poorest into one of the richest countries."

In 1899, there were 1,896 hotels in that country, 951 of which were open all the year, and the remainder only for the season. They included, altogether, 104,876 beds for guests. The

season is considered poor when less than 28 per cent. of the beds are continually occupied; good when 32 per cent., and excellent when more than 36 per cent. are so occupied. A long season is also considered excellent; "September profits are net profits," say the Swiss hotel-keepers. The prosperity of these hotels is due chiefly—(1) to their favorable situation, in spots chosen for fine scenery and pure air; (2) to their excellent management and scrupulous cleanliness; (3) to their reasonable rates. "It is a mistake," says the writer, "to think that the Swiss hotels are expensive. Although some of the large hotels in fashionable places like Interlaken, or hotels on isolated mountain-tops, frequently charge high prices, the same cannot be said of the large majority of the other hosteleries. First-class hotels have the same rates as similar establishments in France, while prices are much lower, correspondingly, in the second-class hotels and in many *pensions*; and if one remains longer than five days or a week, very good accommodations may be had for six, five, or even four francs a day. In German Switzerland, however, this does not include wine, and the food everywhere is neither choice nor varied, although wholesome and abundant."

The patronage is divided as follows: Germans, 33 per cent.; Swiss, 20 per cent.; English, 17 per cent.; French, 11 per cent.; Americans, 5 per cent.; and a small number of Belgians, Dutch, Russians, Italians, and Austrians.

AIDS TO TRAVELING IN SWITZERLAND.

As early as 1882, the Swiss Society of Hotel Keepers was organized, which in 1900 had a membership of 800; under its direction are the Central Bureau at Basel and the Professional School at Ouchy-Lausanne. The bureau publishes the society's organ, the *Swiss Hotel Review*, and has published an excellent guide-book, "The Hotels of Switzerland," in German, French, and English. The Professional School undertakes to train waiters and prospective hotel-keepers. There are general courses, including languages, arithmetic, penmanship, geography, and book-keeping, and special courses. In the course on "The Art of Traveling," for instance, the waiter is instructed how to give information on the sights of the respective city or canton, and how to answer all questions of travelers according to their social standing and nationality; another course explains his duties and deportment toward guests; there is also a very comprehensive course on foods and menus. The writer gives high credit to the society for promoting the efficiency of the Swiss hotels by its Central Bureau and its Professional School.

As regards means of locomotion, the net of railways offers superior facilities in the way of excursion tickets; the principal lakes have regular steamer service; the mail coaches along the byways are most convenient, and cyclists and automobilists have now less trouble in entering their machines than in former years. There is also an excellently organized corps of guides and porters. The traveler, finally, need never lack information, which is freely furnished by the Society of Hotel Keepers, the Swiss Alpine Club, the Swiss Touring Club, and the transportation companies. Every large hotel, moreover, distributes circulars that contain most useful information, while serving, at the same time, as advertisement. The Swiss maps are among the best in Europe.

The writer, in conclusion, urges the hotel-keepers of his country (France) to emulate the example of their Swiss brethren, whose shrewdness in providing facilities has contributed to make Switzerland the tourist's paradise. France, in his opinion, offers the same, if not greater, natural and historic attractions, under more varied forms, combining romantic mountain scenery, idyllic woodlands, and a long, diversified coast line, with storied castles and marvelous monuments of Gothic art, while the accommodations, at least in the provinces, leave much to be desired.

AN ARTIST IN TUNIS.

IN the *Art Journal* of July, Mr. A. Brunet-Debaines, the artist, gives us some interesting impressions of his tour in Tunis. He writes:

"It is not without a certain apprehension that the tourist starts on a visit to Tunis. Should he have come from the 'Midi' of France or from the Mediterranean seaports, on reaching Tunis he will be impressed by the novelty of the scenes. The difference between Marseilles and Tunis is striking. Whereas in the former city the houses, with their white or yellow façades and red roofs, make against the blue sky a gay though detached effect, in Tunis the immediate impression is of a soft harmony caused by the white terraced houses opening out quietly on the azure sky. It is true that there is greater animation at Marseilles; but then our dark and formal clothes make a blot on the picture.

"At Tunis, nothing clashes, the harmony is so perfect. The gay note, quite in keeping, is given by the crowd moving along the streets. Instead of the white burnous which are so monotonous in Algeria, there are costumes most varied in shape and colors, most delicate in tint. Occasionally a jarring note is struck by Jew-

esses in crude colors. Tunis is quite *la fleur de l'Orient*, as the Arabs have poetically named it.

"The mixed quarter is inhabited by Europeans, and has quite a cosmopolitan aspect. In the large avenues of well-built houses there are many cafés, with Tsigane orchestras, which compare favorably with those of the great European



THE MOSQUE BAB DZIRA, TUNIS.

(From an original etching by A. Brunet-Debaines.)

cities. It is to the credit, also, of the architects that they have followed the Arab style, which is as architectural as it is beautiful. As examples of decorative coloring effected in modern edifices by enameled tiles may be cited the Courts of Justice, the Allaoui College, and the Civilian Hospital.

"The cathedral, in the Moorish Byzantine style, does not lack grandeur. It is situated in the Avenue de la Marine, facing the French Résidence, of which the gardens boast some fine specimens of exotic plants.

"Entering by the Porte de France into Medina, the transition is quite marked. The Place de la Bourse is crowded with people, mostly Arabs, some of whom are grouped round itinerant merchants. One proceeds by the Rue de la Kasba and Rue de l'Eglise to the civil prison.

THE MOSQUES AND BAZAARS.

Farther on, at the end of an arcade, is the great mosque of Oliver, Djama-ez-Zitouna, from which, at prayer times, can be seen many Arabs going up and coming down a staircase leading to a fine colonnade; some are carrying their prayer-books, others are telling their beads. All have that lofty bearing which distinguishes them; it is, truly, an imposing sight. Soon after passing this building, one reaches the bazaars, a labyrinth of long and narrow galleries, in which the tourist is continually amused, and he runs a great risk of losing his way. The galleries, which are not covered, are traversed by beams, on which the dealers, in order to protect their goods from the burning sun, hang materials of various colors, which the sun strikes in a marvelous way, and having just left the somber arcades, the effect is accentuated.

Occasionally these galleries are covered in by planks of wood carelessly joined, which allow rays of sunlight to pass, these beams of light falling on the passer-by and producing charming color effects. Nothing could be more fantastic than the disappearance and reappearance of these rays of light, the cause of which one fails to notice at first.

The most attractive gallery to the visitor is that of the tailors, where an auction sale is held each morning. Here the dealers go in groups to put up for sale their richly colored materials, embroidered with gold and silver, of most beautiful handiwork.

In contrast to Europe, where a fine medieval or Renaissance monument is out of its element when surrounded by modern houses, the picture in Tunis is always complete, the various parts making a perfect *ensemble*.

It is curious to find in the street an Arab barber working in the open air, and a little farther on several groups of people looking at a snake-charmer, a bard, and other side-shows. At the end of a narrow street the visitor will see a fine silhouette of a minaret, from which, at prayer time, a muezzin will make his appeal to the faithful in a nasal voice.

THE WOMEN OF TUNIS.

Women are rarely seen in the streets of Tunis, and, with the exception of the Jewesses, they are all veiled when promenading. The lower classes have a black band over the eyes. The aristocratic women, when they do not go out in carriages closed by blinds, walk through the town sheltered from curious glances by a black embroidered covering put over their heads and held in both hands a little below their eyes.

The Jewesses, who are dressed in garments similar to the Mussulmans, are distinguishable from the latter by the way they dress their hair high on their heads, and covered with a piece of black embroidered material, over which is draped a long white veil which surrounds them, leaving their faces uncovered.

Footpaths are comparatively rare in this Mussulman town. The drivers of vehicles shout 'Barra!' (Take care!) energetically, and the artist sketching in the streets has frequently to move to allow a carriage, or even a crowd, to pass. I remember one day feeling myself pushed from behind while drawing. I turned round, thinking to be troubled by a joker, but it was a blind man finding his way alone through the streets. These blind unfortunates are legion, and are to be found in all classes of society.

Another sight to cause sadness to the visitor is to meet in the street a band of from fifteen to twenty prisoners, chained one to another by the neck, on their way to the jail. Their attitude is more of resignation than of internal revolt.

A visit to the poor quarter is one of the most interesting. The coal market at the end of the Rue d'Italie is a field for study of this description.

Even among the crowd of misery in sordid clothing is to be seen the noble air that is so noticeable among the upper classes; the actions remain dignified. It would be good for young artists, after they had studied the masterpieces of European museums, to complete their studies at this living museum of natural grace."

THE CRIMEA AND THE CAUCASUS.

THE traveler, sated with the trodden routes of Europe and looking for new fields to explore, will find scenes of marvelous beauty and grandeur on the peninsula jutting southward into the Black Sea, and in the mountain range that separates Europe from Asia. An intimation of what awaits the lover of nature here is given by Eugen Zabel in his paper on "The Crimea and the Caucasus in Literature," in the July number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*.

These regions, once the seat of ancient culture, and glorified by myth and legend, have only within the last century attracted the more general attention, first of poets and novelists, and then of explorers; and now English and German tourists are taken every spring to the Black Sea in the pleasure boat *Princessin Victoria Louise*, of the Hamburg-American Line. The imperial Russian family has built magnificent castles at Livadia, and the shores of the Crimea are a center of social life in the months of July and



GURSUFF, IN THE CRIMEA.

August. Novelists are seizing upon this life as ready material. But their work is inferior to that of the great Russian poets, Alexander Pushkin, Adam Mickiewicz, and Count Alexei Tolstoy, who first took the Crimea for material.

THE CAUCASUS.

The first poet to find his inspiration in the Caucasus was Æschylus, who chains his hero in "Prometheus Bound" to those rocks. Shakespeare alludes to the mountain both in his "Titus Andronicus" and in "Richard II." Alexander Pushkin introduced the Caucasus into Russian literature, but Herr Zabel designates Michael Lermontow as the real poet of that country.

"The poetry of the Caucasus saturates Lermontow's poems as if it were his life-blood. He has seized upon the character of the country and the people and made it his own." Count Leo Tolstoy has here laid the scene of his novel "The Cossacks." The German poet and traveler, Fr. Bodenstedt, has contributed not a little to the knowledge of the Caucasus, and Alexandre Dumas the elder has compounded a curious medley of fact and fiction on the same, under the title "Le Caucase depuis Prométhée jusqu'à chamyll."

The first scientific exploration was undertaken by the Englishman, D. W. Freshfield, in 1868. The latest authoritative account is by the German traveler, G. Merzbocher, whose book on the Caucasus gives extremely interesting details on the country.

In his comparison between the Caucasus and the Alps, the first-named is given the palm for sublimity, while Switzerland caters to the comforts of the tourist. The traveler in the fastnesses of the Caucasus has left all the conveniences of civilization behind. He finds neither the general means of transportation nor roads and bridges. He must have some official recommendation, whereby the local authorities are compelled to furnish him with wood, pack animals, and porters, as there are no inns anywhere. The food he gets is poor and scanty; he must carry matches and sewing material; and above all, he must have an interpreter. But he is more than repaid

for his labors by the overpowering beauty of the Caucasus.

"Its summits are higher than the highest peaks of the Alps, and are more impressive, because they rise sheer out of the valleys. The



A SCENE IN THE CAUCASUS.

interchange of rocks, glaciers, and wooded hill-sides is marvelous. The glacier valleys of the Caucasus are purer, more extensive and beautiful, than those of Europe, and are noteworthy in that the Alpine flowers climb up to the very ice-blocks, whereas in Switzerland a barren belt of rocks generally separates the two. The flora is much richer than in Switzerland and the Italian Alps.

"There is an almost incredible number of species, an unexampled array of gorgeously colored grasses and flowers, among which a man on horseback is lost to view; giant trees and vines interlace with their greenery the forests in the valleys and on the heights. The gorges and chasms find no parallel anywhere. The Grusian highway, leading from Vladikavkas to the capital, Tiflis, is one of the grandest mountain passes of Europe."

A NIGHT IN A STORM ON ACONCAGUA.

MAJOR RANKIN completes, in *Longman's Magazine* for July, an account of his ascent of Aconcagua, when he spent a night in the open at twenty-two thousand feet. As he ascended the last three thousand feet his followers deserted him, and he attained the summit altogether alone. He gives a vivid impression of the magnificent panorama of mountain range and ocean disclosed to view. He was on the summit at half-past one. A tiny cloudlet, and then a flake of snow, warned him of a brewing storm.

THE HORRORS OF THE BLIZZARD.

He remembered Sir Martin Conway's statement that life would be impossible in a storm on the upper reaches of Aconcagua.

"With one glance at the cairn, I turned and hurried down the way I came. Half an hour later, an enormous cloud rose off the Pacific, and in ten minutes the whole sky was darkened and snow fell in deadly earnest. The rest is a confused mental tangle of intense cold, blinding snow, semi-darkness, crushing falls, despair, and the certainty of death. The farther I went, the worse grew the storm; soon I could only see a few feet in front of me. But I managed, as occasional rents in the pall of falling darkness helped me, to get upon the great northern snow-slope, and blundered on, shouting in my agony for help,—cries which the jeering rocks sent back to me unanswered. Twice on slippery hard snow I fell, and was at once whirled down the slope at a terrific pace. I clawed at the snow with my axe, but it would not grip on the hard surface, and I felt myself whirling onward at lightning speed to destruction. It was a most

horrible sensation. But both times, by some miracle, I came to a patch of stones which stopped me."

The deadly cold of that blizzard at twenty-two thousand feet paralyzed him with despair, and he felt he could go no farther. He found by the side of a big rock a little scooped-out hollow in the snow. This he thought his appointed grave. It was half-past four, and the snow was falling as thickly as ever. He tried to trace a scrawl of farewell in his pocket-book to his wife, and with the storm still in progress he fell into dreamless sleep.

THE SENSATION OF A DEAD MAN.

When he awoke, he thought he was dead. The sight of the deep-blue sky, the white peaks, and the crescent moon filled his soul with exultation. Then, strangely enough, the sight of his toes turned inward toward him made him feel squeamish, and he argued that if he felt squeamish he could not be dead. He gradually released himself from the frozen snow, and witnessed a dawn of indescribable splendor. He had bivouacked in the storm near the summit of the mountain, and had survived. Slowly he hobbled down to his tent, which by rare luck he discovered, and eventually reached his wife at Inca. That he survived at all is a marvel. His toes, however, have had to be amputated.

THE LAKE OF THE TRUE EL DORADO.

A WAY up in the heights of the Andes, just north of the equator, some nine thousand feet above the sea, lies in the plateau of Bogota the Lake Guatavita. This plateau is supposed to be the birthplace of the potato, which to this day is its principal crop. This lake is being drained by a joint-stock company with the consent of the government of Colombia, and the purpose of its draining, sordid in itself, rests on a basis of quaint romance. It is a very strange tale which Mr. Benjamin Taylor tells in the *English Illustrated*, under the title of "A Quest for Sunken Treasure."

"This lake, says Dr. Zerda, is the celebrated 'El Dorado.' Here, it is said, the Cacique of Guatavita was covered with a sticky substance, over which gold dust was strewn, which golden covering constituted his vestment when making the sacrifices. The term 'El Dorado,' it should be explained, means the Golden One, or the Golden Man, not the Golden City, as is commonly supposed."

The Cacique of Guatavita, who had an army of thirty thousand men, used to rule there over a million people.

"This lake, between nine and ten thousand feet above the level of the sea, on the summit of a conical mountain, they regarded as the residence of their protecting deity, to whom they thought it necessary to make offerings twice a year. In consequence, all the cacique's subjects assembled at the stated times, with their gold offerings, and forming in grand procession, advanced with music to the lake. Arrived there, the cacique and the principal chiefs embarked on the lake in large canoes, by steps formed in the bank, and the people at the same time spread themselves all around the lake. On arriving at the center of the lake, the chiefs anointed the cacique, and powdered him over with a profusion of gold dust, hence the name of El Dorado—the Golden One.



LAKE GUATAVITA.

(Showing the tunnel made by the Spaniards in their attempts to drain the lake.)

"On a signal given, the people turned their backs on the lake, and at the moment when the cacique plunged in, they shouted and threw in over their shoulders, as far as they could, their own offerings. This done, the cacique landed, and returned to his capital, in the same manner as he came, persuaded that the sins committed by himself and his people during the last six months were expiated."

This annual deposit must naturally have mounted up to a huge sum.

"According to a calculation made from a basis laid down by M. de la Kier, of the Royal Institute of Paris, who examined every document relating to the lake, Captain Cochran was assured that there ought to be gold and precious stones yet buried in it to the amount of one billion one hundred and twenty millions sterling! After the Spaniards conquered the country, they

so cruelly prosecuted the natives to obtain gold that most of them threw what they had left into this lake. The then cacique himself caused to be cast into the center of it the burdens of fifty men laden with gold dust."

Explorations have always been rewarded with lucrative results. The lake is said to be 1,200 feet long, by 1,000 feet broad, and about 46 feet deep at its deepest part.

THE MYSTERY OF THE MAMMOTH.

SOME time ago, the carcass of a gigantic mammoth was discovered in an ice-fissure on the bank of the Beresowka, a tributary of the Kolyma River, of Siberia, where Asia and America "reach out their hands to each other" in the extreme northeastern part. The Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg dispatched Otto Herz, the curator of the Zoölogical Museum, and an assistant to the spot to bring the body to Russia entire, if possible. The journey required four months. The mammoth was dug out of the frozen ground amid intense cold, was then taken apart in small pieces, and after two months' arduous labor in the winter of 1902, was brought to St. Petersburg. Prof. Paul Matschie, of the Imperial Zoölogical Museum at Berlin, contributes to *Die Woche*, of Berlin, an interesting account of the huge beast's restoration.

The mammoth, when found, lay in a cleft of the river-bank surrounded with ice. The natives had evidently broken the tusks out, and in so doing had severed the head from the trunk. Some of the exposed parts of the back had been injured, probably by predatory animals. Otherwise, the mammoth lay in exactly the same position in which it met death. It had undoubtedly fallen over the steep bank into one of the ice-pits common in that region, had tried in vain to get on its legs again, and in that position had frozen to death. Thousands of years passed without decomposition setting in, the ice having preserved this token of the ancient world almost entire to our own day.

THE ANIMAL PHOTOGRAPHED.

Until now it has been impossible to make an accurate picture of the mammoth, as some essential parts of the animal were still unknown. A very good photograph, however, has been made of the Beresowka specimen, which has been stuffed and set up in the museum at St. Petersburg in the exact posture in which it was discovered. This position was selected because many sections of the skin were missing. A powerful impression of this gigantic beast is, nevertheless, thus obtained. Its small ears remind



THE RESTORED MAMMOTH.

one of the Asiatic elephant, while its slender legs resemble those of his African cousins. He differs from both, however, in his long, thick fur, which served as a protection from both cold and wet.

The skeleton, also, of this specimen has been put together and set up, and gives a good idea of its size when standing erect. In spite of its large and unwieldy body, the mammoth had proportionately slender legs, with very nimble extremities. While the African and Indian elephants use their tusks to dig for water in the sandy river-courses, the well-curved tusks of the mammoth would not permit of such a use. For this reason, its legs were more supple, and well adapted for scraping away the snow.

TRADITIONS ABOUT THE MAMMOTH.

In the year 1799, an almost complete mammoth was found at the mouth of the Lena River, in northern Siberia, and seven years later was brought, as far as it was feasible, to St. Petersburg. The flesh was still so fresh that the wolves, foxes, and bears devoured it eagerly, and the Jakuts welcomed it as food for their dogs. Scientific investigation of the remains disclosed that the subject had been an immense animal of the elephant order, and was covered with long red hair. A section of the skin and some of the hair of this Lena mammoth, which was much discussed at the time, were exhibited in the Berlin Zoölogical Museum, Emperor Friedrich Wilhelm III. having received it as a present from Czar Alexander.

The curious belief regarding the mammoth is current among the inhabitants of the northern

ice-lands that these great creatures inhabit the interior of the earth, occasionally burrowing out to the surface and dying immediately on coming in contact with daylight. There is, of course, no truth in this old Jakut tradition, which simply attempted an explanation of the fact that the bodies were found under the surface of the earth. The natives called them *mam-mantu*—earth-diggers. They frequently found enormous tusks and thigh-bones imbedded in the banks of rivers, and it is reported among them that even whole carcasses, with the flesh and blood, and showing hardly any sign of decomposition,—

as if, indeed, they had but recently died,—have been washed out from the bank by the water at high tide.

It is believed that the mammoth inhabited certain sections of middle and northern Europe, Siberia, and the northern parts of North America. His bones, however, have been found in widely varying regions. The remains of food found in his teeth show that he ate the needles of the larch and pine trees. Whether he subsisted on other vegetation besides this, there is, as yet, no evidence. It is probable that the mammoth roamed about in great herds, for his bones have been found in great heaps.

The ivory of the mammoth has for a long time been a valuable article of commerce. The Chinese discovered its value hundreds of years ago, and it was some time later before the Siberian ivory fields were systematically worked. Now more than one-quarter of the ivory in use in the world has come from northern Asia.

The mammoth belongs to the post-tertiary, or pleistocene, epoch of geology, and is believed to have been contemporaneous with man in France, and probably elsewhere. Some rude but graphic drawings of the mammoth have been discovered, the best known of these being the etching on a portion of tusk found in the cave of La Madelaine, in France.

When and how the mammoth finally became extinct is a matter about which very little is definitely known. It is possible that some great epidemic, similar to the rinderpest in Africa, spread its fatal germs over the entire northlands, after which the floods, perhaps, completed the annihilation of the already sorely afflicted herds.

THE PRESERVATION OF WILD FLOWERS.

IT may not be generally known that a national society has been organized in this country to do for our native wild flowers what the Audubon societies are doing for the birds. The reason for the existence of such a society lies in the fact that several of our most beautiful wild flowers are fast disappearing from places where they were once found. The basis of the national movement is the desire to prevent the wasteful destruction of plant life in all sections of the country. Some of the problems that present themselves to this society are outlined in an instructive paper contributed to the *Popular Science Monthly* for July by Frances Zirngiebel. This writer shows that the checking of depredations without seriously restricting the freedom or enjoyment of the nature-lover is a much more difficult work than that which was before the Audubon Society in its early days.

"To most persons, our wild plants are only things of beauty, common property to be admired or destroyed at will, and therefore cannot be preserved by the same petitions as were made in behalf of the birds. The appeal for the plants is much more difficult, and must be, at first, not a thoughtfulness for the plant, lest it degenerate into an unhealthy sentiment, but a request that consideration be given to the rights of other people,—that common property be protected for common enjoyment."

It is said that enthusiastic students of nature, in their quest of botanical specimens, have robbed the parks and gardens of some of our towns and cities. In the country, too, some of the most attractive wild flowers have been sadly reduced in number. In the early days of bird study, a great deal of collecting was done, but more recently photography has been substituted, to a great extent, for the actual collection of specimens, and the habits of birds are studied without disturbing the nests. Doubtless, like tendencies will come into play in the study of plants and flowers. For the purposes of class instruction in schools, specimens can be purchased in quantities from botanic gardens or nurseries, where they can be raised for the purpose, while a portion of city parks and public gardens might well be devoted to the raising of such plants as are in greatest demand for botanical instruction. The farmer's boy or girl, on the other hand, may be encouraged to experiment with the cultivation of wild flowers from the woods and fields.

PLANT PRESERVES.

"The epigæa, the gentian, and other fast disappearing flowers, though difficult of cultiva-

tion, should be choicely guarded in wild-flower reservations, which should be to the plants of America what the large country estates are to those of England. The Sharon Biological Observatory controls three hundred acres of land in Massachusetts, which serves as a preserve for native plants and animals. All the deciduous trees of the State, and also the native flowering plants, are now growing there under protection. As people become more and more devoted to nature study, when they see how much more beautiful the plants are in their haunts than in a wilted bouquet, when they gain more knowledge of botany and know the plants intimately, learning in what ways they struggle for existence, they will not need to be asked not to destroy the plants needlessly, but will unite themselves with the 'enlightened few' until they become the enlightened many. Then the gentian, the sabbatia, the epigæa, the orchids, and other delicate plants ill fitted to struggle for existence, but not necessarily unworthy to survive, will be protected, and mutual aid will become a factor in their evolution."

DAMAGE FROM FLOWER-PICKING.

The early-flowering plants, such as the blood root and mayflower, often suffer seriously in their whole economy from having blossoms plucked. The picking of the bloodroot blossom, indeed, destroys the only chance of that particular flower producing seed which may be able to survive and produce its kind.

"The late-blooming perennials suffer less by picking than those plants which blossom earlier, for their vegetative work for the season is nearly completed when they become attractive and subject to injury. The woody perennials, shrubs and trees, form buds in the axils of their leaves and at tips of branches. The buds increase in size during the summer, and the next spring become swollen as the sap from the stem rises in them. Then they burst open and develop into new branches bearing leaves and flowers. If the twigs are broken off, the growth of several years, and also the buds—promises of new branches—are destroyed. The rhododendron, magnolia, mountain laurel, flowering dogwood, and other attractive early-blooming shrubs suffer in this way. The gathering of mountain laurel for winter decorations destroys quantities of buds which would have developed into beautiful clusters of blossoms in the early summer. Careful cutting or pruning of a shrub or tree is nevertheless advantageous to it, checking an overexertion on the part of the plant, which is necessary to flower production, and thereby strengthening the parts which remain.

HOW PLANTS MAY BE PROTECTED.

"Annuals are herbaceous plants which live but one year, dying after the maturing of the seed. Their only means of perpetuating their race is through the production of seed. Wholesale plucking of their blossoms will, therefore, lead to their extermination. The fringed gentian and the pink sabbatia are among these plants. They are very difficult to transplant and local in distribution. The painted cup, known in the West by the better name of painter's brush, is also an annual, and exhibits a sign of weakness in parasiticism of its roots. These plants call for special protection. Careful cutting of a few blossoms from the portions of a plant where they are thickest is often a benefit to the flowers which remain, giving them additional energy for the production of fruit, which is more exhausting to the plant than production of flowers."

APHRODITE IN ANCIENT SCULPTURE.

MANY statuettes of Aphrodite, some of which are believed to be replicas of the statues by Praxiteles and his pupils, have been discovered in Egypt. One of these statuettes is owned by Dr. C. Stuart Welles, an American

citizen living in London, and is described in the June number of *Biblia* by Mr. Joseph Offord.

Regarding the attitude once represented by the complete statue, this writer says:

"It must either have been that known as the Venus Anadyomene, in which the figure was carved in the act of wringing out the moisture from her tresses, or that of the Aphrodite Diadumene; that is to say, the goddess is shown in the act of attaching a bandage or bow to her hair. M. Solomon Reinach, in commenting upon this



ONE OF THE STATUETTES OF
APHRODITE.

statue, states that it closely resembles a colored statue of Aphrodite recently found at Pompeii. This latter figure is in perfect preservation, un-

mutilated, and presents to us the Anadyomene attitude complete.

"The beautiful execution of the statuette, and the perfect manner in which it reproduces the human form, render it worthy of comparison with several of the loveliest statues of the goddess antiquity has bequeathed to us.

"The original of which this is a replica probably dates from the third century B.C. The publication of it here, and in the *Revue Archéologique*, where I have given other phototypes of it, will, it is hoped, lead to the detection of other copies of the same masterpiece, and perhaps definitely decide to what sculptor it should be assigned."

THE OLDEST GREEK BOOK IN THE WORLD.

THE most striking recent discoveries in the domain of ancient Greek art and letters have been made in Egypt. In the winter of 1902, the German archæologist, Dr. Ludwig Borchardt, while excavating at Abusir, found in a Greek tomb of the fourth century B.C. a Greek roll inscribed with the second part of "The Persians" of Timotheus. Commenting on this discovery in *Biblia* for June, Prof. E. J. Goodspeed says:

"Timotheus was a Greek lyrist of the fourth century before Christ, so remarkable for the originality and novelty of his work as to suggest comparison with Richard Wagner. Not only is this the only known manuscript of 'The Persians,'—it gives us our first glimpse of the work of Timotheus, whose poems, in spite of their early popularity, posterity speedily consigned to oblivion. Timotheus flourished in the time of Plato, and was hailed by many of his contemporaries as the greatest of poets; and this recovery of a considerable part of one of his masterpieces thus promises to fill what has been a gap in the history of Greek literature. The 'nomoi' of Timotheus were conspicuous for their boldness and unconventionality, and to this, no doubt, their early fame and subsequent neglect were partly due.

"Not only is the Abusir roll the sole manuscript of 'The Persians,' and our first example of the work of Timotheus,—it possesses the further distinction of being the oldest Greek manuscript known. Older than the founding of the Alexandrian Library, the roll is written in characters resembling those of the ancient inscriptions as much as those of the oldest extant manuscripts. While the oldest Greek papyri hitherto discovered in Egypt are from the third century before Christ, the Abusir roll belongs to the fourth, and is actually old enough to have

been used in the chanting of 'The Persians' at Alexander's musical festivals.

"A number of lines are missing from the beginning of the roll, through the decay of the outer layers of the papyrus in its long interment. When the fragment begins we are in the midst of a sea fight. Ship crashes into ship, and all is hurtling missiles and hissing firebrands. The Persian fleet turns in flight, and there are glimpses of the vanquished, some drowning, some supporting themselves upon wreckage, some captives in the hands of the victors. Then follows the flight from the royal camp, and the king's order for retreat. He bids them make ready the car and burn the tents, that nothing fall into the hands of their conquerors. The victors meantime have erected a trophy and sung the psalm of victory, and are celebrating their triumph with festal dances.

"So the poem ends, but to it is appended a brief but suggestive paragraph in which Timotheus defends himself against the charge of innovation and appeals to Orpheus and Terpan as his predecessors in the development of the lyric; after them, 'Timotheus of Miletus hath with eleven strings revealed the treasure of music.'

"The repulse of the Persians has always been reckoned among the chief glories of Athens, but in this poem there is no mention of Salamis, Themistocles, Athens, or any proper name. The evident purpose of eliminating Athens entirely from the account of one of her most glorious achievements is interpreted by the discoverers of the papyrus as reflecting that 'fortunately brief period when Ionian ingratitude dreamed of a Greek freedom without Athens.' The poem thus belongs in the early years of the fourth century before Christ, and the Abusir roll may even have been written in the lifetime of Timotheus."

THE FLIGHT OF THE LOCUST.

A RECENT number of the *Empire Review* contains a rather picturesque description of a raid by locusts in South Africa, from the pen of Mr. S. B. Kitchin:

"Locusts are very tiny creatures, at most two or three inches long, yet giant-jawed and shelled in a grim brown mail so hard that as they strike against one's face and hands in their eager advance it causes quite a sharp smart. They travel in such numbers that it takes them four or five days to pass over. The scouts alone, hovering in patches like red dust-clouds, are numerous enough to destroy the vegetation of a district; while the main body,

high up in the air, a host of little black specks, stretch out in an interminable screen between sun and earth. The fanning of their wings brings a fresh coolness over the hot earth even in the depth of summer; there seems to be a fresh breath of ozone, as of the sea.

DEVASTATION OF THE FIELDS.

"Away above was an ever-increasing host of brown bodies flecking the face of the veld with myriads of tiny moving shadows. As they advanced, shoals were alighting everywhere, covering the russet grass and the green bushes with their red-brown bodies. At their touch, the vegetation disappeared into their countless diabetic maws, and in its place the close-cropped earth was specked with their flimsy dung. Every blade of grass, all the tender plants and fruits, all the crops which were just yellowing under the influence of the sun and the patient toil of man,—all had vanished in a flash, absorbed by this voracious monster which was spreading over a million million moving inches of life in the fluttering air and live earth.

"On the flanks of the living cloud hover clusters of birds which cut off stragglers and even charge into the heart of hordes with great onslaught. But the mass, unaffected and stoical, moves on through the air, which is filled with the sound of innumerable wings, 'like the noise of a flame of fire that devoureth the stubble.' The very domestic fowls cluck with rapture as they dart about and greedily glut their crops with the unexpected delicacy as the locusts sit drowsily enjoying repletion. Natives smack their lips and regale themselves with the same luscious morsels as John the Baptist ate with wild honey in the wilderness.

LIKE THE ONWARD MARCH OF A GREAT ARMY.

"Like human brigands, they are so much more dangerous when mounted, and it is man's aim to prevent them at all hazards from reaching winghood. The instinct of the infant locusts is to travel straight onward. Even when they come to a river, they do not hesitate. Down the sandy, bushy bank of the African river they march headlong through the rustling reeds. Soon a thousand bodies are spluttering in the yellow tide, pioneers or martyrs whose dead bodies make a living pontoon for their countless fellows who come after toward that great dawn of winghood which is their distant goal.

"Modern man has taken advantage of this ever-forward motion to massacre them in myriads. Great trenches are dug right across their line of travel, which, on the farther side, are so slippery that the locusts cannot obtain a foot-

ing, but fall back again and perish of hunger or of suffocation rather than change their route.

"A short time after their appearance, the earth is an empty platter, for the living fire licks up all the food, and when the fluttering flight is past, the dun bare earth, like Sampson shorn of his locks, cries out of weakness. The perplexed cattle, robbed of their pasture, chase their tiny enemies frantically about, and have been known to even eat them. There is a great streak of nakedness and desolation, a tortuous highway cut through the most fertile tracts, over a mile in width, and in length girdling a whole continent."

CAUSES OF CANCER.

IN England, deaths from cancer have risen from 67.6 per 100,000 living in 1890 to 82.8 in 1900. In 1900, nearly one in every twenty deaths was caused by cancer, and rather more than one in every twelve of deaths over thirty-five years of age. An increase of more than 30 per cent. during ten years is recorded in Prussia, Holland, and Norway. Dr. Alfred Wolff, writing in the *Nineteenth Century* for June on the increase of cancer, proceeds to draw important inferences from further figures of cancer mortality in different parts of France, Germany, and Austria.

CONTAGION.

1. In all three countries, as in England, there are distinct areas of high cancer mortality, suggesting specific cause endemic in certain localities. The number of cancer cases in given streets or in what are known as cancer houses, and the exceptionally high death rate from cancer among domestic servants and nurses, are among the proofs of the contagious character of cancer. The writer expects that the microorganisms to which cancer is due will before long be discovered. "It is fairly certain," he says, "that a prolonged exposure to the contagion is required for the production of the disease."

BEER-DRINKING.

2. All districts of high cancer mortality are districts in which beer or cider is largely consumed. The writer says:

"The evidence appeared to be extremely convincing. In so far as there has been a real increase in the mortality, it may not improbably bear a direct relation to the increased consumption of beer in recent years. The amount consumed in the United Kingdom, which was twenty-seven gallons per head in 1885, was thirty-one and one-half gallons in 1900; and in the German

Empire the consumption rose in the same period from ninety to one hundred and twenty-five liters per head. In countries such as Italy and Hungary, in which the consumption of beer is small, the mortality from carcinomatous disease is far below the average. In France, the fact has already been mentioned that beer is largely consumed in those departments in which the cancer rate is exceptionally high (although cider also is here one of the staple drinks), and it may be pointed out that the rate is particularly low in many of those departments in the wine-growing districts in which beer is an unusual luxury.

"In Germany, from a return lately made to Parliament, it appears that Bavaria, Baden, and Württemberg are the three states showing the largest consumption of beer, and it will be seen that these all figure in the list of those having a high cancer rate. In Austria, Salzburg is stated to be the province in which most beer is consumed, followed at some distance by Bohemia and Upper and Lower Austria. In no country could any instance be discovered in which a large consumption of beer was accompanied by a low cancer mortality."

It is not alcohol that is the cause, but some other ingredient possibly found in the malt itself.

WELL-WOODED AND WELL-WATERED DISTRICTS!

3. Cancer is most prevalent in well-wooded and well-watered districts. Sussex and Warwickshire, the best-wooded English counties, are among the most cancerous. These conclusions are confirmed by those of the United States of America which have compulsory registration of death. The converse of this conclusion is supplied by the fact that districts deprived of timber have few cases of cancer:

"In our own country, while Sussex and Warwickshire, and, it may be added, Devonshire, have an alarming number of deaths from malignant disease, the bare lands of the Black Country are among the lowest on the list; similarly, the death rate from cancer in the West of Ireland, which has been almost entirely deforested, is extremely low. The facts on this point were everywhere so striking that they seemed to establish beyond question that a focus of cancer-infection is to be found in regions abounding in woods and water."

The writer, in conclusion, urges that in the wooded districts the circle of inquiry should be narrowed until the exact spots can be found in which the disease is most persistent, and the kind of tree prevailing there noted. He also urges that every effort should be made to discover which constituent of beer it is that communicates the deadly influence.

THE RELATION BETWEEN BACTERIA AND SOIL.

A^N account of some interesting experiments made at the Agricultural Institute of Bonn-Poppelsdorf upon the nitrifying bacteria is contributed by Dr. Wohltmann to the last number of the *Journal für Landwirtschaft*.

All plants require nitrogen; but although an abundant supply exists free in the atmosphere, most of them are unable to use it, and depend upon what is found in chemical combination with other substances in the soil. If the soil is poor in nitrogenous compounds, there cannot be a luxuriant growth of vegetation upon it. But peas, beans, and others of the family of leguminous plants contrive to form partnerships with certain kinds of bacteria which, in some way, act upon free nitrogen and change it chemically into compounds that can be used by the plants, and also change nitrogen compounds that are not available into compounds that can be used. These bacteria form nodules about as large as a pinhead on the roots of the plants. On account of this characteristic, poor soil is often planted with peas, beans, etc., in order to enrich it by the compounds of nitrogen formed in this way.

Since 1898, the author has been making observations upon the appearance of these bacteria in the most varied soils of temperate, sub-tropical, and tropical climates, and has found that they are not constantly associated with plants of this family, but may either be present or entirely absent. For example, at the experiment station of Kwai, in East Africa, at an altitude of 1,650 meters above sea level, in a soil rich in humus and nitrogen, he found peas growing luxuriantly and blossoming, but without a single nodule on their roots. From these observations, it seemed worth while to find out how the formation of root nodules varies in the most important cultivated plants according to the different soils and fertilizers used, and for this purpose about three hundred experiments were made with seedlings planted in eleven different kinds of soil common in the valley of the Rhine, and in soils mixed with three kinds of fertilizers.

In determining the effect of soil on the formation of nodules, the chief things considered were the condition of the plants, the amount of humus present, the amount of nitrogen, and the mineral constituents of the soil.

In general, the results supported the well-known rule that crude, uncultivated ground is poor in nodule-forming bacteria or lacks them entirely, and that the improved condition and productiveness of soil is correlated with increase of the bacteria, although there were some exceptions to this. With regard to the humus

constituent of the soil, its warming and loosening properties act favorably for the development of nodule-forming bacteria, and the effect can be detrimental only when the amount of humus is very great. This is shown by certain chalky earths of the highlands, which, on account of their antiseptic properties, due to humus, may be free from bacteria.

The soils used for experimentation were made to vary greatly in the amount of nitrogen present, but, except for certain kinds of soil from the moors, it seemed that the amount of nitrogen made no difference with the presence or absence of these bacteria unassociated with plants. Rich nitrogenous earth formed by the decay of basaltic rocks was specially poor in them, and they were also lacking in poor alluvial soil and in red clay. Calcium carbonate and potassium phosphate in the soil exert a favorable influence upon the growth of the bacteria.

The author concludes that when the soil is rich in nitrogenous fertilizers, preferably ammonium nitrate, leguminous plants may be free from nodule-forming bacteria. Apparently, their association with the bacteria is not a necessity, but an expedient, and whenever there is a supply of nitrogenous matter in the soil they dispense with the bacteria and with the free nitrogen which the bacteria make available, and instead, use the nitrogen found in chemical combination in the soil. In that case, the plants would not make the soil richer in nitrogen, but would impoverish it like other cultivated plants. The presence or absence of nodules on the roots varies with the amount of nitrogen in available compounds in the soil, and the value of a fertilizer may be estimated from the number and size of the nodules upon the roots of the plants.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF 1903.

THE exhibition of the Royal Academy for 1903 is described as chiefly remarkable for its portraits. Writing on this feature in the *Magazine of Art* for June, Mr. M. H. Spielmann says:

"Portraiture is generally the favorite section, as it is the most generally understood. Its merits are most easily recognized by those unskilled in painting, and it has ever been the favorite art with the public, for while commanding human sympathy, it unites the historical document and the artistic utterance. This section, it must be admitted, contains some of the most interesting work at the Academy.

"Among the most acceptable and the most unexpected is the portrait of Lady Aird, by Mr. Frank Dicksee, in which, abandoning for once

his more decorative method, he has given an admirably reticent portrait of a lady seated in her boudoir, in which the painting of the head could hardly be excelled, and the rendering of the numerous accessories and of the interior is distinguished by an ease and looseness of handling which is in delightful contrast with some of the work with which the artist has usually been identified.

"On the other hand, Mr. Sargent scarcely maintains his great position. His portraits, of course, are admirable, because they are 'Sargent's,' but he has neither produced an important composition, such as the two groups of last year, nor startled us with any such miracle of painting as we have almost come to expect from him. He is scarcely to be congratulated on the likeness of Lord Cromer, or on the presentation of Mrs. Joseph Chamberlain,—a picture which seems to have given him infinite trouble, displaying, too, an indecision in the head, and a lack of transparency in color, to which we are quite unaccustomed at his hands. Mr. Shannon is also lacking in the brilliancy which distinguished him a year ago. Professor von Herkomer is always at his best in the rendering of 'types.' Vivid character he delights in, and such he has given us in Sir Hermann Weber.

"We must look among the outsiders for canvases which, while yielding little to those of their elders, will, in some cases, command more general attention. In this section is the surprise of the exhibition, and the triumph belongs mainly to Mr. Furse. The most noteworthy is a dual portrait called 'The Return from the Ride,' representing in life-size a lady walking by the side of a mounted hatless youth. This work is finely designed, ably drawn, vigorously carried out, good and original in color, a strong and remarkable achievement, which by itself would mark the Royal Academy of 1903.

"These, after all, are but a few of the leading portraits in the exhibition. It is not exactly 'a portrait Academy,' yet we cannot but recognize that this section is a strong one, and we may well ask ourselves whether any other exhibition

in Europe can produce a more serious series of exercises in the rendering of character."

Hostile Criticism.

Mr. A. L. Baldry, who writes in the June number of the *Art Journal*, is not enthusiastic about this year's Royal Academy exhibition. He says:

"Perhaps the best way of summing up the characteristics of this gathering of nearly nineteen hundred pictures, drawings, and pieces of sculpture is to say that it proves how **capably** the artists of the present day can execute works not worth doing. There is no lack of good drawing, of clever brushwork, and of general efficiency in craftsmanship; there is ample evidence, indeed, that the art schools have been very successful during the last few years in turning out painters who have a correct understanding of technical processes; but unless the Academy is to be regarded merely as a place for the display of school exercises, this completeness of mechanism does not quite justify the exhibition. Some signs of intelligence, of perception that technique is only a means to an end, would be very welcome; and anything like a marked tendency to avoid the track which has been beaten hard by generations of plodders would be really refreshing.

"Unfortunately, the most careful search does not reveal many hidden beauties in the show. The little that is excellent in it can be discovered almost at a glance, and the mass that is not good enough for particular praise nor bad enough for serious condemnation does not become any more exhilarating on closer acquaintance. Anyhow, it may be conceded that there are not many absolutely incompetent performances which excite ridicule by their want of even a rudimentary perception of artistic principles, and those there are come almost exclusively from certain members of the Academy who have outlived their faculties. More failures, however, might be permitted if there were more striking successes at the head of the list; it is the dead level of complacent mediocrity that is so monotonous."



THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

EX-MINISTER ANDREW D. WHITE, our former ambassador to Germany, begins, in the August *Century*, "Chapters from My Diplomatic Life," which are to run serially in this magazine. The present installment deals with the first mission to Germany, 1879-81, and includes such matters as getting lost in a fog with Browning during a visit to London, Beaconsfield at Guildhall, and the court of William I.

THE YELLOWSTONE PARK.

This August magazine opens with Mr. Ray Stannard Baker's account of Yellowstone Park as it now is,—*"A Place of Marvels."* Mr. Baker thinks the name "park" a misnomer for the rugged mountain-tops and natural monstrosities of the Yellowstone. "Here is a space nearly sixty miles square,—a third larger than the State of Delaware, and, with its adjoining forest reserves, which are really a part of the public wilderness, nearly as large as Massachusetts or New Jersey. Visitors see only a narrow road-strip of its wonders, though the best; upon vast reaches of mountain and forest, lakes, rivers, geysers, cañons, no man looks once a year; probably many areas have never been seen by human eyes. The United States regular soldiers who guard it keep mostly to the roads, the boundaries of the park being for the most part so wild and rugged that even poaching hunters could not cross them if they would."

LHASA, THE FORBIDDEN CITY.

Mr. J. Deniker, a member of the Geographical Society of Paris, sheds "New Light on Lhasa, the Forbidden City." He reminds us that in spite of the impression that now, in the twentieth century, there is no corner of the earth where white men have not penetrated, there exists on the Asiatic continent, hardly two hundred miles from the frontier of British India, a city, the capital of Tibet, to which the white men of Europe and America are absolutely forbidden access. Within a distance of one hundred and fifty to two hundred miles from this city, all the roads leading to it are jealously guarded by pickets of Tibetan soldiers. This state of affairs has not always existed. Until the middle of the eighteenth century, some Europeans, mostly Catholic monks, were able to stay for long periods in this holy city. But since the expulsion, in 1760, of the Capuchin monks, who tried to meddle with the internal affairs of the country, all Europeans have been regarded with suspicion, and none has been allowed to penetrate into Lhasa. Since 1846, no European has reached its sacred temples, though attempts have been made. Almost every year, however, the government of British India sends to Tibet a Hindu pundit to make surveys, draw maps of the country, and three or four of these native surveyors, disguised as Buddhist pilgrims, succeeded in passing some time in Lhasa. Mr. Deniker describes the successful trip, in 1901, of Narzunof, a Russian subject, who came back with a semi-official embassy from Tibet to the Czar, the first diplomatic relations with a European power.

PURE MILK FOR A GREAT CITY.

Alice K. Fallows describes New York City's campaign for pure milk. The Milk Commission has made

vigorous provisions for cleanliness, and the privilege of its certification on a bottle of milk is only obtained by exacting regulations. Milk stables are required to be scrupulously clean and fresh, with cement floors, white-washed walls, and abundant windows. Cows are groomed and sponged off before each milking, and their tails scrubbed until they look like plumes. No man with contagious disease in his household is allowed near the milk. White suits are worn at the milking. Bottles and utensils are sterilized, the bottling is done in a separate room, the bottles packed in ice, and shipped in a refrigerator car.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

"HARPER'S" story number, the August magazine, is a handsomely illustrated issue, with a number of dramatically colored pictures. Mr. Mayo W. Hazeltine contributes a picturesque bit of revolutionary history in "The Republic of Vermont." Even as late as 1760, Vermont contained only about three hundred inhabitants, scattered along the western bank of the Connecticut River, within fifty miles of the southern border of the present State. In 1777, the Green Mountain Boys set up a republic of their own, and even in 1782, when they claimed admission into the Union, the application was not taken up by Congress, because, peace with Great Britain being now certain, there was no fear of Vermont's adhesion to Canada, and New York's influence was against the admission. So until 1791, or fifteen years after the Declaration of Independence, Vermont was an independent republic.

PICTURES OF THE MOON.

In a most interesting astronomical article on "Photographing the Moon," Prof. G. W. Ritchey, of the Yerkes Observatory, tells of some remarkable photographs recently taken of the moon's surface, the most successful of these pictures being reproduced in his article. He describes a favorable night for photographing the moon from the Yerkes Observatory as follows: "The valleys of Lake Geneva and Lake Como, near the observatory, were filled with mist, which also covered the surrounding hills and rose to the level of the roof, leaving only the three domes of the observatory standing out above it. The upper surface of this sea of mist appeared almost as white as snow in the moonlight, and nearly as level and definite as the surface of a lake. The air above the mist was exquisitely tranquil and transparent. The moon was very high, and appeared to the naked eye white and brilliant, like polished silver. With these conditions, we were able to employ the highest magnifying power which is used with the great telescope,—a power of 8,750 diameters. With such conditions, we were able to secure photographs which show much smaller features of the moon's surface than have ever been photographed before." In one of the pictures, the great crater of Theophilus is shown, sixty-four miles across, and the tops of the visible craters. The circular rampart ranges from 14,000 to 18,000 feet in vertical height above the gulf within. A group of mountains in the center of the crater shown clearly in the photographs are more than a mile high. "Imagine the sublimity and yet the utter desolation of the scene,

if we could stand upon the rampart and look out upon those thousands of square miles of gigantic, radiating ridges, or, turning about, look down into the vast amphitheater, the crater floor, 18,000 feet below. There is no scene on earth which approaches it."

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

THE August *Scribner's* consists entirely of handsomely illustrated fiction and verse, except for the spirited bit of naval history, "The Sea Fight Off Ushant," by Hilaire Belloc, beautifully illustrated with full-page pictures in colors, and a pleasant description of the typical county fair, by Nelson Lloyd. Prominent among the fiction numbers is the first installment of Edith Wharton's new novel, "Sanctuary;" Jesse Lynch Williams has a bright short story, "The Burglar and the Lady;" there are further chapters of John Fox, Jr.'s, "The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come," a pretty bit of story-telling by Margaret Sherwood, "The Princess and the Microbe," and "The Flying Russian," a tale of the Boxer uprising, by Frederick Palmer, the well-known war correspondent.

M'CLURE'S MAGAZINE.

MR. LINCOLN STEFFENS, who has been contributing the articles on municipal corruption and reform, makes this month an engaging picture of "Jacob A. Riis, Reporter, Reformer, American Citizen." Mr. Steffens thinks that President Roosevelt chose his words very nicely when he called Riis "the most useful citizen of New York." Here is how Mr. Steffens sums him up: "Riis is a lusty Danish emigrant, with a vigorous body, an undisciplined mind that grasps facts as he himself sees them, an imagination to reconstruct, emotion to suffer, and a kind, fighting spirit, to weep, whoop, laugh, and demand. As a reporter he saw straight, told about it in words hot with emotion, and, because his feeling was genuine, he was not content with the pleasant sensation of horror he gave his readers, neither could he be ordered off on some other assignment; he turned reformer, and while the man continued to pity, the reporter continued to report, and the reformer worked through despair to set the wrong right. As a citizen, public business came first in his interest, his own second."

McClure's follows the lead of the other popular magazines in dedicating August numbers to fiction. With the exception of a rattling story of the Upper Mississippi, describing a fourteen-mile race between two old-time steamboats, the number is entirely composed of fiction and verse, except for the brief chapter of our Indian History, "A Sidelight on the Sioux," by Doane Robinson, which shows up that tribe in a very different light from that in which history has generally seen them.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

MR. DAVID BELASCO, writing in the August *Cosmopolitan* on "Dramatic Schools and the Profession of Acting," thinks that the difficulty of getting a really permanent standard of dramatic values in England and America is, perhaps, only to be solved by the advent of a national theater. If this comes, it must be either subsidized by the Government or by a syndicate of men who are at once artists and capitalists,—men who would be as willing to advance their money

for a play which is to be introduced in the theater of their country as for a picture which is to be hung on the walls of their homes.

OUR MEAT-PACKING INDUSTRY.

An article under the title "A Pound of Meat" describes the processes of the great packing houses. The production of the pound of meat offered to us at the butcher shop now involves some twenty-five different industries set at work after the animal is killed, so elaborately are the by-products utilized. We are now producing more than one hundred and forty-four million dollars' worth of packing-house products, of which over 54 per cent. goes to feed the United Kingdom.

A WEALTHY "POLICY KING."

Mr. Frank Moss tells of the effort to relieve New York's poor of the depredations of policy fiends, which came to a head in the raid on "Al. Adams'" headquarters, and the conviction of that millionaire "policy king." "Papers on Adams' desk showed him to be the owner of fifty splendid pieces of real estate, and to be worth about \$3,000,000; but the money found at headquarters consisted mostly of pennies, nickels, and dimes,—coin taken from New York's most wretched poor by a game in which the victim stands absolutely no chance of fair play." We have quoted in another department from Mr. Edwin Lefèvre's sketch of Meyer Guggenheim, the head of the smelting industry in the United States.

FRANK LESLIE'S MONTHLY.

"FRANK LESLIE'S" for August is a straight fiction number, except for an article on "The Great American Lobby," by the editors of the magazine. They call the typical lobby "a by-product of the trust." "The trust did not create the lobby, but it has become its guide, comforter, and friend, and the lobby, in return, serves the trust with truly fraternal devotion." This theory is supported in the article before us by an examination of the bribery of the Missouri Legislature at the last session. The boodle then and there squandered by the Baking Powder Trust alone is placed at \$50,000. The whole story of the scandals involving Senator William J. Stone, Col. "Bill" Phelps, the lobbyist, and Lieutenant-Governor Lee, is gone over in detail, and the editors of *Frank Leslie's* think that whether criminal prosecutions on the evidence given Circuit Attorney Folk can be carried through or not, the exposure will do much good. "The slogan of anti-lobby and anti-boodle has been raised, and will be the platform of the winning party at the next general election."

THE WORLD'S WORK.

IN an illustrated article of considerable length, Booker T. Washington describes, in the *World's Work* for August, the methods of teaching at Tuskegee Institute and at other schools founded on the Tuskegee idea, and the visible results. One of the officials of the institute canvassed the nearest large city,—Montgomery, Ala.,—to find out just what the graduates of Tuskegee were doing. The samples of the reports made by this official showed prosperous farmers, highly paid mechanics, medical students, trained nurses, and only three with unsatisfactory or uncertain records. Many inquiries are made at Tuskegee for domestic servants. Mr. Washington explains that when a woman finishes a

course at Tuskegee she is in demand at once at a salary three or four times as large as that paid in the average home. The institute has filled a most important function as a normal school. There are at present sixteen institutions of some size that have grown directly out of Tuskegee training of their principals or have been organized by Tuskegee men and women. All of these schools are chartered under the laws of the State.

The *World's Work* for August concentrates on educational matters. President J. M. Taylor, of Vassar College, writes on "The Education of Women," and discusses especially the bearing of the higher education on the life of women and on their attitude toward marriage and the home. It has been shown that the health of college women improves during the four years of the college course, and President Taylor believes there is little or no bearing upon the matter of marriage and the home; nor does he find, after studying the statistics, that coeducation contributes to favor marriage more than the independent college. In short, he argues that there is nothing in the college training of American women to produce abnormal results. Prof. Frederick J. Turner writes on "The Democratic Education of the Middle West," describing the practically free instruction Western boys can get, from the kindergarten to the professional degree; Clarence H. Poe argues for a different system of studies for farmer children, on the theory that they need farmer studies instead of the city system; Maj. Charles T. Boyd describes the method employed by the United States army in "Teaching Soldiers How to Shoot," and President William De Witt Hyde, of Bowdoin College, traces "The Year's Educational Progress."

A fully illustrated article by W. B. Thornton deals with "The Revolution by Farm Machinery;" there is a sketch of the life of Pope Leo XIII. by Henry D. Sedgwick, Jr., and William E. Walling tells about the great building strike in New York, which has made idle one hundred thousand men and one hundred million dollars.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

FOLLOWING the examples of the popular August magazines in general, the *Atlantic* for this month begins with a complete novelette, "Daphne," by Margaret Sherwood, the scene of which is in Italy. We have quoted in another department from Mr. Charles J. Bullock's article on "The Concentration of Banking Interests in the United States."

An elaborate critical article by the novelist, Henry James, deals with Émile Zola. Mr. James thinks that Zola, as an artist, inordinately sacrifices to the common, "often with splendid results." He thinks, too, that the common sometimes overwhelms the artist. "He describes what he best feels, and feels it more and more as it naturally comes to him,—quite, if I may allow myself the image, as we zoologically see some mighty animal, a beast of a corrugated hide and a portentous snout, soaking with joy in the warm ooze of an African riverside."

Mr. Arthur Stanwood Pier writes on lawn tennis, which is having such a marked revival in the United States, and argues for its supremacy among games. He thinks the triumph of a well-played game is more perfect and personal than in any other sport of the sort, and reminds us that tennis is the most universal of all games, small boys, girls, women, and men of three generations playing it, as well as the expert. He says

the English cracks are the most distinguished exponents of the leisurely yet catlike game that marks the highest point of tennis. "In contrast to their method in covering the court, even our best American players seem to rush and scramble."

Dallas Lore Sharp has a pleasant nature article in an unusual field, in "Birds from a City Roof." It is surprising how many more birds he has found from such a coign of disadvantage than English sparrows and pigeons. Swallows can be seen in the air, though they do not like to build nests in city chimneys. Mr. Sharp says that his city roof is the best place he ever found for studying the feeding habits of nighthawks. Many varieties of hawks can be seen flying above the city, and occasionally a robin and a Baltimore oriole can be heard in the elms near by. A woodpecker is a rare visitor, and certain weather brings the herring and black-backed gulls. In the spring and autumn, flocks of geese and ducks can be seen, though they fly high, and reed birds and other migratory birds are not infrequently heard.

Mr. Louis C. Elson argues for "Public Education in Music," for those who never expect to produce a note of music as well as for those who do. Quite aside from the musical training itself, he thinks that vocal handling is well worth while to improve the quality of speech one hears in daily life. "A pleasant voice is as important in the every-day affairs of life as a pleasant face or a well-groomed appearance." With the present methods of vocalism and education, we have the twanging, irritating voice of the average American.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

THE opening article of the July *North American* is a vigorous arraignment of Mr. Chamberlain's Zollverein scheme from the pen of Harold Cox, a young English journalist. His argument is not essentially different from that put forward by other British opponents of protection, and summarized in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month."

AMERICAN MANUFACTURES IN THE WORLD'S MARKETS.

Mr. O. P. Austin, chief of the Bureau of Statistics at Washington, writing on the subject of American manufactures for the export trade, says:

"While we have more than quadrupled our exportation of manufactures since 1880, and outgrown all other nations of the world in their production during that same period, we are still supplying but 10 per cent. of the manufactures which enter into the international commerce of the world. The value of manufactures exported from all the countries of production, and in turn imported by some other country or countries, amounts to about \$4,000,000,000 annually, the share which we supply of this grand total being only about \$400,000,000 annually. Of this \$4,000,000,000 worth of manufactures which enter into international commerce, the United Kingdom furnishes about one-fourth; Germany, one-fifth; France, one-eighth; and the United States, one-tenth. About three-fourths of this great mass of manufactures which enter into international commerce are composed of iron and steel, copper and cotton, of which we are the world's largest producers, and for the manufacture of which we have facilities at least equal to those of any other country; while in other classes of manufactures, our productive powers are developing at a rate which promises that we may with confidence enter the field of international competition."

THE CONSTITUTIONAL INITIATIVE.

Governor Garvin, of Rhode Island, contributes an interesting study of direct legislation, of which he enumerates the following distinct forms:

"1. The Compulsory Referendum, which requires all laws and ordinances to be submitted to a vote of the people.

"2. The Optional Referendum, which allows a minority of the voters (say 5 per cent.), by petition, to require the submission of any law or ordinance to the judgment of the voters.

"3. The Initiative and Referendum, which permits a minority, by petition, to propose a bill and have it submitted without change to a popular vote.

"The Constitutional Initiative, which provides that a reasonable minority of the voters may propose amendments to the Constitution, to be submitted, unchanged, to the popular vote.

"In every case, a majority of the votes cast by the qualified electors upon any proposition decides its fate.

"Of the four forms of direct legislation enumerated above, the first exists in some of the cantons of Switzerland, but has never been suggested for adoption in any part of the United States. The second, third, and fourth are now embodied in the constitutions of three Western States,—namely, South Dakota, Utah, and Oregon. The provisions in the three constitutions are substantially alike, although the Oregon amendment, adopted in June, 1902, made some improvement in details over its predecessors. It is worthy of note that the vote for its adoption was 62,024, and the vote against it only 5,667."

MATERNITY AND THE AMERICAN WOMAN.

Margaret Bisland attempts to show that the tendency of American institutions is directly at variance with the natural maternal instinct which is cherished among Asian and European peoples. The results are seen in our diminutive families and in the weakening of the marriage tie.

"We fail or refuse to perceive the violently reactionary influence upon the race of that tendency of our Occidental civilization, which, in withdrawing the woman more and more from her home, tends to destroy the true balance of the physical and moral forces between the sexes.

"The most marked and deleterious effect of Americanization upon women is the false energies and abnormal ambitions it excites in her life. Her endeavor is no longer toward the realization and glorification of her sex in its femininity. The education she receives tends to render her either contemptuous of or indifferent to her own peculiar forces and their normal expression. For them, she not only strives, but is encouraged, to substitute an individuality which is purely hybrid and unessential,—a grotesque falsetto masculinity."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Charles Johnston writes on "The Servian Tragedy," Dr. Emil Reich on "A New View of the Revolutionary War," Minister J. N. Léger on "The Truth About Hayti," and the Hon. W. L. Penfield on "Anglo-German Intervention in Venezuela." We have quoted, in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," from "Jewish Massacres and the Revolutionary Movement in Russia," by Abraham Cahane, and from "The Panama Canal Question from a Colombian Standpoint," by Señor Pérez.

THE ARENA.

THE July number of the *Arena* opens with a contribution by Theophilus Baker entitled "Philadelphia—A Study in Political Psychology." In the course of his diagnosis of the Philadelphia character, this writer observes:

"The citizens lack the virtue militant, that individually disagreeable but socially valuable quality—pugnacity—the quality that leads an Englishman to spend twenty pounds to avoid the illegal exaction of a shilling. They are law-abiding, conservative to the point of allowing a rogue to rob them, if he only preserves the appearances and technicalities of legality. They lack political aggressiveness. That they do not lack an appreciation of the rottenness of their political life and a desire for better conditions may be seen in the innumerable societies they possess looking to that end,—municipal leagues, voters' alliances, ballot reform associations, civic clubs. It is impossible to enumerate all the contrivances and machinery that keep actively working, year after year, yet accomplish nothing of real value; that are continually marching, but 'never arrive.' One bold, confident, self-reliant, unselfish man, like Folk in St. Louis, Jerome in New York, or Clarke in Minneapolis, would be worth the whole collection of this elegant and useless bric-à-brac of reform. In one brief sentence: they do not punish political criminals in Philadelphia. What is the use of detecting frauds on the ballot if you never punish the criminals that are guilty of them!"

In an article on "The Rise and Progress of Coöperation in Europe," Prof. Frank Parsons shows that in England alone the volume of coöperative business has grown, in the last forty years, more than forty times as fast as England's international trade, one hundred times as fast as her manufactures, and one hundred and thirty times as fast as the population. "When we remember," says Professor Parsons, "that her international trade and her manufactures are England's special pride, the most important and energetic elements of her competitive business, we may realize in some degree how marvelous has been the progress of British coöperation."

Prof. John Ward Stimson pays a tribute to the late Richard Realf, whom he characterizes as "An Overlooked American Shelley," although he was born in England. Realf is famous as one of the followers of John Brown.

Mr. Ernest Crosby writes on "The Abuses of Injunctions," Mr. B. O. Flower on "The Corruption of Government by the Corporations," Boyd Winchester on "The Lust of Money," and the Rev. R. E. Bisbee on "The National Economic League."

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

THE July number of *Guntton's* marks a new departure in the programme of that excellent periodical. Heretofore, the subject-matter of the magazine has been almost exclusively devoted to the consideration of economic, social, and political questions. It has never been as heavy as the politico-economic journals that go out from the universities, but it has dealt with the same problems that they deal with, in its own way. Now it is announced that the original purpose will be carried out even more fully than before, but there will be added to the monthly bill of fare articles of a more general interest, characterized by a lighter literary

touch. In the July issue, for instance, there is a very readable and entertaining account of the experiences of a "reader" for a publishing house with the manuscripts that meet their fate at his desk. This clever sketch is contributed by Mr. Robert A. Bowen.

There is a timely article on "Russia and Japan" by an American resident in China. It is this writer's conviction that Japan must fight or die. A disturbance in Turkey involving Russia would be the signal for an attack by Japan in Manchuria.

JAPAN'S COMMERCIAL INTERESTS IN CHINA.

"The basis of the coming difficulty is neither sentimental nor insignificant, and, moreover, it is one that diplomacy cannot alter or avert.

"Japan has the largest shipping and carrying trade in Manchuria, having had 177 ships with a tonnage of 463,000 entering the port of Newchwang in 1902, and a much larger proportion for the year 1903 up to the present time. Her imports at this port amounted to 2,160,829 *taels*, and the exports from this port to Japan for the year 1902 amounted to 8,749,458 *taels*.

"Russian shipping amounted to one steamer, and her imports and exports were—none.

"Japan's exports to Korea, in 1901, were 11,372,550 *yen*, and her imports from Korea were 10,052,488 *yen*; while Russian imports and exports were merely nominal.

"Japan's exports to all of China amounted, in 1901, to 42,925,579 *yen*, having doubled in four years, and her imports from China were 27,256,986 *yen*."

A CENTURY-OLD COMMUNITY.

The interesting story of the Harmony Society, or Rappites, of Pennsylvania, whose property has recently been sold after the completion of a full hundred years of community life, is told by Mr. W. G. Davis. The society reached its highest point of prosperity in the first third of the last century. It was made up of Germans, under the leadership of "Father" Rapp. The first settlement was five miles north of the city of Pittsburg. After about ten years, the colony removed to the banks of the Wabash, in Posey County, Ind., where New Harmony was founded; but in 1825, having sold their Indiana property to Robert Owen, the Rappites returned to Pennsylvania and founded the town of Economy, seventeen miles below Pittsburg, on the Ohio River. There they have remained, dwindling gradually in numbers, till the present year. It seems hard to account for the socialism of George Rapp, the leader of the movement, and equally difficult to explain the final failure of his experiment. The writer of the article denies that the supposed tendency of the communal life to idleness and laziness was responsible for the fate of the community.

"It can, however, be said of the Rappites, as has been said of other socialistic ventures in this country, that when the communal life touches the edge of competitive environment, when the contrast between the two is seen from the viewpoint of actual experience in community life, the fittest members of the community forsake their ideals and take their places in the stress of the competitive industrial *régime* that is working out its own social salvation through the slow but sure laws of natural evolution. Then comes the end of the community. The process may be longer or shorter, but the end is inevitable. It has always been so. It was so with 'Economy.'"

OTHER ARTICLES.

There are editorial articles in this number on "Restraint of Trade," "The Tariff Problem in England," "America's Share of the World's Commerce," and "New York's Reform Administration and the Coming Election." In connection with the settlement between Venezuela and her creditors, Mr. Hayne Davis contributes an instructive paper on the subject of "Forcible Collection of Unadjudged Claims Against a Nation."

FOUR AMERICAN QUARTERLIES.

THERE are some indications of a return of the quarterly review to something like its former vogue and prestige among American periodicals. For some years, Great Britain was permitted, with one or two notable exceptions, to monopolize this type of review literature. Even now, the American quarterlies differ materially from the British. The tendency to build a book review into an elaborate treatment of some topic of current interest is far less pronounced here than in England. Signed articles, too, are the rule rather than the exception in our quarterlies. It happens that in the current issues of four of our leading quarterlies, before us as we write, not one of the articles is unsigned or signed with a pen-name. In the average number of the *London Quarterly Review*, on the other hand, perhaps half of the contributions give no external clue to their authorship.

The distinctive feature of the *Forum*, in its quarterly form and garb, is its series of summaries of current developments in politics, finance, applied science, literature, the drama, archæology, and education, each of these departments being covered, each quarter, by a specialist. Something of this kind is attempted, it is true, by some of the foreign reviews, but in no case on so ambitious a scale, nor by a method so systematic. In the current number, Dr. J. M. Rice, the editor, describes the lately organized "Society of Educational Research," sketching a few of the investigations that this body is about to undertake.

Of the two special articles contributed to this number of the *Forum*, that on "Kishineff," by Professor Gottheil, has been reviewed in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month." The other article, by Prof. George T. Ladd, of Yale, is in answer to the question, "How Shall the College Curriculum Be Reconstructed?" To his discussion of this problem, Professor Ladd appends a tabular statement of a three years' course, suggested as a type.

To summarize the contents of the *International Quarterly* (Burlington, Vt.) is like trying to review a shelf-full of new books on a wide range of topics. Every article in the *International* is a monograph, complete in itself, prepared by a special investigator. How can we better illustrate the *International's* quality than by simply enumerating the articles in the current number? The Baroness von Heyking writes on Herman Grimm, the greatest commentator of Goethe; Professor Giddings, of Columbia University, contributes an important essay on "The American People;" Professor Sanford, of Clark University, describes "The Psychic Life of Fishes;" Mr. Joseph B. Bishop attempts an answer to the question, "Are American Legislatures Declining?" Other topics treated in this number are: "The Theory of the Comic," William Norman Guthrie; "The Dramas of Paul Hervieu," Edouard Rod; "The

Philosophical Meaning of Energy," Wilhelm Ostwald; "The Goncourts," L. Marillier; "The Exploration of Tchad," Paul Pelet; "The Present and Future of Spain," G. de Azcarate; "Administration of Charity in England," Helen Bosanquet; "The Sweat Shop and Its Remedies," Eugen Schwiedland; and "The Pacification of Batangas," Herbert A. White.

The *Political Science Quarterly*, which is edited by the faculty of political science of Columbia University, has its usual complement of excellent papers by students of American and foreign institutions. Mr. W. C. Jameson Reid sets forth "The Asiatic Problem and Its Relation to the United States;" Prof. Emory R. Johnson examines in detail the terms of the Panama Canal treaty between the United States and Colombia; Mr. Charles A. Conant, one of the members of the recent commission on bimetallism appointed by President Roosevelt, discusses "The Future of the Limping Standard;" Prof. W. M. Sloane contributes a second paper on "Radical Democracy in France;" Prof. Munroe Smith begins a series of articles on "Customary Law;" Mr. Lincoln Hutchinson analyzes the results of our experiment at reciprocity with Brazil in the years 1891-95; and Prof. W. Z. Ripley offers a defense of the Industrial Commission's report on transportation. There is also a valuable "Record of Political Events," covering the period from November 10, 1902, to May 25, 1903, compiled by J. W. Garner, together with numerous book reviews,—the whole forming a capital *résumé* of current political discussion.

One of the latest candidates for the favor of the reading public hails from Trinity College, at Durham, N. C., and is known as the *South Atlantic Quarterly*. This is a dignified and scholarly journal, edited partly on the lines of the *Sewanee Review*, which for the past ten years has been practically the only high-class periodical south of Mason and Dixon's line. The new quarterly seems to be even more vitally concerned than its senior with the pressing economic and social problems peculiar to the South. To the current number, Dr. H. B. Frissell contributes an enlightening account of "Educational Progress in Virginia." Dr. Ulrich B. Phillips writes on "The Economics of the Plantation," and Mr. Daniel C. Roper on "The Census Office Cotton Report and the Development of the Cottonseed Oil Industry." In the field of State and local history, there is an interesting story of the peace movement in Alabama in the latter years of the Civil War.

Some of the articles included in this number appeal with almost equal force to the reader of Northern antecedents and sympathies. Nothing could be more appreciative, fair, or free from any bias of partisanship than the paper on "The Reform Movement in New England," by Dr. Edwin Mims. Speaking of the characteristic writers of the movement—Whittier, Longfellow, Lowell—this Southern critic can say, with evident sincerity: "Apart from any consideration of the merits of the question of slavery or secession, one can but admire the spirit of self-sacrifice, the freedom of thought, and independence that these men displayed."

Dr. John Spencer Bassett, the editor of the new quarterly, writing on "Two Negro Leaders"—Booker T. Washington and W. E. B. Du Bois—gives expression to the saner Southern view on the race question, and appeals from the "crude animalism of the passion-wrought masses" to the saving remnant of Southern chivalry and justice.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE July number of the *Contemporary Review* has an important article by Lord Welby on "Mr. Chamberlain's Fiscal Policy," and two articles on Serbia, which we notice elsewhere. Mr. Robert Donald, writing under the significant title, "The Trust or the Town," warns England against the perils of franchise-grabbers and falls back on American cities for a select assortment of horrible examples. Private corporations for the provision of public services have been extensively organized in Great Britain, quite on the American plan. Mr. Donald points to the domination of our great cities by the street-railway, gas, and electric-light syndicates, and seems to think that a like fate is impending in many of the English towns.

"A FAMOUS WAR SCARE."

Mr. Charles Lowe contributes a paper under the above heading which is not very complimentary to the late M. de Blowitz, and still less complimentary to the *London Times*. The famous war scare is that of 1875, when war between Germany and France was supposed to be imminent, and to have been averted owing to M. de Blowitz's famous dispatch to the *Times*, which led to Russian and British intervention. According to Mr. Lowe, who cites documents innumerable, the scare was a "fake," for which Prince Gortchakoff's vanity and the credulity of French diplomats were chiefly responsible. Early in 1875, Herr von Radowitz, German minister at Athens, was sent on an extraordinary mission to St. Petersburg to take the place of Prince Reuss during the latter's illness.

"Bismarck had found Gortchakoff wanting in some matters of diplomatic form—which he specifies in his 'Reminiscences'—and sent Radowitz as 'a counter-move against him of a personal more than political character.' In order to conceal his chagrin at this rebuff, or rather reproof, Gortchakoff found it necessary to offer some other explanation of the Radowitz mission to the foreign diplomatists, and thus caused it to be whispered about that Radowitz had come to sound Russia and offer her a free hand in the East as the price of her neutrality in the event of Germany declaring war on France!"

This was the origin of the great scare, and Mr. Lowe shows that the *Times* at first discredited Blowitz's letter, and after his death claimed that it was genuine, and that he alone had averted war. The prolonged intrigue and misunderstanding described by Mr. Lowe is too detailed to be summarized here, but his article is well worth reading.

FRUITS OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN WAR.

Captain Fletcher-Vane has a paper on "The Fruits of the War in South Africa."

"Undoubtedly and most obviously, the spirit of Afrikanerism has been enormously strengthened. The gallant defense of the republics has made the blood stir in the veins of every Cape Dutchman from the Zambesi to Cape Agulhas. Photographs of De Wet, of Botha, of Delarey, of Danie Theron, are to be found in every homestead in Cape Colony. These have become national heroes and are creative of nationality. If a South African poet arose now, their deeds would be sung throughout the length and breadth of the continent.

"Alongside of this purely Dutch spirit there is no less another new growth—the Afrikaner spirit among

English colonials. This, of course, has been germinating for decades, but it has not boldly forced its way through the earth heretofore, owing to the fact that the two races had been in antagonism, and therefore the more purely insular patriotism had been worked as an antidote to the South African one."

Captain Vane makes the following severe comments on the conduct of the colonials:

"There is no person on earth that the Dutchman despises as much as he does the colonial soldier, whether he is an over-sea colonial or one of his own breed. The reason is not, as some have tried to show, that he resents the interference of these outsiders in colonial affairs, and all the more resents the action of his brother Afrikaner. Any one who accepts this version of the story will be misled. The Dutchman does not object to the colonial soldier simply on account of his colonialism, though in respect to his own compatriots he wonders why they took up a line against him. But he strenuously objects to the manner in which the colonial has waged war. We who have been through it know that our colonial comrades were, in fact, little better than English-speaking Bashi-Bazouks."

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

IN the *Nineteenth Century* for July, the condition of the Danes in North Schleswig is dealt with by Mr. W. Hartmann, who describes the unavailing attempts at Germanization made by the Prussian Government. Teaching in the schools is carried on in German, and the elder children are forbidden to speak Danish even in the playground. The public hoisting of the Danish flag is forbidden, but every Danish house contains a miniature flagstaff with the "Dannebrog" displayed. The Danish press is persecuted, and imprisonments of editors are common. Expulsion from the country is another means of terrorism. As the result, the Danish language is heard everywhere except among officials and immigrants.

RADIUM.

Sir Oliver Lodge writes on "Radium and Its Lessons," mentioning many curious facts. Radium, for instance, when brought near a diamond in the dark, will make it glow, whereas it has no effect upon a paste diamond. Sir Oliver Lodge protests against the current idea that the discovery of radium in any way shakes the long-accepted laws of science. On the contrary, it confirms them, as the instability of matter which radium proves was theoretically required if the electric theory of its constitution were true, and radium completes this theory instead of destroying it. Radium gives us, in embryo, a transmutation of the elements.

"The recognized elements which we know so well must clearly be comparatively stable and persistent forms, but it does not follow that they are infinitely stable and perpetual: the probability is that every now and then, whether by the shock of collision or otherwise, the rapidity of motion necessary for instability will be attained by some one atom, and then that particular atom will fling off the fragment and emit the rays of which we have spoken, and begin a series of evolutionary changes of which the details may have to be worked out separately for each chemical element. If there be any truth in this speculation, matter is an evanescent and transient phenomenon, subject to gradual decay and decomposition by the action of its own internal forces and motions, somewhat as has been sus-

pected, and to some extent ascertained, to be the case for energy."

BUDDHISM AND CHRISTIANITY.

Mr. George Shann, in a paper on "St. Luke and Buddhism," shows the many close resemblances between the mythical origins of Buddhism and Christianity.

"In the first place, there is a curious correspondence, not only between the facts recorded concerning the origin of the two lives, but also in respect of the way of presenting these facts; Gautama Buddha was said to have been supernaturally begotten, yet he is called the son of a king because Siddhodana, the husband of his mother, is styled a king; in the same way, Jesus Christ is called the son or descendant of King David, although the pedigree from David is traced only to Joseph, who, as we are distinctly told, had nothing to do with the birth of his wife's first-born son.

"Again, Gautama, who was also a first-born child, came into the world when his mother was away from home on a journey, a circumstance to which Buddhist writers attach great importance, since it was one of the essential conditions of Buddhahood; St. Luke, alone of the Evangelists, thought it necessary to record the fact that Jesus also was born while his mother was away from home and on a journey. We learn, too, from Buddhist writings that when Gautama was born there was rejoicing among the devas, or spirits of the upper air; while, according to St. Luke, the shepherds of Bethlehem witnessed a similar rejoicing of the angels at the birth of Jesus. When the new-born Gautama was first formally presented to his 'father,' Siddhodana, there was among the spectators an aged saint who adored the child and prophesied that he would be a Buddha and would show the way of salvation to men; St. Luke tells us that Jesus was presented in the Temple while still an infant, and that a similar prophecy was then uttered by Simeon, who was apparently an old man.

"During his youth, Gautama was not appreciated at his true worth, but on one occasion, being put to the test by the elders of his tribe, he astonished them, not only by his skill in manly exercises, but also by his wisdom; it is recorded in Luke that Jesus also, at the age of twelve, astonished the doctors in the Temple by his understanding and answers. When the time approached for Gautama to attain his Buddhahood and to exercise its functions he was moved to leave his home and to go out into the wilderness, where he underwent much fasting and many temptations; on one occasion, the tempter Mara appeared to him and promised him universal dominion if he would only give up his quest for enlightenment, and at the crisis of his attainment to Buddhahood it is recorded that he fasted seven times seven days and seven nights, during which time he was again tempted by Mara, who tried to induce him to break his fast prematurely: but he overcame this temptation also, and after his fast the spirit Brahma came and ministered to him. Very similar events are recorded in Luke concerning the preparation of Jesus for his public ministry."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Lionel G. Robinson writes on "Constitutional Government in Hungary." Mr. C. Milnes Gaskell complains of "The Pollution of Our Rivers," and mentions that on the Calder River, in time of flood, forty dead dogs would pass one spot on a single day. Mr. R. Boeworth Smith has one of his charming natural history papers.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

THE *Fortnightly* for July leads off with sixty-six pages equally divided between the condemnation and advocacy of protection. Which means that the miscellaneous papers are less numerous than usual, though not, on the whole, less interesting. We have dealt elsewhere with the Zollverein controversy, and with Miss Sellers' character sketch of Herr Bebel.

THE BICENTENARY OF ST. PETERSBURG.

Miss Mary J. Johnston paints a vivid picture of "The Building of St. Petersburg." St. Petersburg was built on an uninhabited swamp. Workmen had to be brought from all parts of Russia, and what with floods, disease, and starvation, one hundred thousand of them died during the first year. The city was peopled by *ukaz*, hundreds of nobles, merchants, and tradespeople being ordered to leave their comfortable homes in Moscow and elsewhere to live in wooden huts in the new capital. Apparently insuperable difficulties were got over by the energy of the Czar. When stones were wanted, every large vessel entering the port was commanded to bring in thirty blocks, and every peasant's cart entering the city had to bring in three blocks. To encourage seamanship, no rowboats were allowed on the river. Twenty-five years after the foundation of the city, it contained a population of seventy-five thousand. But as late as 1714 wolves prowled about the city in search of food.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH ENTENTE.

Mr. Frederick Lees has a paper entitled "Some Promoters of Anglo-French Amity." He credits a good deal of the recent *rapprochement* to M. Delcassé, whom he describes as a resolute and sagacious statesman. After M. Delcassé, he mentions M. Cambon, the French ambassador. Dr. Barclay is the most prominent of non-official propagandists. M. Passy's services are to the cause of peace in general. Baron d'Estournelles de Constant presides over a group of one hundred French Deputies formed to support the cause of arbitration in Parliament. M. Leroy-Beaulieu, M. Lavissee, and M. Molinari support the cause in their writings; but why does Mr. Lees omit M. Finot, who has propagandized in favor of an Anglo-French alliance more recently and more vigorously than any of these? Finally, there is the considerable group of Frenchmen, headed by M. de Coubertin and M. Demolins, whose admiration for English educational methods makes them strong advocates of better relations.

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

THE *Westminster Review* for July is a very good number. It opens with a sarcastic paper upon Mr. Chamberlain's ignorance of the Zollverein. The writer quotes a mild expression of regret by a moderate Liberal Hamburg editor that the British colonial secretary should not know that free trade within the German states is an institution which does not belong to the competence of the several federated states, and that he has not even heard that Hanover lost its quality as a state as long ago as thirty-seven years.

Mr. J. G. Godard has a long and powerful paper entitled "Benevolent Despotism," the moral of which is that there is no such thing. Despotism cannot be benevolent; it must begin by conquest and continue to

exist by studying its own interest and sacrificing remorselessly the welfare of the subject populations.

HOME RULE AND THE KING'S VISIT.

There is another paper of considerable interest, by Mr. Crosby, entitled "Home Rule and the King's Visit to Ireland." Mr. Crosby thinks that the proper thing to do would be for the King to announce in the next speech from the throne the appointment of a royal commission to inquire into the best means of giving Ireland the management of her own affairs consistent with justice to all classes alike and the safety and welfare of the empire. The royal commission would at once summon a conference in Dublin, which would discuss home rule as the recent conference discussed the land question. Their decision would be submitted to the royal commission, which in turn would report to Parliament what ought to be done. Thus, the responsibility for bringing forward the measure of home rule would be taken entirely away from the imperial Parliament. All representative men in Ireland would be able to make their views known at the conference, and any scheme backed by all Ireland would have a good chance of acceptance by the imperial Parliament.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Franklin Thomasson writes once more upon the wickedness of private land monopoly. He is persuaded that the level of the wages of unskilled labor will always be kept down to the barest minimum by the necessity laborers are under of paying competitive land rent for permission to make use of the natural materials and forces of the globe.

There are a couple of papers dealing with the question of women, one by "Ignota" reviewing M. de Morsier's statement of the women's question from the French point of view, and Mrs. Montefiore's paper on "The Economic Independence of Women in the Nineteenth Century," which appeared in *L'Humanité Nouvelle*. Mrs. Diggs deals with Mrs. Woolsey in her review and rejoinder to her book on "Republics versus Women."

BLACKWOOD.

THERE is a great deal of quaint and curious reading in the July number of *Blackwood*. Its most serious article is the last, on "A Self-Sustaining Empire." It laments England's having rebuffed the Shah of Persia in such a way as to cause him to fling himself into the arms of Russia, with Russian ascendancy at Teheran as a consequence; and it earnestly enforces by right of England's historical position and present trade in the Persian Gulf Lord Lansdowne's declaration, that any attempt to establish a foreign naval foothold in the gulf would be resisted with all her powers.

The author of "Musings Without Method" endeavors to gibbet Sir James Crichton-Brown for his attack upon Mrs. Carlyle. In the course of much satiric advice to young journalists, he reminds them that already the star of the journalist is paling before the supremacy of the advertiser.

Mr. Andrew Lang, after exposing the ruthless massacre of prisoners by Covenanters and those under the influence of Covenanted preachers, describes, under the heading of "A Christian Under the Covenant," the more merciful policy of Sir James Turner, the original of Scott's "Dugald Dalgetty."

Mr. Harold Parsons revives the memory of Captain John Smith of Virginia, whom he describes as the founder of the United States, and as the Jacobean counterpart to the Elizabethan Drake.

A review of a history of Scottish literature remarks with pleasure that "the period of the kailyard assault

on the dignity of Scottish literature synchronized with the beginning of a remarkable development of interest in the older vernacular literature."

Under the heading of "Personalia," "Sigma" contributes several pages of gossip about noted or eccentric lawyers of bygone days.

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

LA REVUE.

"**L**A REVUE" for June 1 opens with a paper by Mr. Thomas O'Donnell, M.P., on "Ireland: Its Language, Its Liberty," which places the main facts of the Gaelic revival before the Continental public. Mr. O'Donnell records that since 1898 the Gaelic League has founded 412 branches, and that in 1901 it published 250,000 copies of Gaelic works of various kinds,—that is to say, double the amount of English publications in Ireland in the same year.

Prof. J. Jussieu, writing on "Le Krach de l'Intellectuelle," records the failures of feminism, and of coeducation in particular. He points out that even women's colleges recruit their professorial staffs from among men, and claims that women have shown themselves decidedly intellectually inferior. The question of the rights of women has nothing to do with the question of intellectual equality. Legitimate feminism's object is to see that society shall make women suffer as little as possible from their natural inferiority,—in other words, shall play the part of a Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Animals. But intellectual feminism as tested in America, says M. Jussieu, has proved a failure.

This article is appropriately followed by a paper on "Nos Droits sur l'Animal," in which M. Camille Mélinand shows good reason for thinking that animals are not really inferior to men. The fact that they do not progress is merely proof that they have attained the perfection of their species, a perfection which we are far from.

BRITTANY.

Count Austin de Croze writes on "The Great Misery of Brittany," apropos of the recent famine, which he declares was not due to the failure of the sardine fishing, which occupies only a small part of the people, but to lack of foresight, indolence, routine, clerical exploitation, and alcoholism, which he declares are national vices. The average Breton is of an apathy and improvidence incredible. The fishers never insure their boats, and lose heavily every year; they specialize in one kind of fishing, and are helpless when it fails, and the country is overrun with publicans. Famine is therefore periodical, and returns each winter without exception, and Count de Croze denounces the appeal for assistance of last winter as a mere political maneuver.

SERUM IN POWDERS AND PASTILLES.

Dr. R. Romme describes the new methods invented by Drs. Martin and Calmette for replacing the subcutaneous injection of anti-diphtheritic and anti-tetanic serum. Dr. Martin administers serum in the form of a pastille which destroys all bacilli in the throat of a diphtheritic patient. Dr. Calmette has invented a powder which, when laid on a wound within a short time after infection, effectually prevents lockjaw, a complaint which Dr. Romme asserts kills one-fifth of the children born in hot countries, in Indo-China, and in

Africa. The serum acts exactly in the same way as when injected under the skin, and keeps its anti-tetanic qualities indefinitely; and the operation is as simple as the laying of a pinch of powder on a cut.

THE FRENCH ARMY.

The second number opens with an important article by M. Messimy on "The Armed Peace," the burden of which, he alleges, France can alleviate. Compared with America, he says, Europe is in the situation of an old business house, burdened with heavy debts, encumbered with a uselessly great staff, competing with powerful and young houses which have reduced their expenses to a minimum, are perfectly equipped, and have no debts. France is, of course, most burdened of all, for she spends 35 per cent. of her resources on military preparations. Every Frenchman is born into the world with a debt of 750 francs (\$150) upon his shoulders. For every million Frenchmen, 5,620 are annually called under the flag, as against 4,120 Germans and 2,810 Russians. M. Messimy states that to get these recruits, weaklings have to be taken, and he says that the mortality in the French army is three and one-half times greater than that of the German. In view of the non-increase of the French population, M. Messimy recognizes that this is inevitable if France is to keep up as large an army as her rivals. His recommendation is to abandon this ambition, and to reduce the army by at least 100,000. He also urges that the number of generals should be cut down by half, and younger men appointed. The military budget would fall from 910,000,000 francs to 775,000,000 francs (\$155,000,000), and the army as a fighting machine would be superior to the present.

THE INSURANCE OF FUTURE CHILDREN.

Augusta Moll-Weiss, in a short paper entitled "To Conquer the Mothers," suggests that every couple before marrying should compulsorily insure the future of their children. She suggests that five centimes (about one cent) a day would be a sufficient premium. At every birth, the mother would receive a certain sum, which would diminish as the child grew older and capable of shifting for itself. She demands, also, the foundation of "schools of mothers," where young girls should be taught, in addition to housekeeping, how to bring up children.

REVUE DE PARIS.

THE visit of King Edward to Portugal has inspired M. Chaumie to describe at some length, in the *Revue de Paris*, the relations which have so long bound that country to Great Britain. The writer considers that the day may come when the British Empire will not only absorb the Portuguese colonies, but also Portugal herself! In any case, he severely blames the French Government for having practically neglected its country's interests in Portugal, and he wishes to

point out how dangerous it is for a small country to link its destinies in any way to one which is mighty and ambitious. It would appear as if the *Revue de Paris* had become quite definitely the organ of the French colonial party, for out of fifteen articles published in the two June numbers, three deal directly or indirectly with foreign and colonial affairs. Of the three, the least important is that on Portugal and her relations with England, while the most interesting is undoubtedly M. de Guzman's paper on the several parts played by French capitalists and French colonists in Tonquin.

FRENCH COLONIAL OPPORTUNITIES.

Perhaps because the French are such thrifty and industrious people, they attach great importance to the possession of capital. There are few examples in France of the boy who, starting out with half a crown in his pocket, lives to become a millionaire. The French lad possessed of only half a crown would certainly be lacking in the spirit of enterprise, one might almost say the spirit of gambling, which sometimes enables the shrewd Scotch boy gradually to accumulate from the humblest beginning a vast fortune. On the other hand, a Frenchman is content to start in business with far less capital than would elsewhere be considered safe or wise, and M. Guzman believes that with the sum of \$2,000 a Frenchman can emigrate to Tonquin, and, after an interval of comparatively few years, accumulate many thousands of dollars. He admits that, in order to insure success, the kind of man he has in his eye must be himself a strong and determined worker, full of hope and determination, and willing to put his own shoulder to the wheel.

The French Government offers every kind of concession to the right kind of colonist; still, the writer gives a very melancholy, and obviously a very true, picture of the many difficulties which meet from the outset the Frenchman who goes to Tonquin. He points out that many Frenchmen arriving at Hanoi are eager at once to accept far larger concessions than they can have any hope of turning to profit without a more practical knowledge of the country, and of its possibilities, than they are likely to acquire in a few months' stay in the capital. He very warmly recommends a would-be colonial landowner to take a subordinate position on the estate of a French planter who is known to be successful, for after an apprenticeship of two years so spent he will be able to place a few hundreds of dollars to far better advantage than he could have done thousands at an earlier stage of his knowledge of Tonquin. The man who can start with a capital of some \$25,000 or \$30,000 he advises to go in for rice culture, but he apparently considers equally profitable the raising of rice, coffee, tea, and cotton. The whole article is interesting, as it strikes, almost for the first time in the French press, the warning note which may be briefly summed up by the words, "No man who is rich and idle, or who is industrious and penniless, can hope to make a fortune in Greater France."

NOUVELLE REVUE.

THE only really interesting and noteworthy article in the two numbers of *La Nouvelle Revue* is that which deals with the lot of the half-million children workers of France. In this matter, France is now in the same position as was the England of 1803, and had it not been for the efforts made by such philanthropists

as the late Lord Shaftesbury, the latter country might still be undermined by this most horrible evil. Indeed, have we not seen honored members of the theatrical profession coming forward quite recently to defend the practice of allowing little children to take part in theatrical performances?

CHILD LABOR IN FRANCE.

M. Dagan, the writer of this excellent paper, has made the subject of the child worker one of exhaustive inquiry. He finds that an extraordinary number of children are employed in the delightful cake shops and confection factories which are one of the glories of mercantile Paris. Sometimes the poor little creatures engaged in this branch of trade work from twelve to seventeen hours a day, and in some cases they are expected to be up all Saturday night preparing for Sunday's work, for the Paris confectioner does most business on the day when other people are idle. Strangely enough, the children employed by confectioners are in almost every case apprentices; not only do they earn nothing, but often a premium of from \$40 to \$100 has been paid in order that they may learn the business. Yet another trade in which boys play a great part is that of printing; and many girl children are employed, at a wage of \$4 a month, in all those businesses which concern what may be called the luxury of clothes. The Bishop of Nancy lately made a determined effort to put an end to child labor in certain religious houses which make a specialty of fine needlework, and the letter written by the bishop to the cardinal-prefect of the Roman Tribunal, which had for difficult task that of deciding between a certain convent which employed child workers and its ecclesiastical superior, is quoted at great length. It is to be hoped that M. Dagan's eloquent pages will cause the French Government to look well into this question, so important for the welfare of the nation.

FRENCH WOMEN OF LETTERS.

M. Cim, in his literary recollections, which are well worth reading by all those who care for the French literature of the nineteenth century, gives an amusing account of the first women members of the famous Société des gens de lettres. At first there was a very decided feeling against admitting ladies, but as at the time by far the most remarkable and popular writer in France happened to be "that great-hearted woman and large-hearted man" known as George Sand, the men writers had to admit the blue-stockings after all, and now the Société has a very large number of lady members.

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

THE *Civiltà Cattolica* (June 6) takes advantage of the recent visits of King Edward and the German Emperor to the Vatican,—visits which it hails with the highest satisfaction,—to publish one of its periodical articles in favor of the temporal power, but without bringing forward any fresh argument. The *Nuova Antologia* (May 16), on the other hand, points out how the visits demonstrate once again the entire independence of the Holy See in the exercise of all its spiritual functions. But while it rejoices unreservedly over the visit of Edward VII., it voices a certain discontent felt in Rome at the unexpected splendor with which the German Emperor was pleased to invest his visit to the Vatican, making it appear as if this, and not his visit

to the Quirinal, were the main reason for his presence in Rome.

The same number of the *Civiltà* contains an exceedingly interesting account of the great "Dictionary of the Bible," on which the Abbé Vigouroux,—now one of the secretaries of the new Biblical Commission in Rome,—set to work over a dozen years ago, and of which he has already superintended the publication of twenty-two out of the thirty-five parts. Mgr. Mignot, Archbishop of Albi, supplies the introduction, the illustrations are numerous, and the work is in every sense up to date. A series of articles aims at showing how the Popes have invariably done their utmost to suppress slavery; another series discusses the Christianization of China in the eighth century, as proved from certain ancient Chinese inscriptions.

English subjects receive even more than their usual share of attention in the *Nuova Antologia*, this month. Prof. C. Segré bases an article on Addison and Bolingbroke on the volumes dealing, respectively, with these authors by W. J. Courthope and Walter Sichel, and the editor himself. Maggiorino Ferraris deals exhaustively with state-aided agriculture in Australia, and its possible effects on Italian commerce, quoting largely from W. P. Reeves' recent volumes on "State Experiments in Australia and New Zealand." A summary is also given of a recent article in the *Bibliothèque Universelle*, of Lausanne, on the interesting problem started by Dr. Engel, of Berlin, whether Shakespeare ever visited Italy. The probabilities seem all in favor of such a visit, which, however, would seem to have been restricted to the northern provinces, as Shakespeare never introduces either Rome, Naples, or Florence.

In the *Rassegna Nazionale* (June 1), Dr. Willoughby Wade discusses the frequent recurrence to the knife in Italian quarrels, and suggests that no one should be allowed to carry a knife with a blade more than four centimeters in length when sharpened at the point. With such a restriction, the wounds inflicted would scarcely ever prove fatal.

The *Rivista d'Italia* is a comparatively new monthly review which hitherto has not reached us. Its interests are rather literary than political, the number before us containing one article in honor of Carducci, and another, highly enthusiastic, in praise of d'Annunzio's recent volume of verse, "Laus Vitæ," which has just been placed upon the Roman Index. The religious views of the magazine may further be gauged from an article by Professor Labanca, who, in urging the reestablishment of chairs of theology in the Italian universities, in order that the subject should not be left wholly to ecclesiastics, commends the teaching of Christianity on an historical and undenominational basis in all primary and secondary schools receiving state aid.

A NEW POLISH PERIODICAL.

"**L**A POLOGNE CONTEMPORAINE" is the title of a new fortnightly album published in French at Paris, but devoted, as its name implies, to Poland,—its politics, literature, and art. Although published in France, its contributors and illustrators are Poles of distinction, resident in Russian Poland, whose names, for obvious reasons, are withheld. The first number is admirably printed, and is illustrated with reproductions of Polish landscapes by Ruszczyk, Stanislawski, and others, and the literary matter is devoted to a very

interesting description of the history and resources of the divided kingdom. Poland, both politically and artistically, is happily now undergoing a great renaissance; and the unity of culture and aspirations which continues to exist, in spite, or because, of its political division, gives good cause for faith in its future. The Poles are at present beating the Prussians on their own ground; they are holding their own in Austria, and in Russia they are progressing materially at a much greater speed than their masters, for it is one of the curiosities of Russian administration that the subject races are economically favored at the expense of the Great Russians. But the new Poland is hardly known in western Europe. Foreigners write about it ignorantly, and Poles write about it in Polish. A periodical, published in a well-known language but written by Poles, is, therefore, just what is wanted, and *La Pologne Contemporaine* promises to fill the gap. It is published at 5, Rue de l'Odéon, Paris.

THE DUTCH MAGAZINES.

IN *Onze Eeuw*, Dr. Chantepie de la Saussaye has a powerful essay on the latter-day tendency to make a religion of almost everything; he quotes the famous remark of Brunetière on this subject, and shows us how this mental seeking after ideals, after something to worship, is likely to affect the human race. Will it finally bring every one to the belief in and the worship of an Almighty Power? is the kind of question which the thoughtful person will ask himself; it is highly probable. If we make a religion of human suffering (as Brunetière hints), then we are getting well on the road!

The question of state-controlled railroads is often touched upon by long-suffering travelers and others, and opinions vary (naturally!) on the advisability of handing over the railroads to the government. In the number under review, there is an article on this subject, and the author arrives at the conclusion that state exploitation is not desirable. He believes that the balance of argument is against it, and mentions the Dutch strike in support of the contention. An essay on the political eloquence of Demosthenes contributes to the make-up of a good number of this excellent review.

Vragen des Tijds gives us only two articles this month, but they are very long and very interesting ones of their kind. It is a characteristic of the Dutch reviews that they go very fully into their subjects, yet a review containing seventy pages and two articles would scarcely be appreciated on this side. The first essay is on "Æsthetic Problems," and the writer deals with the subject effectively. The second contribution is of more general interest, for it treats of waiters. We are not all waiters, but we are all interested in them, for most of us come into contact with some of them, however little we travel about. People do not understand what a waiter's life is like; they grumble about him, they make unfavorable comparisons between the waiters of one country and those of another, often in accordance with the condition of their liver at the particular moment, and they grudgingly give him the expected tip, but they know really very little about his trials and hardships. So the writer goes into details,—into very many details,—and tries to inculcate a better comprehension of the life of a class which plays an important part in the world.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

A PROPOS of the increasing interest in all East Indian affairs awakened by the great Durbar at Delhi, Miss Eliza R. Scidmore, the popular writer on Oriental topics, has given us an entertaining account of "Winter India" (Century Company). Inasmuch as an increasing number of American tourists are likely to include Delhi in their itineraries as long as Lord and Lady Curzon hold the vice-regal office, Miss Scidmore's suggestions regarding details of travel will be appreciated. One is dismayed to read her statement that the worst hotels in the world are in India, but some encouragement is offered by the prediction that from this time on the country will become better suited for luxurious travel. Miss Scidmore's descriptions of scenery and of social life in India are vivid and thoroughly enjoyable.



MISS E. R. SCIDMORE.

"Down the Orinoco in a Canoe," by Señor Pérez Triana (Crowell), is an account, by the son of an ex-President of Colombia, of an adventurous journey undertaken for political reasons. The book itself has nothing to do with Colombian revolutions, as might have been expected from its authorship, but deals rather with the natural scenery along the water-courses traversed and with the customs of the savage tribes dwelling in those regions. This was one of the first voyages ever made by civilized men down the entire course of the river, and is memorable on that account.

Americans interested in the development of Manchuria may read with profit a new volume, by Wirt Gerrare, on "Greater Russia" (Macmillan). This book is a revelation of the tremendous energy which animates modern Russia, especially in her expansion toward the far East. Mr. Gerrare writes with admiration for Russian commercial shrewdness and diplomacy, and gives much detailed information regarding the Manchurian problem.

While any study of modern Russia must of necessity look to the future, a work like that of Georg Brandes, "Poland: A Study of the Land, People, and Literature" (Macmillan), just as inevitably harks back to the past. To a writer of Brandes' temperament, industrial problems make slight appeal; his are the impressions of a critic concerned more with the literature and art of the people than with the commercial life. At the same time, the social and political phases of Polish development have not wholly escaped Dr. Brandes' observation. Along with the impressions derived from frequent visits to Poland, made during the past twenty years, Dr.

Brandes has recorded many interesting anecdotes and interpretations. The political dreams of past generations of Poles have come to naught, and nothing is more sadly significant of this than the steadily increasing streams of migration to the United States. We are indebted to Dr. Brandes for a shrewd and accurate analysis of the racial traits that are now contributing more sensibly than ever before to our own national fabric.

Canon Rawnsley's "Lake Country Sketches" (Macmillan), like the second volume of the same author's "Literary Associations with the English Lakes," is chiefly notable for its reminiscences of the poet Wordsworth. Canon Rawnsley was at great pains to obtain interviews with a number of the Westmoreland rustics who remembered the poet as he dwelt among them. Their frank and quaintly expressed opinions regarding "Wudsworth," as they called him, and Hartley Coleridge, tend, on the whole, to confirm the statements of most of the biographers regarding Wordsworth's personal peculiarities.

Another book of English peasant lore is Mr. Frank L. Vesper's "Real Life Sketches from Devon and Cornwall" (Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye), in which are included the writer's historical and personal reminiscences of actual occurrences.

"How Paris Amuses Itself" is the title of a volume of clever sketches by F. Berkeley Smith (Funk & Wagnalls Company). The author's point of view in this volume, as he states in the introduction, is that of the small boy who crawls under the circus tent. It was to gratify the curiosity of that large number of people who have read about Paris, but have never been there, that this volume, like its companion, by the same author, "The Real Latin Quarter of Paris," was written. It seems to be the author's sincere purpose to describe what he has seen exactly as he has seen it,—the shows, restaurants, theaters, and circuses of Paris are pictured for us in all the abundance of detail which the most inquisitive reader has a right to demand.

"Washington: Its Sights and Insights," by Harriet Earhart Monroe (Funk & Wagnalls), is a book about the national capital which may be read to advantage by any one intending to visit Washington, and with almost equal advantage by one who has already visited the city and wishes a convenient *résumé* of what he has seen there. The work of the various departments is well described, as well as the architecture and other external features of the capital city. Numerous anecdotes of public men vivaciously told add to the interest of the book.

Incidental to the great meetings of American teachers at Boston, last month, was the preparation of an excellent guide-book to the city by Edwin M. Bacon (Boston: Ginn & Co.). This little book was compiled from original materials, is conveniently arranged, brings the history of its subject down to date, and is provided with a series of extremely helpful sectional maps and diagrams. It is in all respects the standard Boston guide.

SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, AND POLITICAL PROBLEMS.

As related to the renewed discussion of the negro problem in this country, the little volume of essays and sketches entitled "The Souls of Black Folks," by Prof. W. E. Burghardt Du Bois (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), deserves a wide reading. Professor Du Bois has contributed to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, and is known to many of our readers as a writer of scholarly and well-informed papers relating to the progress of his race. A graduate of Harvard and of the University of Berlin, Professor Du Bois has attained in a few years, with Booker T. Washington, the highest rank among American negro educationists. In his present book, Professor Du Bois emphasizes the need of spiritual and intellectual culture for the negro rather than the more practical and utilitarian ends kept so steadily in view by Mr. Washington in his work at Tuskegee. Professor Du Bois is a man of the highest culture, and he cannot overcome the sensitiveness natural to a man of fine feelings placed in the position that he occupies. There is a natural tendency on his part to interpret the aspirations of his people through his own individual strivings and emotions. The result is truly pathetic; but as a practical contribution to the solution of the educational problem for the black race his essays cannot be regarded as of equal value with the widely published lectures and addresses of Mr. Washington. Nevertheless, they well repay reading, representing, as they do, a phase of thought that has, perhaps, been too long neglected by some of those who would deal with the problem as a whole. Of the literary quality of the essays too much cannot be said. No book of similar character has been printed in recent years that equals this little volume in power or grace of expression.

Another race problem of very pressing importance forms the theme of a new book, by the Rev. W. C. Stiles, entitled "Out of Kishineff" (New York: G. W. Dillingham Company). In this volume are rehearsed the facts of the Kishineff massacre, with comments by the writer tending to set forth the duty of the American people to the Russian Jew. As a contemporary account of an episode that is likely to have some importance in history, the final chapter of addenda is of interest, containing, as it does, many of the expressions of opinion called out in this country by the outrages in Russia.

A calmer review of the same subject is presented in "Antisemitism, Its History and Causes," by Bernard Lazare, translated from the French (New York: The International Library Publishing Company, 23 Duane Street). While the writer of this work regards antisemitism as a narrow, one-sided view, still he believes that such a view was not born without cause, and he has presented in this volume what he believes to have been the cause.

As regards the racial composition of its population, perhaps no American city has been so thoroughly studied as Boston. The work done by residents of the South End House, bearing fruit in the volumes en-



DR. W. E. B. DU BOIS.

titled "The City Wilderness" and "Americans in Process," brought to light the social and ethnic conditions in the New England metropolis in a startling manner. An even more ambitious investigation has more lately been carried on by Dr. Frederick A. Bushee, and the data and conclusions which he obtained have been published in a monograph entitled "Ethnic Factors in the Population of Boston," in the series of publications of the American Economic Association (Macmillan). The area covered by this study is larger than that described in "Americans in Process." Dr. Bushee discusses "Causes of Immigration," "Characteristics of Immigrants," "Standard of Living," "Vitality," "Occupations," "Poverty," "Crime," "Naturalization," and "Intermarriage."

A valuable exposition of Spinoza's political and ethical philosophy is contained in the volume by Robert A. Duff, M.A., lecturer in the University of Glasgow (Macmillan). This work is in no sense a criticism, but rather an elucidation of Spinoza's ideas in their mutual relations, and an account of his view of the world and man. Professor Duff accords no separate treatment to the metaphysics of Spinoza, holding that Spinoza, indeed, had no interest in metaphysics for its own sake, while he was passionately interested in moral and political problems. Professor Duff's volume forms an entirely new interpretation of Spinoza's thought.

The second annual number of the excellent "Review of Legislation" issued by the New York State Library (Albany: University of the State of New York), contains contributions from specialists in all parts of the country reviewing governors' recommendations and the laws enacted on each important subject of general interest. This bulletin has become almost indispensable to all students of American social progress.

In a volume entitled "The Anglo-Saxon Century" (Putnam's), Mr. John R. Dos Passos, of the New York Bar, advocates the union of all English-speaking peoples. As a first step to this end, Mr. Dos Passos urges the voluntary incorporation of Canada with the American republic. He believes that, on broad principles, this incorporation ought not to be difficult, seeing that the federal idea, when happily developed in the existing Canadian institutions, corresponds in a large degree with our own. Recognizing the existence of a strong sentiment adverse to the surrender of a separate national existence, Mr. Dos Passos proposes the establishment of a common, interchangeable citizenship between all English-speaking nations and colonies by the abrogation of the naturalization laws of the United States and the British Empire, so that the citizens of each can at will, upon landing in the other's territory, become citizens of any of the territories dominated by these governments. To make the union permanent and indissoluble, Mr. Dos Passos would introduce free trade between the United States and the British Empire, the same as exists between the several States of our Union. To this he would add the adoption of the same standards of money, weights, and measures. To render armed conflict impossible, in the event of any differences arising between the countries he would establish an arbitration court, with full jurisdiction to determine finally all disputes which may hereafter arise.

Mrs. Kate Trimble Woolsey has written a striking and vivacious little book entitled "Republics versus Woman" (New York: The Graton Press), the purpose of which is to contrast the treatment accorded to women in aristocracies with that meted out to her in democra-

cies, greatly to the advantage of the former. Mrs. Woolsey points to the fact that woman in Russia has a status as a property-holder, as well as a voice and vote in all municipal affairs. She also proceeds to show how in many American States the position of woman as regards her social and economic status is decidedly below that attained by them in European countries. She cites the conclusion of the late Li Hung Chang, that the difference in the condition of the two sexes is vastly greater in a republic than in a monarchy, and that there is no government that is necessarily so antagonistic to women as a republic, no one in which the entire female sex may logically hope for so little.

PROFESSOR ELY ON INDUSTRIAL EVOLUTION.

A novel attempt to popularize various abstruse topics is a volume of "Studies in the Evolution of Industrial Society," by Prof. Richard T. Ely (Macmillan). The field traversed by this book, as the author well says in his preface, belongs largely to that general borderland where economics, ethics, biology, and sociology meet. It is Dr. Ely's belief that this borderland will prove scientifically fruitful territory, and that if it is well worked by men approaching it from the viewpoint of the different sciences mentioned, the scientific products will vary, but will constitute a harmonious whole. It has always been Dr. Ely's conviction that scientific work in the field of the humanities may generally be made interesting to intelligent citizens, and the "Citizen's Library," of which Dr. Ely is the editor, and to which the present volume is the latest contribution, has been developed with that aim steadily in view. In treating of industrial society, Dr. Ely first gives a general survey of the evolution of industry, and then treats of specific problems of industrial evolution. The author has succeeded remarkably well in restricting his treatment to the space limitations of a single small volume, and the book throughout is remarkable for the clearness of statement and literary style which distinguishes all of Dr. Ely's published work. Among the topics of great popular interest covered by the book are "Monopolies and Trusts," "Municipal Ownership of National Monopolies," "Concentration and Diffusion of Wealth," "Inheritance of Property," "Industrial Peace," "Industrial Liberty," and "The Possibilities of Social Reform." Professor Ely is one of the very few American economists of note who can illuminate the scientific discussion of such subjects without in any way sacrificing the interests of science to popularity.

AMERICAN INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE.

"The Story of a Grain of Wheat" has been told in an entertaining way in a little volume by Mr. William C. Edgar, the editor of the *Northwestern Miller* (Appleton). The increasing importance of wheat as an American staple product, for which abundant evidence is furnished by the article on the Kansas wheat harvest, ap-

pearing elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, makes all the more necessary a brief and intelligent survey of the subject such as Mr. Edgar has so successfully accomplished. For Eastern and Southern readers especially, many of whom may never have seen a Western wheat farm, Mr. Edgar's chapters on

"Wheat in Modern Times," "The Wheat Fields of To-day," and "The Wheat Fields of To-morrow" are especially enlightening, while such topics as "The Milling of Wheat," "Progress of Milling," and "Transportation and Tariffs" receive at Mr. Edgar's hands the treatment of an expert.

The fifth volume in Nelson's "Wall Street Library" (New York: S. A. Nelson, 16 Park Place), is entitled "The A B C of Stock Speculation."

This little book presents

the theory of speculation evolved by the late Charles H. Dow, and contains several chapters of excellent advice to amateurs on the Stock Exchange.

A phase of the tariff question that is yearly becoming more important is discussed in a volume on reciprocity by Profs. J. Laurence Laughlin and H. Parker Willis (New York: Baker & Taylor Company). These writers give interesting historical *résumés* of our reciprocity with Canada and Hawaii, as well as the principal points in the discussions related to the sugar question, the McKinley Act, the Dingley Act, the Kassar treaties, and the struggle for reciprocity with Cuba. The contention of the authors is that reciprocity is desirable only if widely extended. The volume is valuable as a work of reference, containing, as it does, in an appendix all the reciprocity treaties and agreements entered into by this country, together with important statistics of Cuban sugar, and other data of great interest in connection with the debate on reciprocity that is to be resumed during the coming fall months.

TRUSTS AND COMBINATIONS.

"Trust Finance," by Edward Sherwood Meade, Ph.D. (Appleton), is a study of the genesis, organization, and management of industrial combinations. Taking up the trust question in its purely financial aspect, Dr. Meade discusses first the nature of the competitive situation out of which the trust arose, the motives to which the trust promoter appealed in formulating his proposition, the assistance rendered by the underwriter, and the methods employed to sell the trust stock to the public; (2) the adequacy of the amounts which the new companies have reserved for extensions and betterments out of the large profits of the past four years, and the methods which they have employed to obtain new capital; and (3) the legitimacy of the capitalization of the trusts. The freshness and range of the facts gleaned by Dr. Meade from the industrial world, and used as the basis of his investigation, give a unique value to the work.

A philosophical dissertation on trusts, from the point of view of a foreign student, is contained in a little vol-



MR. WILLIAM C. EDGAR.



DR. RICHARD T. ELY.

ume, "Cartels et Trusts," by Et. Martin Saint-Léon (Paris: Librairie Victor Lecoffre). American readers will be chiefly interested in those chapters of this book which deal with the trusts and cartels formed in Germany and Austria.

In the "Citizen's Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology," edited by Professor Ely (Macmillan), Dr. B. H. Meyer has written a volume on "Railway Legislation in the United States." This writer has analyzed the private and public laws governing railways in the United States, and the important decisions relating to interstate commerce. This work has been carefully and accurately done, and, in the form presented, is a useful compendium for the student of the various problems connected with railroad regulation.

CITY GOVERNMENT AND BETTERMENT.

Among recent studies in municipal government, one of the most serious importance is Dr. Howard Kemble Stokes' account of "The Finances and Administration of Providence" (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press). Regarding Providence as a typical modern American city, Dr. Stokes traces in outline the social and economic forces underlying the present structure of local government during the first one hundred and fifty years of the city's history and during the last fifty years, sets forth the effects of personal, political, or corporation motives upon the development of the administration, and the income and outgo of the city in more complete detail. The viewpoint taken by Dr. Stokes is that of the business aspects of municipal corporations. In an appendix appear tables of revenues, expenditures, debt operations, and the population of Providence for the years 1800-1901. Accompanying these figures are diagrams picturing the more important financial operations of the city.

Mr. Alfred Hodder, one of the group of young college graduates who have been associated with District Attorney Jerome, of New York City, in his work for good government, has written a spirited account of Mr. Jerome's remarkable campaign, two years ago, which he calls "A Fight for the City" (Macmillan). Mr. Hodder's story is as direct and straightforward as Mr. Jerome's own campaign speeches. He never hesitates to put his finger on the weak spots in the various organizations concerned in that memorable struggle, and, in fact, the average politician's caution seems an element quite foreign to his make-up. The inspiring thing about Mr. Hodder's book is that the fight for the city that he describes was a winning fight, and that, for all time to come, it offers grounds of hope for similar victories in any cause that can prove itself as just.

Something of what has been accomplished in the improvement of tenement-house conditions in New York is related in a little book by Jacob A. Riis, entitled "The Peril and the Preservation of the Home" (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.). This book is made up of lectures delivered by Mr. Riis on the William L.

Bull Foundation, at the Philadelphia Divinity School. In this, as in all the other books by this writer, the note of optimism is so strong that even the worst of the conditions described have no real terror for the earnest reformer who reads the lessons.

While Mr. Hodder deals with the political side and Mr. Riis with the social side of the modern-city problem, it is left for Mr. Charles Mulford Robinson to

treat of the æsthetic aspects of modern municipal progress in the work entitled "Modern Civic Art, or the City Made Beautiful" (Putnam's). This, also, is an inspiring book that points out what might be done, not in one city only, but in many modern cities, to transform the dingy conditions of the present into something resembling artistic unity. Mr. Robinson's suggestions are

specific and practical. A systematic effort is made to meet the requirements of the average city on all sides. A chapter is devoted to the water approach, another to the land approach, and a third to the administrative center. In considering the business district of the city, suggestions are made regarding the street plan, the architecture, the furnishings of the street, and the adorning with fountains and sculpture. Treating of residential sections, Mr. Robinson keeps in view not only the great avenues and more pretentious streets, but also the tenement sections; and in his discussion of the city at large, attention is given to open spaces, parkways, and park development.

A book that should fill a want that is real, whether long felt or not, is a volume on "Municipal Public Works," by S. Whinery (Macmillan). This work, by a civil engineer, is intended for an inexperienced city official who is suddenly called upon to assume the duties

and responsibilities of office in connection with the management and conduct of municipal public works. The writer has avoided technical treatment of the subjects, choosing to deal with principles rather than with details of practise. Some of the important subjects treated are: "Direct Work versus Contract Work," "Advertising, Opening Bids, and Awarding Contracts," "The Supervision of Public Work,"

"Guaranteeing Public Work," "Special Assessments," "Municipal Accounts and Uniform Accounting," "Municipal Ownership," and "Quasi-Public Corporations and Their Control." The author has brought together a great deal of suggestive and useful material on these various topics, and his book cannot fail to interest the average citizen as well as the municipal official.



MR. J. A. RIIS.



MR. ALFRED HODDER.



MR. CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON.

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Caricature, History of the nineteenth century in—V., From Appomattox through the French Commune, F. T. Cooper and A. B. Maurice, Bkman.
Draper, Herbert, Painted ceiling by, IntS.
Dutch art in London, BP, June.
Extra-illustrating; is it played out? J. M. Bulloch, Lamp.
Fleischer, Professor Fritz, Dr. Abel, MA.
Fleury, Albert, painter, F. E. Towne, BP, June.
French, Daniel Chester, sculptor, C. H. Caffin, IntS.
Gould, F. Carruthers, W. T. Stead, RRL.
Goya, Francisco, C. G. Hartley, AJ.
Handicrafts, The, A. S. Galbraith, Mac.
Jacques-Marie, Some pictures by, AJ.
Kean, Charles, and theatrical scenery, H. M. Cundall, AJ.
Landscape painting, Blight on, A. J. Finberg, NatR.
Leather, Art of tooling, Katherine Girling, Crafts.
Leather, Gilded or "Cordovan," Mary W. Dennett, Crafts.
Legros, Alphonse, L. Bénédite, IntS.
Magill, Elizabeth, A. F. White, YW.
National art gallery, Plea for a, T. Moran, BP, June.
New Gallery exhibition, MA.
Paris salons, 1903: applied art, B. Karageorgevitch, MA.
Photography, Artistic, of to-day—II., A. H. Hinton, MA.
Plant in decoration, Irene Sargent, Crafts.
Polish art, Temperament in, L. E. Van Norman, BP, June.
Potters, Some, and their products, Irene Sargent, Crafts.
Pottery: Building in clay, C. F. Binns, Crafts.
Royal Academy exhibition, A. L. Baldry, IntS; MA.
Salons of 1903, R. Rolland, RPar, June 1.
Sculptors, Some notable British, A. Mee, YM.
Sculpture, British, in 1903, MA.
Sherman statue, Out.
Shrady, Henry Merwin, the new American sculptor, C. H. Garrett, Mun.
Arvers, Félix, The sonnet of, W. Littlefield, Lamp.
Asiatic problem and its relation to the United States, W. C. J. Reid, PSQ, June.
Atlantic liner, Under an, E. S. Valentine, Str.
Australia and naval defense, A. P. Matheson, USM.
Australia: Revolt of the railway employees in Victoria, RRM, May.
Austro-Hungary and Italian nationality, NA, June 1.
Automobile and the railway as transport agents, S. Stewart, Eng.
Automobile? Can I afford an, A. N. Jarvis, Ev.
Babcock, Stephen Moulton, H. F. John, WW.
"Babel and Bible," Kaiser William on, OC.
Babel and Bible: reply to critics of the first and second lectures, F. Delitzsch, OC.
Babel and Bible, Second lecture on, F. Delitzsch, OC.
Bacon-Shakespeare wrangle, Typographical aspect of the, BL.
Baedeker and the modern guide-book, C. Harris, Bkman.
Bank, London City and Midland, BankL.
Baseball nine, The making of a, E. B. Bloss, O.
Baskets, Material for coiled, Mary E. Francis, CLA.
Bebel, August, leader of the strongest party in Germany, Edith Sellers, Fort.
Beethoven, Ludwig van, Georgina P. Curtis, Cath.
Belgium, Socialism in—II., R. Bornand, BU.
Bellef, Search for unity of, F. Hammond, IJE.
Betting and gambling, W. R. Sorley, IJE.
Bible, Authorship of books of the, W. M. McPheeters, PTR.
Bible problem, G. H. Schodde, Hom.
Bible story of the fall, C. M. Coburn, MethR.
Biography, Ethics of, E. Gosse, Cos.
Biology, The contrary and contradictory in, E. G. Spaulding, Mon.
Birches, The story of the, Helen W. Davenport, NewE.
Birds, A bunch of Texas and Arizona, B. Torrey, Atlan.
Björnson, Björnsterne, at Aulestad, G. Brochner, PMM.
Bodies, The two, G. D. Boardman, BibS.
"Book of Friends," An old, Edith Rickert, Lamp.
Books, Privately illustrated, D. M. Tredwell, BL.
Boston's "Old Corner Book Store," BL.
Bradley, Dean, S. H. Butcher, Fort.
Brazil, Results of reciprocity with, L. Hutchinson, PSQ.
Brown, John; a pilgrimage to his Adirondack farm, May E. Nichols, NatM.
Bulwer, Dramatizations of, P. Wiltach, Bkman.
Bulwer-Lytton, Centenary of, L. Melville, Bkman.
Burns, Robert, W. A. Webb, Meth.
Burroughs, John, E. B. Clark, BL.
Cagliostro—a study in Charlatanism, H. R. Evans, Mon.
Calderon and Shakespeare's plays, H. Reade, West.
California Landmarks Club, C. F. Lummis, OutW.
Cambon, Paul, F. Lees, PMM.
Campbell, Rev. Reginald J., Out.
Canada:
American invasion, J. H. Todd, NatM.
Canada in the sixties, Long.
Dominion Exhibition at Toronto, J. Johnson, Can.
Rivermen, Canadian, A. Heming, Scrib.
Thirty-six years of Dominion, N. Patterson, Can.
Capital and labor harmony, A. Carnegie, CasM.
Carlyle, Thomas, and James Anthony Froude, J. Crichton-Browne, Contem.
Carlyle, Thomas; secret of his life, W. H. Mallock, Fort.
Catholic church, Tendencies in the, G. H. Schodde, Luth.
Catholic—the name and the thing, C. A. Briggs, AJT.
Catholic University, Some of the advantages of the, J. F. Mullany, ACQR.
Cavalry methods in the Army of Northern Virginia, from the European point of view, JMSI.
Cedars of Lebanon, L. G. Leary, Scrib.
Chalcedony Park, Arizona, R. I. Geare, NewE.
Charities, Fresh air: St. John's Guild, D. G. Maynard; Vacation Home at Canaan Four Corners, N. Y., Lillian C. B. McAllister; Tribune Fresh Air Fund, Frances G. Ford, SocS.
Chautauqua Circle work, Twenty-five years of, Kate F. Kimball, Chaut.
Chautauqua life-stories, A. S. Hoffman, Chaut.
Chautauqua reminiscences, J. H. Vincent, Chaut.
Chicago, Italy in, Kate G. Prindiville, Cath.

- China: France and the allies (1900-1901), H. Frey, RDM, July 1.
- Christ, a creation, or the creator of Christianity, A. A. Shaw, BibS.
- Christ, Legal aspects of the trial of, H. M. Cheever, BibS.
- Christ, The, of Mark's Gospel, J. Humpstone, MethR.
- Christian science, L. J. Mutschman, Luth.
- Church, Business organization of, A. D. G. Phillips, Harp.
- Church discipline, G. C. Henry, Luth.
- Church, The old, and the new, T. K. Payton, NC.
- Church, What laymen can do for the, J. Reed, NC.
- City gardens, G. F. Pentecost, Jr., Arch.
- Civilization, The tide of, A. P. Trotter, MonR.
- Claims against a nation, Forcible collection of unadjudged, H. Davis, Gunt.
- Clam fisheries of the Mississippi, Antoinette Van Hoesen, Pear.
- Coffee and coffee-houses, Emily Hill, Gent.
- Collie, The Scotch, M. M. Palmer, CLA.
- Colliers for the British navy, E. H. T. d'Eyncourt, CasM.
- Color in the Divine Word—III., E. Madeley, NC.
- Colorado, Grand Canyon of the, R. Pocock, Pear.
- Comic, A theory of the, W. N. Guthrie, Int.
- Commerce, America's share of the world's, Gunt.
- Congo, Debate concerning the, in England, L. Béthune, RGen.
- Congo, Leopold, Emperor of the, W. T. Stead, AMRR.
- Congo misgovernment, Personal observations of, W. M. Morrison, AMRR.
- Congo, Belgian inhumanity in the, H. G. Guinness, MisR.
- Constantinople to Salonika, H. Spont, Nou, June 15.
- Constitutional initiative, The, L. F. C. Garvin, NAR.
- Coöperation in Europe, F. Parsons, Arena.
- Corporation problem, F. Rackemann, NewE.
- Cotton industry in Scotland, Beginnings of the, Cham.
- Crabbe, George, J. Lawson, Gent.
- Cricket: Eton, Harrow, and Winchester, H. Gordon, Bad.
- Crockett, Davy, E. Hough, O.
- Crop statics, Adjustment of—II., H. P. Willis, JPEcon.
- Cuban self-government, First year of, M. E. Hanna, Atlan.
- Daniel, Modern critical view of the Book of, C. M. Cobern, Hom.
- Daniel, Modern critical views of, R. Anderson, Hom.
- Dante in drama, C. del Balzo, NA, June 1.
- Dante portraits, Discovery of the new, K. Blind, West.
- Dardanelles, A week at the, G. B. Burgin, Cass.
- "Darrel," A defense of, R. Burton, Bkman.
- Decalogue, The, L. B. Paton, Bib.
- Derby, With the ruck to the, Black.
- Deuteronomy, Laws peculiar to, G. C. Cameron, PTR.
- Dolling, Father, S. Gwynn, Corn.
- Dramatic season, Recent, H. Tyrrell, Forum.
- Drew, John, and his daughter, G. Kobbe, LHJ.
- Drug habit, H. P. Hynson, San.
- Drummond, Dr. William Henry, T. O'Hagan, Cath.
- Du Chailu, Paul, NatGM.
- Duelling: its early history, L. Willaert, ACQR.
- Duke, James Buchanan, A. H. Lewis, Ev.
- Dumas, Alexandre, père, Ancestors of, G. Dubosc, Revue, July 1.
- Dumas, Alexandre, père, Last days of, G. Ferry, Revue, July 1.
- Dumas, Alexandre, the elder, F. Grierson, Crit.
- Education:
- Business, Preparing college students for, E. D. Jones, WW.
- Coeducation of the sexes, J. Jusseu, Revue, June 15.
- College curriculum; how shall it be reconstructed? G. T. Ladd, Forum.
- College, Use and value of the small, F. C. Woodward, Meth.
- Commercial education, higher, Ann Arbor conference on the, I. A. Loos, JPEcon, June.
- Culture, A national type of, B. I. Wheeler, Atlan.
- Economics at Cambridge University, Study of, BankL.
- Educational outlook, O. H. Lang, Forum.
- Industrial schools, Results of, H. Dagan, Nou, June 15.
- Municipal school administration, W. H. Burnham, Atlan.
- National Educational Association, P. F. Hall, NewE.
- National Educational Association, Boston's welcome to the, A. E. Winship, NatM.
- Primacy of the person in education, H. C. King, BibS.
- Scholar, The voice of the, D. S. Jordan, Atlan.
- Society of educational research, J. M. Rice, Forum.
- Egyptian mysteries and modern freemasonry, H. R. Evans, OC.
- Electric shocks, A. Wilson, CasM.
- Electric motor, small, Use of the—IV., F. M. Kimball, Eng.
- Elephant and camel lore, Barbara C. Finch, Gent.
- Elevators and modern granaries, D. McEvoy, Can.
- Emerson, Ralph Waldo, Early English criticism of, T. C. Evans, Lamp.
- Emerson, Ralph Waldo, Apotheosis of, D. S. Gregory, Hom.
- Emerson, Ralph Waldo; his views of society and reform, W. M. Salter, IJE.
- Emerson, Ralph Waldo, the philosopher of democracy, J. Dewey, IJE.
- Energy, Conservation of, and voluntary activity, M. M. O'Kane, ACQR.
- Energy, Philosophical meaning of, W. Ostwald, Int.
- England: see Great Britain.
- English, American, Pitfalls of, H. W. Horwill, LeisH.
- Environment as related to growth, E. A. See, Mind.
- Erie Canal—its past and future, M. M. Wilner, AMRR.
- Ethical inquiry, Limitations of, N. Wilde, IJE.
- "Evangeline," Genesis of, A. J. Lockhart, MethR.
- Eve, The curse of, Margaret Bisland, NAR.
- Evolution and theology to-day, W. H. Johnson, BL.
- Evolution, cytology and Mendel's laws, O. F. Cook, PopS.
- Faber, Frederick William, The vision of, J. Parsons, MethR.
- Factories, Commercial management of, I. Andrews, Eng.
- Fakirs and Yogis, J. Bois, Revue, July 1.
- Farmers' trust, A. H. A. Wood, WW.
- Fencing the sport of President Roosevelt, F. G. Blakeslee, Pear.
- Fiction, Red blood in, C. Williams, WW.
- Fiction, The clergyman in, G. C. Lea, BL.
- Fiesole, Italy, Marjory G. J. Kinloch, Gent.
- Financial affairs, A. D. Noyes, Forum.
- Financial conditions as the summer finds us, WW.
- Finland, Reign of terror in, J. Jackol, Arena.
- Fires, factory, Preventing, G. Iles, WW.
- Fisher's Island, H. R. Palmer, NewE.
- Fishes, Psychic life of, E. C. Sanford, Int.
- Flame; why it emits light, R. M. Bird, PopS.
- Floods, Recent, in the middle West, C. M. Harger, AMRR.
- Flowers, Preservation of wild, Frances Zirngiebel, PopS.
- Flume, Flying down a fifty-mile, B. Millard, Ev.
- Foods and fluids, Fallings and fallacies in, N. E. Yorke-Davies, Gent.
- Foreign affairs, A. M. Low, Forum.
- Forest fires in the United States, H. M. Suter, AMRR.
- Forest reserves, Our national, S. R. Wright, Mun.
- Forestry, British, G. Cadell, Gent.
- France:
- Army, French, during peace, Revue, June 1.
- Brittany, Distress in, Count A. de Croze, Revue, June 15.
- Commune of 1871—II., A. Bertrand, BU.
- Concordat of 1801, R. P. Elliott, ACQR.
- Concordat, Origins of the, G. Goyau, RDM, June 15.
- Democracy, Radical—II., W. M. Sloane, PSQ, June.
- England, Colonial controversies with, E. Etienne, NatR.
- England, Social and literary relations with, Violet S. Wortley, NatR.
- France in 1852, E. Faguet, Revue, June 15.
- Locomotion in France, P. Baudin, Nou, June 1.
- Population question, A. M. Weiss, Revue, June 1.
- Social solidarity and the bill against the religious congregations, H. Valleroux, RefS, June 1.
- Societies of mutual aid, L. de Contenson, RDM, July 1.
- Southern French character, A. R. Whiteway, Gent.
- Working classes and of industry, History of, J. Schoenhof, JPEcon, June.
- France, Anatole, and Edouard Rod, Revue, June 1.
- French orthography, Simplification of, A. Renard, Revue, July 1.
- Friesland meres, On, G. N. Banks, Bad.
- Fuel, Liquid, for power purposes, A. L. Williston, Eng.
- Gardens of the rich, H. Sutherland, Mun.
- Gaul, Decadence of learning in, A. H. Wilde, AJT.
- Gault, Andrew F., Can.
- Gautier, Théophile, F. C. de Sumichrast, Crit.
- Geneva, Lake of; literary geography, W. Sharp, PMM.
- Geography, The first American, C. Johnson, NewE.
- Geological time, Revision of, G. F. Wright, BibS.
- Geometry, Foundations of—concluded, P. Carus, Mon.
- Germany:
- Battle between democracy and reaction, B. O. Flower, Arena.
- Bebel, August, Socialist leader, Edith Sellers, Fort.
- Dances of North Schleswig, Germany and the, W. Hartmann, NineC.
- Elections, On the eve of the, A. Berliner, RPar, June 15.
- Lassalle and Berlin, 1856-1859, P. Bailieu, DeutR.
- Gettysburg, J. B. Gordon, Scrib.
- Ghost stories, Some authenticated, Amy C. Rich, Arena.
- Gibraltar and Malta, R. Pinon, RDM, June 15.
- God and the world, Christian view of, T. F. Dornblaser, Luth.
- God, The friends of, D. M. Tompkins, MethR.
- Gods, heroes, dwarfs, and giants—I., A. Roeder, Mind.
- Golf boom, L. Latchford, YM.
- Goncourt Academy, J. H. Rosny, Fort.
- Goncourt, Edmond and Jules de, L. Marillier, Int.
- Goschen, Georg Joachim, Jeannette L. Gilder, Crit.
- Government, Corruption of, by the corporations, B. O. Flower, Arena.
- Great Britain:
- Ambassadors of two reigns, T. H. S. Escott, LeisH.
- Anglo-French amity, Some promoters of, F. Lees, Fort.
- Army, Annals of the, H. Maxwell, Corn.
- Army, Canteens in the, F. I. Maxse, NatR.
- "Army commissions," C. W. Robinson, Contem.

- Army of a manufacturing people, USM.
 Army officer, The long-suffering, USM.
 Chamberlain, Joseph, Fiscal policy of, Lord Welby, Contem.
 Chamberlain, Joseph, his progress in the light of French experience, Y. Guyot, Fort.
 Charity, Administration of, Helen Bosanquet, Int.
 Church, The, dissent, and the nation, J. L. Davies, NatR.
 Civil service, Prospects in the, Corn.
 Cobdenism and capital, Fort.
 "Commercial Gentlemen," English, F. J. Pool, WW.
 Colonies and imperial defense, A. H. Loring, Mac.
 Despotism, Benevolent, J. G. Godard, West.
 Education, English, J. E. G. de Montmorency, PopS.
 Factories, Women in the, Alys Russell, Contem.
 Federation or no federation, J. S. Mills, NatR.
 Fiscal policy, British, C. A. Cripps, NatR.
 France, Colonial controversies with, E. Etienne, NatR.
 France, Social and literary relations with, Violet S. Wortley, NatR.
 Free trade and preferential tariffs, R. Neville, MonR.
 Free trade or protection? B. Crozier, Fort.
 Home rule and the King's visit to Ireland, D. S. A. Cosby, West.
 Husbands and wives under the new licensing act of 1902, J. E. Joel, West.
 Imperial policy and free trade, R. Giffen, E. Dicey, and B. Kidd, NineC.
 Land forces of Great Britain, A. W. A. Pollock, Temp.
 Licensing problem, Scheme for solving the, C. H. Tripp, NatR.
 Municipal affairs: The trust or the town, R. Donald, Contem.
 Naval administration, Recent, H. L. Swinburne, MonR.
 Naval reform; the accountant branch, USM.
 Naval volunteers, USM.
 Pollution of English rivers, M. Gaskell, NineC.
 Property in land and poverty, F. Thomasson, West.
 Selborne, Lord, Critics of, J. S. Corbett, MonR.
 South Africa, Fruits of the war in, F. P. Fletcher-Vane, Contem.
 Steamship subsidies, Report of the select committee of the House of Commons on, F. L. McVey, JPEcon, June.
 Tariff scheme of Mr. Chamberlain, Gunt; H. Cox, NAR.
 Unionist party, Crisis in the, NatR.
 Victoria Cross, Decline of the, USM.
 Zollverein, Mr. Chamberlain's knowledge of the, West.
 Greenland, Wrecked on, S. P. Orth, O.
 Griffin, Thomas, C. B. Galloway, Meth.
 Grimm, Professor Herman, Elizabeth von Heyking, Int.
 Growing Old, H. de Varigny, BU.
 Hallam, Arthur, Some letters from, Col. Brookfield, Fort.
 Hammurabi; who was he? W. H. Ward, Cent.
 Hampstead, England, F. M. Holmes, Cass.
 Hawaiian Islands, Christianity and the, D. L. Leonard, MisR.
 Hayti, Truth about, J. N. Léger, NAR.
 Health, The public, H. Monod, RPar, June 1 and 15.
 Hebrews and Babylonians, Literatures of the, E. König, Hom.
 Hervieu, Paul, Dramas of, E. Rod, Int.
 Hever Castle and Anne Boleyn, O. Tristram, PMM.
 Hewitt, Very Rev. Augustine F., H. E. O'Keefe, ACQR.
 Highland tourist a hundred years ago, Cham.
 Hofer, Andreas, A night in the room of, J. Heard, Scrib.
 Horse breeders and breeding, Bad.
 Household, Dividing the expenses of a, Martha Martin, Cos.
 Human form, The, W. Smith, NC.
 Human personality, Survival of, A. F. Chamberlain, Harp.
 Hungary, Constitutional government in, L. G. Robinson, NineC.
 Hurd, Bishop, J. M. Attenborough, Temp.
 Idealism, Personal, G. H. Howison, IJE.
 Immigration, This year's high tide of, S. E. Moffett, AMRR.
 Immortality and divine revelation, W. H. Mayhew, NC.
 India, Burning of widows in, Marie von Bunsen, DeutR.
 India, Industrial regeneration of, J. Wallace, CasM.
 Indians, Quaker, Bullying the—II, C. F. Lummis, OutW.
 Indians: The exiles of Cupa, G. Wallace, OutW.
 Induction, Theory of, F. Thilly, Phil.
 Industrial conference of the National Civic Federation, J. Cummings, JPEcon, June.
 Industrial efficiency—III, J. B. C. Kershaw, Eng.
 Injunctions, Abuses of, E. H. Crosby, Arena.
 Ireland, T. O'Donnell, Revue, June 15.
 Ireland, Land purchase in, G. McDermot, ACQR.
 Ireland; why is she disloyal? J. H. Kirkland, Meth.
 Ireland's vocation, Mr. George Moore and, R. Y. Tyrrell, Mac.
 Italian literature, Plimpton collection of, T. W. Koch, BL.
 Italy, Power of the crown and parliamentary government in, A. Marazio, RasN, June 1.
 Italy, Stabbing in, W. Wade, RasN, June 1.
 Japan, Russia and, Gunt.
 Jerusalem of David and Solomon, G. A. Barton, Bib.
 Jesus, The sisters of, E. R. Hendrix, Meth.
 Jew, The, in history, H. S. Q. Henriques, West.
 Jewish world, Glimpse into the, R. Gotthell, WW.
 Jews, Treatment of the, in the middle ages, D. S. Schaef, BibS.
 Job, The book of, and the revelations of the Messiah, J. C. Morris, Meth.
 Johnson, Dr. Samuel, and John Wesley, E. Mims, MethR.
 Jones, Inigo, Masques of, E. Rhye, NineC.
 Jones, Sir Alfred Lewis, J. W. Mitchell, NatM.
 Journalism and the university, A. H. U. Colquhoun, Can.
 Kaiser Wilhelm II., G. H. Schwab, CasM.
 King's Mountain, the decisive battle of the Revolution, AmonM, June.
 Kohlraat, Herman Henry, E. Flower, Cos.
 Labor organization, A. Millerand, RSoc, June.
 Labrador, Among the Vikings of, W. T. Grenfell, MisR.
 Lake Titicaca, E. C. Rost, Harp.
 Lamb, Charles, Sidelines on, P. F. Bicknell, Dial, July 1.
 Lansing skeleton, More about the, Luella A. Owen, BibS.
 "Last Days of Pompeii," Contemporary critics of, A. B. Maurice, Bkman.
 Law, Customary—I, M. Smith, PSQ, June.
 Lebanon, Cedars of, L. G. Leary, Scrib.
 Legislatures, American; are they declining? J. B. Bishop, Int.
 Leiter, Levi Zeigler, S. E. Moffett, Cos.
 Librarian, Day's work of a, Adele M. Shaw, WW.
 Lick Observatory, Life at, Ethel F. Hussey, Atlan.
 Lincoln, Abraham, Side-lights on, J. M. Scovel, NatM.
 "Literature, Comparative;" what is it? C. M. Gayley, Atlan.
 Literature Illustrated, Dial, July 1.
 London, Aldwych in, L. Gomme, Mac.
 London fire brigade, H. Spender, PMM.
 London, Literary, W. P. Ryan, Mun.
 Love; what it is, Lavinia Hart, Cos.
 Luke addressing John the apostle, A. N. Jannaris, MonR.
 Luke and Buddhism, G. Shann, NineC.
 Lytton, Lord, a second-rate novelist, Dial, June 16.
 Lytton, Lord, Novels of, F. Gribble, Crit.
 Macedonia, V. Berard, RPar, June 15.
 McCoish, James, A. T. Ormond, PTR.
 Maeterlinck, Maurice, as a dramatist, G. Blechman, Nou, June 1.
 Maeterlinck, Maurice; his "Joyzelle," M. Gerothwohl, Fort.
 Mangan, James Clarence, R. F. O'Connor, ACQR.
 Manitoba, the prairie province, R. Wilson, Cham.
 Mankind in the making—IX., The organization of the higher education, H. G. Wells, Cos.
 Manufactures of the United States in the markets of the world, O. P. Austin, NAR.
 Manufactures, Twelfth census of, W. G. S. Adams, JPEcon.
 Manuscript, The "reader" and the, R. A. Bowen, Gunt.
 Marine auxiliary machinery, J. E. Cooper, CasM.
 Mary, The passing of, ACQR.
 Medical progress, Social conditions relative to, J. M. Anders, San.
 Medicine, State, W. H. Welch, San.
 Menelek, King of Abyssinia, W. T. Stead, Cos.
 Metaphysics, Ethical basis of, F. C. S. Schiller, IJE.
 Metaphysics, Problem of, F. J. E. Woodbridge, Phil.
 Meyer, Conrad Ferdinand, Betsy Meyer, DeutR, June.
 Milton and Dante, Harriet B. Bradbury, Mind.
 Ministerial education, C. P. Wiles, Luth.
 Ministry, Cardinal points of the, G. U. Wenner, Luth.
 Ministry, from a layman's point of view, A. Mason, NC.
 Ministry in the New Church, B. N. Stone, NC.
 Missions:
 Africa, Darkest, twenty years ago and now, R. J. Dye, MisR.
 Africa, Missionary experiences in, DeW. C. Snyder, MisR.
 Alaska, What missionaries have done for, S. Jackson, MisR.
 Blodget, Rev. Henry, D.D., MisH.
 Coan, Titus, Story of, A. T. Pierson, MisR.
 Foreign missions and the home ministry, R. J. Campbell, MisR.
 Haskell, Mrs. E. B., of Salonika, MisH.
 Hawaiian Islands, Christianity and the, D. L. Leonard, MisR.
 Japan, Twenty years ago and now in, J. T. Gulick, MisR.
 Labrador, Among the Vikings of, Wilfred T. Grenfell, Misk.
 Levant, Missionary policy in the, J. F. Riggs, PTR.
 Macedonia, Situation in, J. H. House, Misk.
 Memorial arch at Oberlin, Dedication of the, MisH.
 Personal efficiency, C. C. Thayer, MisR.
 Thoughts, Great, from master missionaries, Belle M. Brain, MisR.
 Turkey, Influence of an American college in, T. H. Norton, Misk.
 Money, Ideal; is it attainable? C. A. Conant, JPEcon, June.
 Money, The lust of, B. Winchester, Arena.
 Monotheism, F. Delitzsch, OC.
 Motor race in Ireland, E. C. Muir, Cass.
 Motor, The, and the highway, W. B. Woodgate, NineC.
 Motor cycle; what it offers, H. Norman, WW.

- Mountains, How to climb, H. Spender, O.
 Music, Expression of emotions in, A. Gehrung, Phil.
 Musical celebrities, Modern—IV., H. Klein, Cent.
 Napoleon, M. Pères's proof of the non-existence of, OC.
 National Economic League, R. E. Blisbee, Arena.
 Nature: July out-of-doors, Ev.
 Navy, The new American—X., J. D. Long, Out.
 Negroes, Treatment of the, A. M. Olmedilla, EM, June.
 Neter, the Egyptian word for God, E. A. W. Budge, Mon.
 New Englanders in New York, E. P. Powell, NewE.
 New York City:
 Artist Life in New York, W. H. Shelton, Crit.
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[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

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|---|--|---|
| ACQR. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila. | Eng. Engineering Magazine, N. Y. | NewE. New England Magazine, Boston. |
| AHR. American Historical Review, N. Y. | Era. Era, Philadelphia. | NineC. Nineteenth Century, London. |
| AJS. American Journal of Sociology, Chicago. | EM. España Moderna, Madrid. | NAR. North American Review, N. Y. |
| AJT. American Journal of Theology, Chicago. | Ev. Everybody's Magazine, N. Y. | Nou. Nouvelle Revue, Paris. |
| ALR. American Law Review, St. Louis. | Fort. Fortnightly Review, London. | NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome. |
| AMonM. American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C. | Forum. Forum, N. Y. | OC. Open Court, Chicago. |
| AMRR. American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y. | FrL. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y. | O. Outing, N. Y. |
| ANat. American Naturalist, Boston. | Gent. Gentleman's Magazine, London. | Out. Outlook, N. Y. |
| AQ. American Quarterly, Boston. | GBag. Green Bag, Boston. | OutW. Out West, Los Angeles, Cal. |
| Annals. Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila. | Gunt. Gunton's Magazine, N. Y. | Over. Overland Monthly, San Francisco. |
| Arch. Architectural Record, N. Y. | Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y. | PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London. |
| Arena. Arena, N. Y. | Hart. Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn. | Pear. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y. |
| AJ. Art Journal, London. | Hom. Homiletic Review, N. Y. | Phil. Philosophical Review, N. Y. |
| Atlan. Atlantic Monthly, Boston. | IJE. International Journal of Ethics, Phila. | PhotoT. Photographic Times-Bulletin, N. Y. |
| Bad. Badminton, London. | Int. International Quarterly, Burlington, Vt. | PSQ. Political Science Quarterly, Boston. |
| BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London. | IntS. International Studio, N. Y. | PopA. Popular Astronomy, Northfield, Minn. |
| BankNY. Bankers' Magazine, N. Y. | JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H. | PopS. Popular Science Monthly, N. Y. |
| Bib. Biblical World, Chicago. | JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago. | PTR. Princeton Theological Review, Phila. |
| BibS. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O. | Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago. | QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston. |
| BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne. | KindR. Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass. | QR. Quarterly Review, London. |
| Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh. | LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila. | RasN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence. |
| BL. Book-Lover, N. Y. | Lamp. Lamp, N. Y. | Refs. Réforme Sociale, Paris. |
| Bkman. Bookman, N. Y. | LelsH. Leisure Hour, London. | RRL. Review of Reviews, London. |
| BP. Brush and Pencil, Chicago. | Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila. | RRM. Review of Reviews, Melbourne. |
| CDR. Camera and Dark Room, N. Y. | LQ. London Quarterly Review, London. | Revue. Revue, Paris. |
| Can. Canadian Magazine, Toronto. | Long. Longman's Magazine, London. | RDM. Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris. |
| Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London. | Luth. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa. | RGen. Revue Générale, Brussels. |
| CasM. Cassier's Magazine, N. Y. | McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y. | RPar. Revue de Paris, Paris. |
| Cath. Catholic World, N. Y. | Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, London. | RPP. Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris. |
| Cent. Century Magazine, N. Y. | MA. Magazine of Art, London. | RSoc. Revue Socialiste, Paris. |
| Cham. Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh. | Meth. Methodist Quarterly Review, Nashville. | Ros. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio. |
| Chaut. Chautauquan, Springfield, O. | MethR. Methodist Review, N. Y. | San. Sanitarian, N. Y. |
| Contem. Contemporary Review, London. | Mind. Mind, N. Y. | School. School Review, Chicago. |
| Corn. Cornhill, London. | MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston. | Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y. |
| Coa. Cosmopolitan, N. Y. | MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y. | SR. Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn. |
| CLA. Country Life in America, N. Y. | Mon. Monist, Chicago. | SocS. Social Service, N. Y. |
| Crafts. Craftsman, Syracuse, N. Y. | MonR. Monthly Review, London. | Str. Strand Magazine, London. |
| Crit. Critic, N. Y. | MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y. | Temp. Temple Bar, London. |
| Deut. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart. | Mun. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y. | USM. United Service Magazine, London. |
| DeutR. Deutsche Rundschau, Berlin. | NatGM. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C. | West. Westminster Review, London. |
| Dial. Dial, Chicago. | NatM. National Magazine, Boston. | WPM. Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y. |
| Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin. | NatR. National Review, London. | WW. World's Work, N. Y. |
| Edin. Edinburgh Review, London. | NC. New-Church Review, Boston. | Yale. Yale Review, New Haven. |
| Ed. Education, Boston. | | YM. Young Man, London. |
| EdR. Educational Review, N. Y. | | YW. Young Woman, London. |

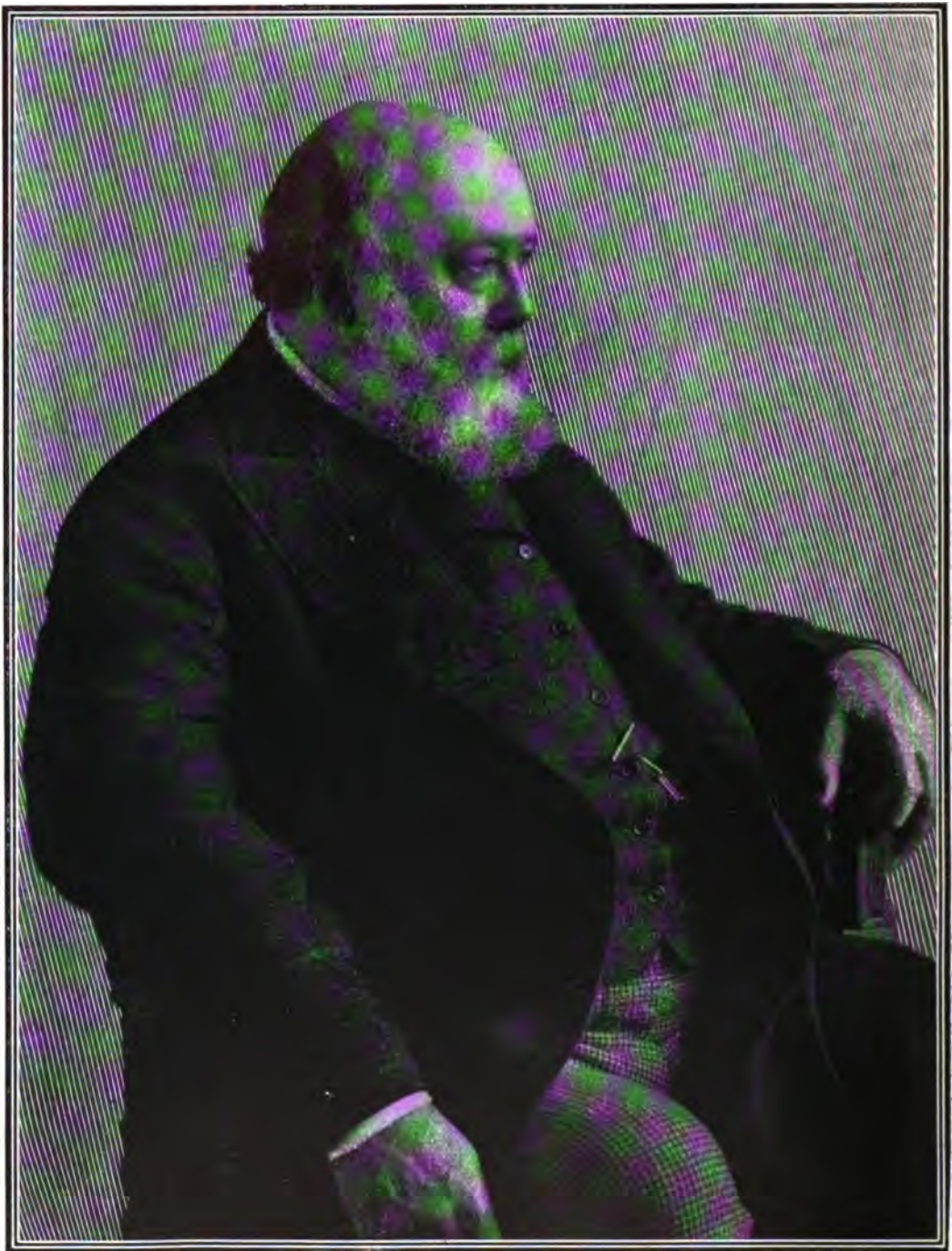
THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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No. 3.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Ireland's Great
Land Bill
Adopted.*

The British Parliament was prorogued on August 14, November 2 being agreed upon as the date for re-assembling. The session will have been memorable in history for its adoption of the Irish land-purchase bill, which will become operative on the first day of November. The detailed character of this great measure will be better understood when set forth in its concrete working; and we shall have occasion to revert to the subject in a more elaborate explanation when the act has been somewhat tested by experience. Its general features have more than once been set forth in the pages of this Review. From the standpoint of the people of Ireland, it is a measure for transferring the ownership of farms from landlords to tenants by means of a great loan of government money. From the point of view of British finance, it is a scheme for the creation

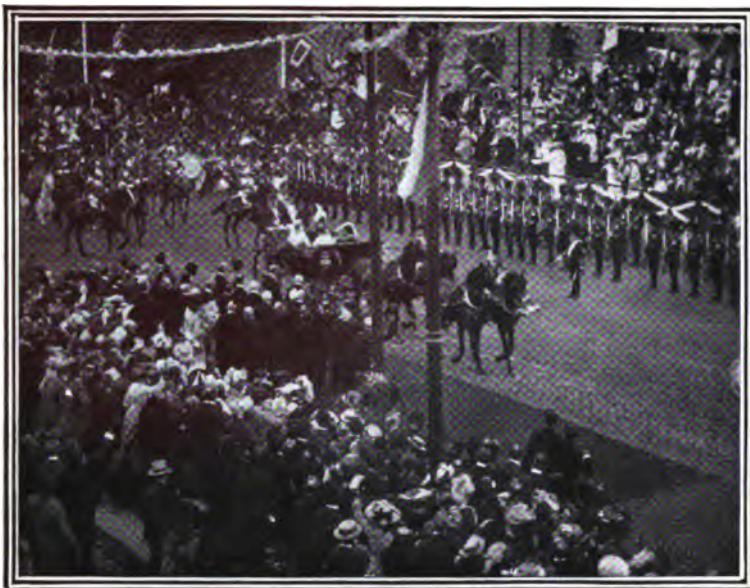
of a new interest-bearing debt of a maximum amount of \$500,000,000, with the proceeds of which the Irish landlords are to be bought out, and which is to be taken care of by the purchasing farmers, who will repay the loan to the government in installments through a long period of years. The plan further provides for a free gift,—eventually aggregating some \$60,000,000,—in the form of bonuses to the landlords to induce them to sell. This measure will take its place in history as one of profound political importance, as well as of great economic significance and interest. It will not wholly settle agrarian problems for distressed Ireland, but it will cover a great part of the situation, and it will make far easier what may be found to remain of the task.

*Advantages
to the Three
Parties Con-
cerned.*

The gift that the British Government itself makes toward this solution will prove to have been a good investment, and it will be so distributed as not to be felt as it enters into the budget from year to year. Furthermore, this gift is to be offset by a progressive reduction in the amounts spent by England for the administration and policing of Ireland. The scale upon which the landlords are to be remunerated is regarded in Ireland as unduly liberal; but, since the British Government carries the debt for the purchasing tenant at an extremely low rate of interest, the immediate result is that the annual payment (covering interest and installments on the principal) will be decidedly less than the present payment of rent to the landlord. As for the landlord himself, the proposals are upon the whole advantageous to him, for the reason that if he did not sell under present proposals he would in a few years have to face the third periodical readjustment of rents by judicial process under the earlier land acts, with the certain result of a marked reduction in his income.



FASCINATING EDWARD.—From the *World* (New York).



THE KING AND QUEEN ARRIVING IN DUBLIN.

A Revival of Irish Life. Along with this new land-purchase act appear many indications of a revival of Irish life. Some months ago, we published an elaborate statement by Mr. Horace Plunkett (whom we must now call Sir Horace, since he was deservedly knighted by King Edward a few weeks ago, on the occasion of the King's visit to Ireland) of the remarkable work of the Irish agricultural societies in Ireland, of which Mr. Plunkett has been the chief promoter. The land-purchase act will give the Irish farmer a wholly new sense of security and permanence; and this excellent coöperative movement will take on large proportions in the near future. We are destined to see a transformation in Irish farming comparable with that which has taken place in Denmark, for example. There are signs of promise in the direction of enlarged railroad facilities for the Irish people, and of the development of new industries. With the gradual disappearance of the land question, the principal obstacle in the way of some form of Irish home rule will be removed, and we shall probably within a few years see that subject taken up on its merits, and with comparatively little of the old-time prejudice, by the leaders of all parties in England. With Ireland prosperous and contented, its own desire, indeed, for a separate parliament at Dublin may considerably wane. The leading public men of Ireland may, on the contrary, with their genius for politics, eventually prefer to keep their seats in the great parliament at Westminster. This, however, would not be incompatible with the existence at

Dublin of a subordinate law-making body analogous in some respects to a State legislature or a colonial parliament.

The chief question under discussion in England continues to be Mr. Chamberlain's demand for a revision of the commercial policy and fiscal system of the British Empire. Since, however, Mr. Chamberlain's proposals have thus far been exceedingly vague, the discussion will not assume a fixed and definite basis for another month. Early in October, Mr. Chamberlain is slated for certain important speeches, in which it is promised that he will outline his views with some clearness and definiteness. There are many people of po-

litical experience and knowledge in England who believe that dissensions inside the Balfour cabinet, growing out of Mr. Chamberlain's so-called disruptive proposals, cannot be kept in the background many weeks longer, and that there must certainly be a break-up of Parliament and a general election before winter. But



THE EARL OF DUDLEY.

(Who as Lord-Lieutenant entertained the King in Dublin.)

the more trustworthy advices are to the effect that the leading members of the ministry have agreed — perhaps at the King's request — to tide over until next spring. In any case, the British public has been fairly launched upon an excited discussion of the tariff question, which will not abate until the people have had a chance to vote upon it in the election of a new Parliament. On this point, all are agreed.

What Mr. Chamberlain Wants. Meanwhile, Mr. Chamberlain last month made the following brief negative statement of his position :

I have never suggested any tax whatever on raw materials such as wool or cotton, and I believe that such a tax would be entirely unnecessary for the purposes I have in view,—namely, for mutual preference with the colonies and for enabling us to bargain for better terms with our foreign competitors.

As regards food, there is nothing in the policy of tariff reform which I have put before the country which need increase in the slightest degree the cost of living of any family in the country.

This does not sound so bold as his earlier utterances. Unless he proceeds to present some positive and exact policy, he will be put in the position of a man who has disrupted his party and sacrificed his own career for nothing worth mentioning. This, however, is not like Mr. Chamberlain, and we shall doubtless find later on that he has some substantial proposals to make for the protection of British industry and the encouragement of the colonies. The world at large will watch the forming of the battle lines on this great question with deep interest.

Is England to Reverse Her Policy?

Heretofore, it has been clearly to England's advantage to deal with the world at large on the freest possible terms. It is an open question whether henceforth it may be more profitable to unite in a trade policy with Canada, Australia, and other British possessions. Conditions in England heretofore have been exactly the reverse of those in the United States ; so that the logic of a man believing in the duty and advantage of national development would have made the American protectionist a free trader if he went to live in England, while it has almost invariably made the English free trader a high protectionist when he has come to live in the United States. It is wholly probable that the people of England will decide that it must still for many years to come be to their advantage to import food and raw materials as cheaply as possible, and to sell their manufactured wares in all the markets of the world. The intricacy of the problems involved in an attempt to adopt an imperial tariff policy

that would be agreeable alike to the United Kingdom, the Canadian Dominion, and the Australian Commonwealth would seem to be too much for the intellect of any statesman of this generation. It is almost certain, therefore, that the outcome of the discussion will be the discovery that the only kind of satisfactory agreement possible is the agreement to let each member of the British



THE DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.
(New Under-Secretary for the Colonies.)

family of self-governing peoples make its own tariff regulations in the light of what it regards as its own best interests. And the United Kingdom will, with similar likelihood, decide to remain on its safe, solid, and always defensible basis of universal free trade, modified only by certain low customs taxes for revenue purposes.

Canada's Trade Relations.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier and other Canadian authorities are reported to have said that proposed preferential arrangements along the line of Mr. Chamberlain's imperial programme need not stand in the way of a reciprocity treaty with the United States. While the Canadians are quoted as predominantly favorable to the Chamberlain idea, they do not appear to be greatly enthusiastic over it. They recognize the fact that they could expect no advantage in the English market except a small one for wheat and some other food products. Meanwhile, their commercial relations

with this country are of much greater practical importance. Our trade with Canada is growing faster than ever before, although under her present system she gives England a 33-per-cent. reduction from the tariff rates our goods are obliged to pay. It must be remembered, however, that two-fifths of the goods imported into Canada pay no duty at all, and that the average rate on the dutiable three-fifths is only a little more than 27 per cent. Thus, a hundred dollars' worth of goods, if imported into Canada from the United States, would pay an average duty of twenty-seven dollars, while if imported from England it would pay about eighteen dollars. While this difference constitutes a very desirable favor to the British manufacturer, it is not large enough to discourage his more enterprising American competitors. The result has been, therefore, that, with Canada's growth and prosperity in purchasing power and total volume of trade, the imports from the United States have developed much more rapidly than those from England or other European countries.

Growth of Our Trade with the Dominion. The new statistics showing the trade of the past fiscal year illustrate this development in a striking manner.

Thus, our exports to Canada last year amounted in round figures to \$123,500,000. It has been just six years since Canada began to discriminate against us in favor of England, and in that time our exports to the Dominion have almost doubled, having increased from \$65,000,000 to the present volume. Our imports from Canada in the recent fiscal year amounted to about \$55,000,000. While this is the largest amount we have ever purchased from Canada in a single year, it is not nearly as large as it ought to be; and it is desirable, both for the Canadians and for ourselves, that there should be a readier access to our markets for some of the more important Canadian products. The statement was current last month that Sir Wilfrid Laurier would confer at some time in the present month of September with American members of the Joint High Commission, with a view to arranging for an early session of that almost forgotten body. Our own Northwest is deliberately working for closer trade relations with Canada; and now that the Alaska boundary question has been referred to a specially created tribunal, it is hard to see why anything important should stand in the way of a serious and good-tempered effort to draft a mutually beneficial reciprocity treaty. One may venture to guess that it will be a long time, indeed, before Canada will get any practical results from the proposal to provide protective markets

for her products in Great Britain; but it is among things easily possible that Canada might within a year or two find a great outlet opened to her products by virtue of an arrangement with her nearest neighbor and her natural commercial partner.

Canada's Attitude Toward This Country. The chambers of commerce of the British Empire held their fifth congress last month at Montreal, under the presidency of Lord Brassey and under the special auspices of Lord Strathcona, who is Canada's chief representative in England. It was natural that this body should in a general way applaud the Chamberlain idea of closer relations of trade, as well as of defense, throughout the empire. But the delegates from England were quick to rebuke the petty Canadian jingoism that blustered against the United States. Everybody in the world outside of the Dominion knows well enough that Canada owes nine-tenths of her security, as well as of her prosperity, to the combined strength and neighborliness of the United States. While nothing is so popular in Canada nowadays as to say disagreeable things about this country, such remarks need not be taken very seriously. This Canadian attitude is more like the sectional grumbling of the West against the East, or of the South against the North, in our own country, than like the deeper antipathy of really hostile peoples. If the Canadians have shown themselves somewhat resentful and petulant in their attitude toward the United States, they have had some excuse in the stupidity and shortsightedness with which American public men have as a rule dealt with all questions involving our neighbors on the north,—neighbors who were entitled from every point of view to the most careful consideration and the most liberal treatment.

New Zealand and Australia for Chamberlainism. The Hon. Richard J. Seddon, who has held the office of prime minister of New Zealand now for full ten

years, last month introduced his annual budget bill in the General Assembly with a speech strongly favoring the idea that New Zealand should at once stiffen up her system of duties, on the Canadian plan of a protective tariff which could be enforced against other countries but reduced or abolished in favor of England. In the Commonwealth of Australia, where protectionist sentiment is, upon the whole, dominant, and a tolerably high protective tariff now exists, the protectionist leaders have agreed upon the policy of seeking to increase the duties practically to the prohibitive point, and then to relax them in favor of Great Britain on condition of a



THE MAORI KING ADDRESSING MR. SEDDON AT HIS SWEARING-IN AS A MEMBER OF THE NEW ZEALAND CABINET.

preferential treatment of Australian goods in England. Thus, the British colonies at the Antipodes are disposed to take the Chamberlain programme seriously and to prepare themselves to receive its benefits.

New Zealand Topics. Questions of race and of labor are pending in almost every part of the British Empire. New Zealand, perhaps, is the region of least disturbance on such grounds. In that great island, the long-standing alienation between the native Maoris and

the government has now been removed, and the Maori king has been sworn in as a member of Mr. Seddon's cabinet. In spite of faults found with it elsewhere, the arbitration and conciliation policy of New Zealand seems to operate in a fairly effective way in industrial disputes.

Settling a Railroad Strike in Australia. Since the Australian states, like New Zealand, have gone so far in the direction of government ownership and operation of railroads, telegraphs, and other public services, it is always worth while to note the effect of such a policy upon the political and economic position of organized labor. Trade-unionism has, in fact, been a potent if not a dominant factor much of the time in the legislatures and government of the Australian colonies. But the government employees connected with the railroads and kindred services have not been permitted to affiliate themselves with organized political and labor movements. Some weeks ago, however, in the colony of Victoria, the central labor organization, known as the Trades Hall, at Melbourne, undertook to bring the railway employees into affiliation with it; and the locomotive engineers ventured to respond and join the organization. They were instructed by the prime minister, Mr. Irvine, that this was against the rules of the service. They persisted, however, and threatened to strike and tie up the whole transportation



RICH. JOH. SEDDONI TRIUMPHUS.

Since Mr. Seddon's modest announcement that Mr. Chamberlain was following his lead, there can be no doubt who is Master of the Empire.

From the Otago Witness (New Zealand).



MR. IRVINE, THE VICTORIAN PREMIER.

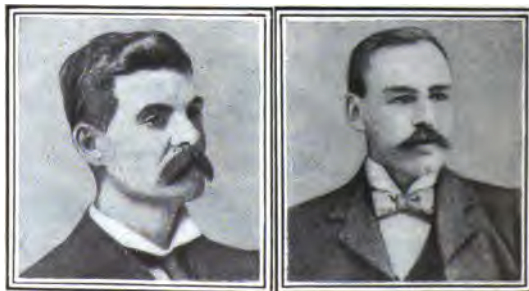
system of the colony. Mr. Irvine's refusal to concede anything led, finally, to the precipitation of the strike, with the result of very serious inconvenience to the public. The premier immediately called the provincial parliament in session and introduced a drastic measure treating the strike as a conspiracy against the state,— participation in it to be punishable by a large fine and a considerable term of imprisonment. Although the Labor party was strongly represented in Parliament, it was not able to oppose successfully the tremendous force of public opinion which came to the support of Mr. Irvine. The upshot was that the strikers surrendered unconditionally and went back to work. The point is now regarded in Australia as settled that trade-unionism cannot invade the public service of a state and dictate to a sovereign government. Organized labor will continue to be a strong force in Australia, but this and various other events of the past year or two have been teaching it that the government cannot be run in the interest of a single class.

*The Color
Question in
Australia.*

Australia, however, has been having a more serious discussion over other phases of the labor problem, notably those having to do with the question of a sufficient supply of common workmen. There is a growing determination that Australia shall be kept as a "white man's country," and that the introduction of colored labor, whether black or yellow, shall be prevented as far as possible. The opposition to the introduction of Kanaka

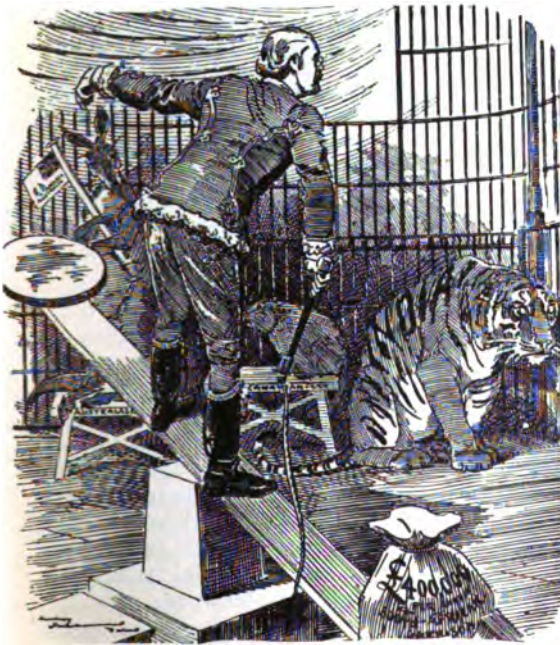
labor for the cultivation of sugar led some time ago to the adoption of a plan of paying bounty for sugar grown by white labor. Of the past year's sugar crop of about one hundred thousand tons in New South Wales and Queensland, nearly seven-tenths was produced by black labor. Upon the other three-tenths, a government bounty was paid. The bonus is about ten dollars per ton. The great Australian Commonwealth has indeed gone very far in many directions in its war against workers of other races than the white. Thus, no contract can be made for the carrying of Australian mails with any steamship line which allows a colored man to work on any of its ships. This is a new measure, and it has been of late the subject of a lively controversy between the Australian government and the two Chamberlains in London,—namely, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, the colonial secretary, and his son, Mr. Austin Chamberlain, who is now serving as British postmaster-general.

The fact is that mail-carrying steamship companies which have hitherto performed the service of carrying mails back and forth between Great Britain and the Australian ports have been largely manned by dark-skinned British subjects who are natives of India, and the British Government is under a special obligation not to discriminate against these Indians in view of certain clauses in what is known as the Mutiny Act in India. These same ships, it is to be remembered, will carry, also, the Indian mails, and it would be manifestly impossible for Lord Curzon's government of India to join in mail contracts containing clauses excluding dark-skinned men from employment. If the question were up again, in view of its present aspects it is possible that the Australian government would not have put this color clause into its postal act; but the thing having been done, the government seems disinclined to

Mr. N. Hart, president of
Engine Drivers and Firemen's
Association.Mr. H. D. Scorer,
general secretary.

THE RAILWAY STRIKE LEADERS IN VICTORIA.

reopen the question. They are even going so far as to propose the establishment of a government steamship mail service to Colombo, on the coast of Ceylon, in order to make connection there with a "white" steamship line. To show how far, indeed, they are carrying this policy, let it be said that there has within a few weeks been under consideration a measure, accepted and brought forward by the responsible government of the Australian Commonwealth, having as its object the exclusion of colored labor even from foreign steamships touching at Australian ports. This bill takes the form of requiring that all vessels while in Australian waters shall pay Australian rates of wages to their employees. This is to be interpreted in the light of the fact that Australian trade-unionism has excluded all colored labor from vessels engaged in the coasting trade or owned and registered in Australian ports, and has established regular wage scales at much higher rates than the English steamship companies pay to their East Indian employees. Negroes in the United States who will give some study to the facts will soon be satisfied that in most respects the colored race is far better treated in all parts of this country than in Australia or South Africa.



A NEW TRICK.—ROUGH ON THE TIGER.

(Apropos of the British ministry's attempt to unload on India a part of its military bill in South Africa, in which it would not venture to ask Australia to share.)

RT. HON. TRAINER BALFOUR (rehearsing his money-raising act): "Now, then, come up, Stripes! (Aside) Daren't ask the Kangaroo."

From Punch (London).



OUT YOU GO!

THE S. A. JOHN BULL: "Look here! I won't have you here; you had better clear out!"

[Mr. Chamberlain, in the House of Commons, said that a revival of the old Transvaal anti-Asiatic law was necessary, pending legislation, owing to public feeling, but the law would be enforced leniently, and with due regard to educated Asiatics and the vested interests of traders.—*Reuter's Telegram.*]

From Hindi Punch (Calcutta).

The hard position of the negroes in South Africa is set forth in an article from the pen of an English contributor, Mr. Hawkes, which we publish elsewhere in this number. Race prejudice in South Africa, meanwhile, is being invoked to keep workmen from India out of the country, while the hostility against Chinese coolie labor is even more marked. The British Government is, however, proposing to keep South Africa in order with a large number of regiments of Indian soldiers, the expenses of which Mr. Chamberlain has been trying to load upon the exchequer of India,—a proposition to which Viceroy Curzon has most vigorously objected. It is evident that our British imperial friends are only at the beginning of a series of race problems that will cause them no little perplexity in the course of the next quarter-century.

The President
on Negro
Lynching.

The peculiarly active discussion of the race problem that has characterized the present season in the United States went on without much abatement last month, although with few incidents or utterances worth particular mention as making his-

tory or throwing light upon doubtful points. The most useful utterance was that of President Roosevelt, which took the form of a letter to Governor Durbin, of Indiana, on the subject of lynching. Its value did not lie in any novelty of view, but rather in the strong and sane manner in which it presented what is, and always has been, the conviction of all the best elements of American society. Where lynching seems to discriminate against the negro race, President Roosevelt justly dwelt upon the fact that the chief harm was done to the white community itself. Furthermore, he called upon the negroes themselves, in the most explicit way, to show their horror of the forms of negro crime that especially arouse the lynching mania. We are assured by those well qualified to speak that in the days of slavery such forms of crime were unknown; especially in the period when the Southern white men were away from farms and plantations taking part in the war, the white women at home were without the slightest fear of violence or wrong from the negroes round about them. Why do not the scholars and agitators of the negro race give more attention to the new phases of negro criminology? Why do they bother themselves so much about the lynching of negro criminals, and so little about the hideousness of negro crime? This, to be perfectly frank, is the most painful aspect of the whole problem.

*Lynch Law
in General.*

As to the broader question of lynching and kindred disorders, most of the current discussion has been singularly lacking in the sense of historical perspective. Lynching in this country has been partly incident to rough-and-ready phases of the pioneering development of our great West, and partly due to similar causes in the South and Southwest,—plus the social disturbances resulting—(1) from the devastations and violence of the war period, (2) from the terrible frictions following the break-up of the system of slavery, and (3) from the hideous wrongs and mistakes of the reconstruction era. Lynching itself is not growing more frequent in the United States, but, on the contrary, is diminishing both absolutely and relatively. Furthermore, the disturbed social conditions out of which lynching and other like disorders grow are gradually rectifying themselves. There is no specific remedy for the lynching evil; but there is a general remedy,—namely, the progress of civilization. The current discussion will serve a useful end, not because it will lead to the invention of new ways to deal with criminals, but chiefly because it will help to arouse the conscience of the country and

to deepen the conviction that the cause of civilization is worth making sacrifices for. Governor Durbin showed excellent qualities of courage and promptness in his suppression of the Evansville mob. Fortunately, we have other governors, several of them in the Southern States, who are constantly showing precisely the same quality of vigilance and courage, directed to the same end.

*Phases of the
Race Problem.*

The question at this stage best worth scientific and unprejudiced investigation is, what circumstances are producing certain criminal tendencies in a small and obscure portion of the negro race, and what means can be used to meet so serious a condition? The men and women who make up the negro community that pertains to the great institution at Tuskegee, Ala., constitute one of the most orderly and strictly moral neighborhoods in the entire country. Properly instructed and trained, the negroes are as a rule quite as exemplary in their conduct as the whites. Have not the penal systems of the South something to do with the brutalizing of the men who subsequently become the most dangerous criminals? We are publishing in this number a valuable discussion from the pen of Dr. Lyman Abbott upon the principles involved in the race problem as it now exists in this country. For the encouragement of those who hold a depressed view, we may venture to say that in no other country where serious race problems exist can one find a better disposition to deal justly with such subjects, on Dr. Abbott's high plane, than in our own country, South as well as North. In a very valuable and timely article which we present elsewhere, from the pen of Mr. Edmonds, of the *Manufacturers' Record*, of Baltimore, on the cotton crop of this country, it is shown that white farm labor is producing an increasing proportion of the cotton, and that the dictum that the negro is absolutely indispensable for cotton culture is fast becoming a worn-out tradition. Here we have a further demonstration that the race question need not be regarded as a hopeless one, since the presence of the negro in the South is not preventing the steady development of the poorer half of the white race, both in mills and on the land. Moral and industrial training for both races should be the watchword.

*The
Macedonian
Revolt.*

The long-vexed situation in Macedonia and the contiguous Balkan regions took an especially alarming turn last month. Several events stand out clearly, although the situation as a whole has been complicated, and the news has not always been either complete or reliable. Early in August, it devel-

oped that the Christian subjects of Turkey in Macedonia had by no means been suppressed in their recent revolutionary tendencies, but that they had become both active and formidable. Thousands of them were found to be in arms, having been supplied with munitions through the activity of Bulgarian committees and otherwise. The Turkish troops, on the other hand, though very numerous, had been for five or six months in the field, had not received their pay,



DORIS SARAPOFF, LEADER OF THE MACEDONIAN PATRIOTS.

and had been growing relatively demoralized and inefficient. Under these circumstances, the insurgents grew more bold, captured some villages in the Monastir region, and showed their purpose to make the situation as intolerable for everybody as they possibly could. To this end, their leader sent word to the great powers of their determination to persist to the very end, reproaching the powers for their failure to do their duty in enforcing the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin. Through the spring and summer, reports had been industriously disseminated that the Turkish atrocities against the Christians had been greatly exaggerated; but upon the outside world there gradually dawned, last month, the conviction that the promised reforms had not in fact been instituted by the Turks, and that intolerable wrongs against the Christian population had continued.

This point of view was strengthened by an elaborate memorandum from the Bulgarian Government to the powers, dealing with Macedonian affairs during the three months up to the middle of August. This record was full of precise statements of fact, all derived from sources guaranteed by the Bulgarian Government to be absolutely reliable. To appreciate the animus of Bulgaria, it must be borne in mind that a large part of the population in the adjacent Turkish province is of Bulgarian blood, speech, and religion; and the memorandum from Sofia is devoted especially to a summing up of the perpetration of outrages against this Bulgarian population. The document was couched in the plainest and most severe terms. It resented the imputation of the Turkish Government that Bulgaria had fomented the revolutionary movement, and it made the countercharge that the movement was due solely to Turkey's bad administration. Such a document, if directed against the government of any other country except Turkey, would have resulted in an immediate declaration of war. The Bulgarian people, indeed, were ready and eager to fight, even against great odds. But Russia and Austria were evidently restraining the government at Sofia, and the wily and cautious Prince Ferdinand is regarded as a ruler who takes his orders chiefly from St. Petersburg. Dr. Petkoff, Bulgarian premier, pointed out that the Monastir district, which was the center of the latest disturbance, was removed by a district two hundred miles wide from the Bulgarian frontier, and that it was foolish to assert that the outbreak had been aided by filibustering hands from the principality. He also declared that most of the arms in the hands of the insurgents were of French manufacture, and had been obtained from unpaid and dissatisfied Turkish soldiers who had sold them to the revolutionists. Meanwhile, Turkey was pouring fifty thousand men as reinforcements into Macedonia.

*Russia's
Attitude.*

More important than the Bulgarian's attitude toward the situation was that of Russia. In the early part of August, the Russian consul at Monastir was murdered by a Turkish soldier. The government at Constantinople went through forms of apology and made certain promises of reparation. These, however, were unsatisfactory to the Russian Government, which made a series of sweeping demands, including administrative reforms. To give impressiveness to these demands, a squadron of the Russian Black Sea fleet was on August 15

ordered to sail for Turkish waters. The squadron left Sebastopol on August 17, under command of Rear-Admiral Krueger. It consisted of four battleships, several torpedo destroyers, and a number of mine and torpedo transports. There was great surprise throughout Europe at this move, particularly in view of the fact that Austria seemed to have no information about it, although Austria and Russia have for a considerable time past had a distinct agreement regarding the general Balkan situation. It is now the fixed opinion of the civilized world that the Turkish Government ought to be driven out of Europe, but the difficulty in agreeing on what should come afterward prevents summary action. Premier Balfour spoke in a mild and evasive way on the subject, as Parliament was on the eve of prorogation, last month, while the English Liberal press was pointedly reminding him that the whole wretched situation in the Balkans was the direct result of the scheming of a former Tory prime minister—Disraeli—at the Berlin Conference. England's influence in the Eastern situation, so potent a quarter of a century ago, has waned to a point where it is now scarcely considered at all.

Although great bodies of Russian troops were in the Caucasus ready for action, while other great bodies were in the proximity of Bulgaria and Roumania, it was evident enough that Russia was not eager to become involved in a war with Turkey. For, in the first place, Russia will not care to fight again in that quarter until she can be sure that she will not be cheated out of the fruits of her victory by a combination of powers; while, on the other hand, she would like to be sure to have only one war on her hands at a time. But if she became involved in a war against the Turkish Empire at the present time, nothing except French action could prevent Japan from seizing the favorable moment to precipitate war in the far East, to rid Korea and Manchuria of Russian domination, and to destroy the overweening influence of Russia at Peking. The Japanese have been for weeks past in a state of intense excitement, and many observers have thought that nothing could keep them from making war upon Russia. There were reports last month of increased Russian activity all along the line of their far Eastern interests, and particularly in Korea. To give unity to the direction of his far Eastern policy, the Czar has made Vice-Admiral Alexieff the viceroy of the Amur territory and the Kwangtung province (as the Port Arthur district is now called), with special powers of a very arbitrary and sweeping

*Russia Not
Seeking War.*



VICE-ADMIRAL ALEXIEFF.

character. This has further disturbed the sensibilities of the Japanese, who look upon Alexieff as their inveterate enemy, and as a leader of that element which favors the greatest extension of Russian policy on the Pacific. Quite regardless of his official title, Admiral Alexieff is in effect the authoritative ruler of Manchuria, just as Lord Cromer is in fact the ruler of Egypt. That part of the world will now be free from control by the more or less conflicting ministries at St. Petersburg, and will be ruled, for all purposes of civil and military administration, by the new viceroy. In some quarters, this is regarded as a victory of M. de Witte over the war minister, General Kuropatkin. It was also reported last month that there was a large movement of fresh troops from Russia to eastern Siberia, where, if necessary, in case of trouble with Japan, they could be dispatched toward the coast over the Manchurian Railroad.

*Empire
Programme
Can Wait.*

But Russia's more serious difficulties do not relate to the problems in the far East, nor yet to those in the Balkans. She can escape war with Japan by a policy of temporizing and caution. She can avoid, for the present, the formal annexation of Manchuria, while continuing to control it; and she can partly disguise and partly postpone her designs in Korea. Her one great minister, Witte, does not want war, and does not intend to have it, because he is a financier and knows that Russia must cultivate the arts of peace and develop her resources rather than increase her already

enormous public debt. Furthermore, Russia can, if she chooses, avoid war against Turkey; and it will undoubtedly appear to her to be for her best interest at present to keep the Turks in nominal possession. She is anxious, however, to extend her influence by degrees in the direction of the Mediterranean, and she never loses sight for a moment of her ultimate ambition, which is to obtain control of Constantinople.

Russia's Desperate Labor Troubles. During the past few weeks, there have been desperate strikes, suppressed by the military at an aggregate cost of hundreds of lives, in different parts of Russia; and a spirit of rude awakening and defiance is visible almost everywhere in the Czar's dominions. M. de Plehwe, the minister of the interior, has done his best to keep the news of these disturbances from reaching the outside world, but he has failed. Kieff seems to have been the most important center of the labor disturbances, and there the rioting and the conflicts between workmen and soldiers were especially severe. The number of people killed and wounded at Kieff alone in connection with labor riots, last month, was very much larger than the number of people killed and wounded in the world-famed Jewish massacres at Kishineff in April. At Odessa and in the immediate neighborhood, seventy thousand men were reported as on strike in the middle of August; and the number of strikers throughout Russia was estimated at not less than half a million men, supporting three millions of people. The Russian political revolutionists have been observing this situation with much encouragement, since they look upon labor organization as a means by which the people will gain confidence in themselves and will learn how to act together for their own interests. It is reported that there is some improvement in the position of the Jews in Russia, apparently as a result of outside criticism. The new provincial governor has been especially courteous to the Jews of Kishineff. Of the hundreds of people arrested for participation in the riots and massacres of April, a considerable number have been detained, and it is reported that about a hundred of them are to be put on trial next month. The Russian papers, as well as some in Germany and elsewhere, have had a great deal to say about lynching in the United States as a reason why it was unbecoming for Americans to criticise the massacre of Jews in Russia, and their cartoonists have also made the point, with much gleeful satire. An example of such cartoons,—an especially mild one, by the way,—is reproduced on this page.



ROOSEVELT AND THE CZAR,—A FRIENDLY EXCHANGE.

"You cut up your Jews, I'll burn my negroes;" or, "Little presents preserve friendships."

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

Crushing Finnish Liberties.

The world has been looking on with quiet disapproval at the process of Russifying by force the distinct institutions of Finland. It is almost as if Turkey should somehow get control of a free and self-governing little state like Switzerland and then reduce it to the condition of a Moslem province ruled by a high-handed pasha. When Russia took Finland away from Sweden, ninety-four years ago, it was with the solemn promise to maintain the Finnish constitution and to allow the Finnish people to retain their own language, customs, internal laws, Lutheran religion, and national institutions. But for some years past the bureaucracy at St. Petersburg has been pursuing a programme for the assimilation of Finland, beginning with the army system and the finances, and extending the crusade from one sphere of Finnish life to another. This bad work has been carried on under the direction of General Bobrikoff, as governor-general with arbitrary powers. A considerable number of leading Finns have been expelled from the country during the past two or three months, and this process goes steadily on. The Scandinavian peoples are full of sympathy for their Finnish neighbors, and are uneasy for their own future. It seems incomprehensible that the Czar should

persist in a policy that creates so much bitterness, with so little corresponding advantage to his empire. It is, of course, to be said—from the point of view of the Russian autocracy—that the existence within the empire of a contented and prosperous self-governing province like Finland is a dangerous sort of object-lesson. But the object-lesson has stood for so many years that it has already served its purpose. To crush Finland at this late day will not make it any easier to maintain the Russian system elsewhere.

*The
Election of
a New Pope.*

Cardinal Sarto was impressively crowned as Pope Pius X. on Sunday, August 9, in the presence of a vast multitude estimated at seventy thousand people, in the Church of St. Peter, at Rome. The Conclave for the choice of a new Pope had proved to be a brief one, and the result was hailed throughout the Roman Catholic Church,—and throughout the religious and political world as well,—as one praiseworthy in a high degree. At the opening of the Conclave, there were three candidates more prominent than any others, representing each a distinct and important ecclesiastical standpoint. Cardinal Rampolla, who had been Pope Leo XIII.'s efficient secretary of state, was regarded as representing more especially the tradition of intimacy between the Vatican and the French and Spanish peoples, and particularly the hostile position of the Church with reference to the Italian Government. While Rampolla was the strongest candidate, it was impossible for him to obtain a majority. Cardinal Vannutelli represented a different political tendency, favoring improved relations between the Vatican and the Triple Alliance, and indirectly representing a better *modus vivendi* between the Church and the crown and government of the Italian Kingdom. Obviously, the strength of the supporters of Rampolla was quite certain to prevent the election of Vannutelli. The second of the leading candidates, and one greatly esteemed, was Cardinal Goti, who stood rather for the strictly religious aspects of the work of the Church than for any political ideas or tendencies. After two or three days of deliberation, and the taking of several inconclusive ballots, some of the cardinals, on Monday, August 3, took up Cardinal Sarto as a compromise candidate, with such good results as to secure his unanimous election

on Tuesday, August 4. He promptly chose for himself the title Pius X.

*Qualities of
Pius X.*

The new Pope came of a humble peasant family in the Venetian province, but early showed strong mind, high qualities of character, and a serious and religious bent. He entered the priesthood with excellent training and every mark of promise. He was steadily advanced, and in 1884 became Bishop of Mantua. In 1893, he was made a cardinal and became Patriarch of Venice, where his influence and popularity became almost unbounded. He is now sixty-eight years old, although he is said to look decidedly younger, and generally to show the vigor of a man of fifty. He has been on terms of personal friendship with two successive Italian kings, and has been liked and trusted by members of all classes and parties. He is regarded as having an aptitude for executive work and for affairs of state, and his choice was explicitly commended by all the European governments which have any practical or traditional reasons for concerning themselves about the election of a Pope. It is not to be supposed that his accession will in any immediate or tangible way heal the breach between the Vatican and the Italian Government. The new Pope, like his predecessor, must be expected to sustain the rôle of a prisoner in the Vatican, and must assert the claims of the Church to temporal authority. We publish elsewhere in this number two interesting articles regarding the new Pope and the significance of his election and position, by Mr. Talcott Williams and Mr. W. T. Stead.

*France and
England.*

There is to be noted a very fortunate and hopeful improvement of relations between France and England. King Edward is much liked by the French, and he is commended by some of their newspapers as deserving the title of "Peacemaker." They declare that he has brought about peace in South



SLEEPING-ROOM AND KITCHEN ASSIGNED TO EACH CARDINAL DURING THE CONCLAVE.



THE DINNER AT THE HOUSE OF COMMONS TO THE FRENCH DEPUTIES.

M. d'Estournelles had on his right hand the prime minister, Mr. Balfour, while among other notable guests were Mr. Chamberlain and Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman.

Africa, tranquillity in Ireland, and especially a new era of sympathy and good-will between France and England. The brief official visit of President Loubet to the neighboring island monarchy has been followed by various pleasant indications of friendliness. Very notable indeed was the reception given in England to the Baron d'Estournelles de Constant and other members of the French Chamber of Deputies, representing the cause of international arbitration. The Baron d'Estournelles was one of the most active and conspicuous members of the Hague Peace Conference, and he has since that time been a welcome visitor to the United States. He has of late been doing everything in his power to promote good relations between France and England and to prepare the way for a general treaty of arbitration between the two countries. The Parisian newspapers are talking about an expected return visit of a group of members of the House of Commons, who will be received with open arms by serious-minded Frenchmen.

French Topics. In general, the French have been enjoying a season of comparative quiet and content, and the republic has been especially fortunate in strengthening its friendly relations with other great powers without impairing the value of its alliance with Russia. Its navy, like that of all maritime nations,

continues to develop, and the efficiency, even more than the size, of the navy is being carefully considered by M. Pelletan, the remarkably energetic minister of marine, who is assisted by a permanent naval director, M. Tissier, of exceptional administrative talent and expert naval knowledge. Of the passing topics of the month in France, the most absorbing was the terrible accident that occurred in the metropolitan or underground rapid-transit railroad of Paris, where, on the night of August 10, a collision of trains was immediately followed by a conflagration of the cars, with the result that about a hundred people lost their lives, chiefly from the fire, rather than from the violence of the collision. The cars on the Paris underground road are built of a highly inflammable kind of wood. The gentlemen who are to operate the new underground system in New York declare that their cars are to be practically non-combustible. Experience is the great teacher in such matters.

German Commercial Progress. French commercial interests are desirous to take up again the attempt to negotiate a successful commercial and reciprocity treaty with the United States, and the same subject is under discussion in Germany. The most important of the German commercial treaties are to expire at the end of the present year, and now that the industrial



A SCENE AT A STATION OF THE PARIS UNDERGROUND RAILWAY.

elements have triumphed over the agrarians in the recent election, it is believed that a new policy toward the United States may be adopted that will be of mutual advantage,—the German manufacturers and workmen desiring to import larger quantities of provisions from this country, and hoping for a little more favorable chance to sell some of their wares here. The treaties of commerce that are about to expire are agreements entered into ten years ago with Russia, Austria, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, and Italy, the Argentine Republic, and some

other countries. The treaty with Great Britain was brought to an end some time ago in accordance with the wishes of Canada, and the elements now dominant in Germany are hoping to bring about a new treaty that will not impair the great position that Germany has attained in the English market. German industry and enterprise go forward steadily, with determined application of scientific knowledge and methods. German production of iron and steel, though far behind that of the United States, has, in turn, left that of England hopelessly in the rear.



M. PELLETAN, FRENCH MINISTER OF MARINE, WITH M. TISSIER, HIS CHIEF ASSISTANT.

German textile industries are also making great progress, and it may interest our American producers to know that the German spinners and weavers are determined to diminish their dependence upon the United States as a source of supply for fiber. They are spending considerable sums of money upon experiments in cotton culture in the German colonies, particularly in Africa, where they are going about the matter with their characteristic intelligence of method. For every new acre properly planted in cotton in certain of their African colonies, the Germans are

paying a very large subsidy ; and they guarantee to buy from the cotton-raisers all their product at stipulated prices, ranging from about six cents a pound for cotton raised from American seed to about nine cents a pound for cotton of the Egyptian variety. They are also promoting the increase of cotton-raising in Asia Minor, especially along the line of the German Bagdad Railway. While it will be a good many years before these efforts result in a sufficient production to afford any cause for concern to the American cotton-growers, they are indicative of the thrift and energy of Germany, and of the determination of the Germans to make economic utilization of their colonies. On the other hand, they are also notable as a part of the general movement for the exploitation of the tropical and sub-tropical portions of the earth by the energetic industrial peoples of the North Temperate Zone.

Spain Declines to Buy a New Navy. The Spaniards have settled down to a new ministry under Villaverde, who had been president of the Chamber of Deputies. The causes of the change of ministry are more interesting than the mere personalities. Silvela, the late premier, and Villaverde were the two most influential men in the Conservative party. One was prime minister and the other president of the Chamber. The Silvela ministry had, only a short time ago, a great majority of the members of Parliament nominally supporting it. The new situation has been brought about through conditions resulting from the war with the United States. We left Spain deprived of her West Indian possessions and of the Philippine archipelago, and we also left her without a navy worth mentioning. Before the war with the United States, she had ranked as a naval power of some consequence. The European naval experts, indeed, regarded Spain as a more important naval power than the United States. The question now is whether Spain shall incur the expense of building or buying a new navy, or whether by preference she shall concentrate her public expenditures upon railroads and various efforts for the internal development of her own backward home country. Señor Silvela believed that Spain ought to continue to have a place and a rank among the European nations, and that she ought to look forward to entering into close relations either with France or else with the Triple Alliance of Germany-Italy-Austria. But in either case he held that Spain could make no advantageous alliance unless she had something substantial to contribute to the arrangement. In his opinion, the possession of a few effective battleships and cruisers would do more than anything else to strength-

en Spain's international position. Furthermore, the Spaniards do not believe that Morocco can remain long under its present system of government, and they have always looked forward to acquiring control of that country for themselves. A navy, according to Silvela, would strengthen their position in that direction. His views would doubtless have prevailed, as against the



SEÑOR VILLAVERDE.
(The new Spanish premier.)

opposition of the Radical and Republican minority in the Parliament ; but it happened that Villaverde disagreed with him and made a powerful speech against the movement for a strong navy. His followers, together with the anti-Conservative groups, were sufficient to upset the Silvela cabinet. For the present, therefore, the Spanish policy will be that of strict economy and internal improvement, as against a policy of military and naval growth.

In Hungary and Servia. There has been much difficulty in the attempt to reorganize the Hungarian cabinet, inasmuch as the new ministry of Count Hedervarry failed to show strength or to secure from the Emperor an indorsement of its policies. After celebrating his seventy-sixth birthday at Vienna, the Emperor Francis-Joseph went to Budapest on Wednesday, August 18, to lend his influence to a smoothing out of the

Hungarian political tangle. In Servia, affairs have not gone on very smoothly for King Peter. There have been all sorts of reports of conspiracies and counter-conspiracies. Russian influence has evidently been opposing in the sternest way the recognition of men who were concerned in the assassination of the late king and queen. On the other hand, secret leagues of Servian officers are said to have been conspiring against Servian statesmen who were supposed to be standing in the way of the advancement of certain leaders in the late revolution. On August 14, it was announced that the Servian ministry had resigned as a result of army leagues and plots, and there was talk of the abdication of the King, who found himself practically a prisoner in the hands of the military party. On August 15, new ministers for war, finance, justice, and public instruction were appointed by way of a partial reconstruction of the cabinet, but the prospect was dismal in the extreme.

From the disturbed and unhappy *In Switzerland and Holland.* states of the Balkan region it is pleasant to turn to the little republic of Switzerland, which goes steadily forward on its serene career of industry, intelligence, and virtue, and which celebrated last month the seven hundred and twelfth anniversary of its national life. Holland similarly maintains a tranquil career, and thrives according to her great deserts. She is occupying herself at present, among other things of less note, with the colossal project of increasing her territory by redeeming the Zuyder Zee. The work is to be done in sections, and will cost a vast sum; but the Dutch are engineers and financiers of the first order, and they have studied their project far more carefully than the French or the Americans have ever studied the engineering and financial aspects of the Panama Canal. It is truly a remarkable people that can redeem land from the sea at a cost of many hundreds of dollars per acre, and so utilize the area thus obtained as to make it pay interest upon the investment.

Labor and Capital at Home. The labor contests that remained unsettled in the United States last month were concerned, not so much with specific disputes as to wages, hours, and the like, as with more fundamental questions as to the establishment of methods for getting at the settlement of disputes. The marked tendency is toward the adoption of voluntary arbitration, with a strong organization on both sides. In nearly all our cities, one now finds associations of employers better organized and conducted than in any former period. These

associations of men who employ labor are for the most part under the direction of competent and reasonable leaders, who thoroughly believe in high wages and improved conditions for workmen, and are willing to deal with trade-unions. But they are also determined to withstand dictation and tyranny from walking delegates, and to oppose a certain reckless spirit of "rule or ruin" that has of late very painfully characterized the American labor movement in many of its manifestations. The only thing that has prevented the complete adjustment of the trouble in New York that has for months produced a deadlock in the building trades has been the behavior of one leader of a very powerful union,—namely, that of the Housesmiths. This leader, Mr. Samuel J. Parks, is certainly a man of remarkable audacity and of gifts of leadership. The "housesmiths" are those iron-workers who put together the steel skeleton frames which are now used in the construction of all large buildings. There are many thousands of these workers in New York. They are closely organized, and Parks seems to have them under a sort of hypnotic control, in spite of the fact of his having been for some time under indictment on the charge of having extorted money from employers to prevent or to end strikes. His trial on these charges was proceeding when this number of the REVIEW went to press. The New York employers in the building trades have worked out a scheme of arbitration which ought to be satisfactory.

A Chicago Inquiry. In Chicago, where the Employers' Association is especially active, its corps of experts, after a careful study, has reported to it that the average cost of living has increased 15 per cent. during the past five years. The association has decided that wages ought to be correspondingly advanced in those trades and callings where the increase has not already been made. The Chicago association seems to think it has discovered a final test and standard by which to answer the question whether or not wages ought now or in the future to be either increased or lowered. This conclusion, however, involves several fallacies. In the first place, it rests upon the arbitrary assumption that wages, five years ago, were just what they ought to have been. In the second place, it assumes that the wage-earner is only entitled to enough increase, from time to time, to preserve his past standard of living unimpaired. It does not admit that he has a right to hope for an improvement of standards, and it seems to ignore the simple economic principle that wages,



CAUSE AND EFFECT.

(It was reported last month that there had been unprecedentedly large summer withdrawals of money from the savings-banks of our leading cities.)—From the *World* (New York).

in the end, are always determined by the value of the results of the efforts that the workman puts forth,—in other words, by the productivity of labor. Nevertheless, the methods of the Employers' Association of Chicago are useful and in the right spirit. The inquiry into changed costs of living is a valuable one, and it certainly has some bearing upon practical questions raised from time to time in wage disputes. The conciliation board in the anthracite region, created as the result of President Roosevelt's strike commission, has been facing a good many delicate and difficult problems, but it bids fair to be able to keep the peace and to vindicate the value of the method established for regulating

the relations between capital and labor in the coal mines. The Hon. Carroll D. Wright has been appointed umpire for the final settlement of questions where the Board of Conciliation fails to agree.

Crops and Prosperity.

The August crop report of the Government was less favorable than the July report as regards the volume of the wheat crop, the figures being reduced from 720,000,000 to 650,000,000. This, however, is a bountiful yield, and one to be thankful for,—the high prices being very satisfactory to Western farmers. The August estimate for corn, on the other hand, was better than had been ex-

pected, and the corn crop will, after all, probably fall short of that of 1902 by only 10 per cent. or thereabouts. Taking into account the other cereals, the hay crop and the pasturage, the fruit crop, and the potatoes and the lesser products of garden and farm, the season will have averaged a very good one indeed for the American tillers of the soil. The past year has been decidedly the greatest in our manufacturing history, and for the first time the total volume of our domestic exports has exceeded that of Great Britain or any other nation. It is only in Wall Street that the times have been bad. The stock-market slump of July continued well into August, although after the middle of the month a better condition set in, of a sort that made it seem that the worst was over. The Wall Street promoters and speculators had simply been the victims of their own excesses. Many of them had borrowed large sums of money for the sake of holding shares of stock that they expected to sell to the public at a profit. Not being able to do this, they were obliged to liquidate quickly, and thus they made sacrifice of their holdings. The average market price, which had been too high, was depressed until it became much too low. Then the conservative investing public began to come in quietly to steady the situation. It is the opinion of most wise men that this rather drastic experience has been a good thing for Wall Street itself, and an especially fortunate thing for the legitimate business of the country at large.

*Oyster Bay
as a Center
of Affairs.*

The President remained last month at his home on Long Island, where he was able to give close attention to public business, while at the same time obtaining needed recreation. In connection with its carefully arranged programme of maneuvers, the North Atlantic fleet visited Oyster Bay on August 16, where it was reviewed and inspected by President Roosevelt. The *Kearsarge*, which had attracted so much attention in European ports, had made a record run across the Atlantic to serve as flagship for Rear-Admiral Barker. The fleet made a splendid appearance, and called the country's attention again to the steady development of our navy. Many high officials visited Oyster Bay last month to consult the President about public affairs. He was also visited by the group of Senators who form the sub-committee on finance which has been spending the summer in an endeavor to draft a currency measure for early submission to Congress. This sub-committee consists of Senators Aldrich, Allison, Platt of Connecticut, and Spooner. It was reported that certain details of the project for a currency bill

had been referred by the sub-committee to Senator Allison, who, in turn, held a conference with the Hon. J. G. Cannon, who will be Speaker of the House of Representatives, and whose coöperation is therefore much desired. The country also learned last month that the extra session, instead of being called for November 9, would possibly be brought together in October, both for the purpose of the earlier disposition of the Cuban reciprocity treaty and also to secure a more prompt treatment of the currency problem. It is evident that there is such wide divergence of opinion on this question of making a better provision for a money-supply that will adapt itself automatically to the business needs of the country that it is not going to be easy to frame a bill that can be placed upon the statute books. There will, of course, be no difficulty in securing the adoption of the act of Congress which is necessary to enable the Cuban reciprocity treaty to go into effect. It will be remembered that this treaty was ratified by the Senate. But since it is virtually a revenue measure, it must, according to precedent, be accepted by the House of Representatives.

*Cuba and
Her Soldier
Claimants.*

Affairs of state go on in Cuba as well as could have been expected, and, happily, President Estrada Palma seems to have won the respect and confidence of all elements. The absorbing topic, of late, has been the payment of the claims of the army of liberation. Gen. Maximo Gomez, who is chair-



VACATION DAYS AT OYSTER BAY.
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

man of the commission to make a carefully revised list of the revolutionary soldiers entitled to receive back pay, has made his report. This contains about fifty-three thousand names. For more than half of the men so listed, the period of service for which pay is granted is fixed at two years and a half, and the rate of payment is at a dollar per day. General Gomez says that the proposed loan of \$35,000,000,—the proceeds of which were to be used for various other purposes besides the payment of the soldiers,—will not be half enough to meet the claims. The list of fifty-three thousand does not include a large number of civilian employees who served the provisional government and the army in one capacity or another, and who must also be allowed their back pay. Altogether, it will take, probably, \$60,000,000 to square the account. This would mean an average of not far from a thousand dollars to each man. At present, of course, Cuba has neither the credit nor the resources to provide any such sum. If the larger sum could be provided, its distribution throughout the island would be advantageous, and would do much to enable the people to reestablish homes, clear up farms, and begin a new economic life. But it would probably be wiser to adopt a fixed sum, say \$25,000,000 or \$30,000,000, raise it by a loan, and distribute it *pro rata* among the men on the army list, as a final settlement of all claims.

Cotton in Cuba.

The important experiments that our entomologists and agricultural experts are now making to find a way to deliver the cotton planter from that destructive insect pest known as the boll-weevil will, if successful, prove a boon to the island of Cuba. Great interest has been shown there lately in the possibilities of the island for the growth of a superior quality of cotton, and all reports are to the effect that nothing stands in the way of making Cuba an important cotton-growing region excepting the boll-weevil. The soil and climate seem especially adapted to cotton culture.

In the War Department.

Secretary Root is in England, where he will be detained for some weeks by his duties as a member of the Alaska boundary tribunal. His place at the head of the War Department is meanwhile filled by the new assistant secretary, Gen. Robert S. Oliver. The reports that Mr. Root would retire to private life soon after his return from England were received with much regret, in view of his distinguished services for years past at the head of the War Department, where he had much to do with the transitional government of Cuba and the administration of Porto Rico and



CUBA'S HARD PROBLEM.

THE SCHOOLBOY: "Say, teacher, can't you start with an easier one?"—From the *Evening Dispatch* (Columbus).

the Philippines. The retirement of General Miles took effect on August 8, and on the 15th, to quote the Associated Press dispatch, "the army passed under the control of a large body of officers of high rank known as the General Staff Corps, with Lieut.-Gen. S. B. M. Young at the head as chief of staff, and Maj.-Gen. Henry C. Corbin as adjutant-general and assistant chief of staff." General Young also gave notice of the relinquishment of the office of "general commanding the army," which had been held by General Miles, and by himself for a single week, and announced that he had assumed the duties of chief of staff.

More Officials "On the Make."

There have been additional indictments in connection with the Post-Office Department scandals, and a considerable number of dismissals from the service where neglect to report wrongdoing, and general laxity and impropriety of official conduct, has been chargeable rather than direct participation in the frauds. Meanwhile, a new field of administrative scandal has been opened up in connection with the conduct of United States officials in the Indian Territory. The charges have been put into shape by Mr. Bro-

sius, the agent and legal representative of the Indian Rights Association. It is alleged that officials whose duty it is to see that the Indians are protected in the matter of land allotments have themselves gone into a variety of money-making schemes in connection with the exploitation of Indian lands, and have thus morally disqualified themselves for faithful and vigilant attention to their duties. It is agreed that there is to be an investigation of the matter, and it is likely that this will be carried out by Mr. Jones, the Indian commissioner at Washington, under direction of Secretary Hitchcock. The Judiciary Department is also involved in the charges, and Attorney-General Knox will desire to go to the bottom of the affair. The bane of our public service at the present moment is the mania on the part of officials for seizing opportunities growing out of their public positions—not to steal public money, but to engage in money-making enterprises of one kind and another which are directly opposed to the conscientious performance of their public work. Most of these officials have not committed crimes for which they can be sent to the penitentiary, but they belong to a class of men who should be as rigorously hunted out of the public service as the thieves and defaulters.

*Ohio and
Democratic
Politics.*

Mayor Tom L. Johnson, of Cleveland, Ohio, has been the most interesting figure in Western politics during the past few weeks. Ohio is the only State of large political importance that is to elect a governor this fall. Mr. Johnson leads the Democratic party, and has been avowedly a willing candidate for the governorship, although the State is regarded as inevitably Republican this year. The Democratic convention was fixed for August 25. There has been a determined movement in Ohio for the conservative reorganization of the Democratic party; and Mr. Bryan has been prominent in the State, supporting Mr. Johnson and attacking the reorganizers. In one of his Ohio speeches, Mr. Bryan denounced ex-President Cleveland as a "bunco-steerer" for Wall Street. This seemed to amuse the country, and the suggestion was productive of an immense crop of funny cartoons, most of which, however, pointed their satire, not at Mr. Cleveland, but at Mr. Bryan. The fact is that Mr. Cleveland stands personally high in the opinion of the country, and cannot be hurt by epithets or ill-natured remarks. The important possibility involved in the Ohio campaign this fall is that of securing a Democratic legislature, which would prevent the return of Mr. Hanna to the Senate. While it is not likely that the Demo-

crats can get control of the Legislature, they have a much better chance to secure that result than to elect their candidate for governor. Judge Parker continues to be the man most talked about in the South and the West as a possible Democratic nominee for the Presidency, with Mr. Gorman, of Maryland, as a close second.



A TRIFLE LARGE,—ONLY CLEVELAND CAN FILL THEM.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

*In
New York.*

The country is likely to take more interest in the municipal campaign in New York City this fall than in any pending State campaign, not excepting Ohio. It continues to be the accepted idea that Mayor Seth Low will again head the fusion ticket of the reformers and the Republicans, while nobody yet knows who will take the Tammany nomination. The State election in New York will be important chiefly for the fact that the people are to vote on the great question whether or not they will incur a debt of over a hundred million dollars to improve the State canal system.

*In
the South.*

In the South, the race question has been brought into the season's politics to an extent hardly comprehensible elsewhere. A reactionary sentiment was visible in the primary elections held to decide the question who should be the next governor of Mississippi. But the forces working for the education and progress of all classes can only be temporarily checked. The enthusiasm for better schools has been shown in the unprecedented attendance at the teachers' institutes and special

summer gatherings for the training of those engaged in the work of instruction. The largest of these summer schools this year, as last, was the one held at Knoxville, Tenn., under the auspices of the State University. It was a magnificent success, and to those who were able to make personal inspection it proved a veritable inspiration. The teaching profession in the South is ardently awake to the need of a new kind of school adapted to promote the elements of civilization and industrial progress. It is a very poor and shortsighted kind of politician that would minimize the value of these efforts or seek to dampen such enthusiasm for the better training of Southern children.

The Panama Question.

The Latin-American topic of most importance last month was the announced rejection by the Colombian Congress at Bogota of the Hay-Herran treaty providing for the construction of the Panama Canal. Later reports, however, did not indicate that the negotiations between this country and Colombia were closed. It will be necessary for our government to await the adjournment of the Colombian Congress, and the formal and official diplomatic communications which will come to our State Department touching the position of the authorities at Bogota. Meanwhile, the American press has very frankly discussed the possibility of a revolution in the State of Panama which might permanently detach the Isthmus from its unfortunate and hampering connection with the remote and little-esteemed régime at Bogota that hardly deserves the name of a government. All the natural affiliations of the Isthmus are with the United States and Central and North America, rather than with South America; and it has been so for half a century.

Mexico and Its Perennial President.

The people of Mexico have fully determined to give President Porfirio Diaz another term in the presidency, and we publish elsewhere an interesting article on the subject from Prof. L. S. Rowe, of the University of Pennsylvania. Dr. Rowe was one of the American commissioners who revised the laws of Porto Rico, and he has been spending the summer in Mexico studying the working of the legal institutions of the country, and kindred subjects. Mexico still hopes for good results from the work of the commissioners who are endeavoring to find a way to establish a fixed rate of exchange between the silver-using and the gold-using countries. Meanwhile, the government is steadily promoting the industrial interests of the country, and was reported last

month as having acquired a block of stock in the Mexican Central Railway system, as part of a policy of ultimate governmental ownership of the railways.

A School of Journalism.

It was natural that a very large place in the newspaper discussion of last month should have been given to the remarkable gift of Mr. Joseph Pulitzer, proprietor of the New York *World*, of \$2,000,000 to Columbia University for the establishment of a school of journalism. There are now many thousands of workers engaged in the United States in the production of daily newspapers, and periodicals of weekly or monthly circulation. Mr. Pulitzer holds that these men should not only be well educated in a general sense, but that they should also have, in so far as possible, some training of a special or professional kind that would better fit them for the service that journalism ought to render to the great public. Unquestionably, we are governed in this country more and more by the newspapers. That is to say, we are dominated by public opinion, and—being a reading people—our public opinion is formed by the newspapers. Men of wisdom and experience are not in full agreement as to the extent to which journalism can be “professionalized,” so to speak, in such a way as to make it somewhat analogous to the law, medicine, and other special pursuits of a professional nature. This new department of Columbia must therefore be a pioneer enterprise and an experimental undertaking. But he would be a man of great temerity who would venture to predict that it cannot be made both useful and successful. The journalist does not study constitutional or international law with the same purpose or from the same standpoint as the student who is preparing himself to practise law. In like manner, the practical journalist, though needing a thorough and extensive training in economics, would naturally seek courses less theoretical than some of those prescribed in our universities for students who are pursuing post-graduate work with reference to the taking of doctors' degrees. Apart from those things which constitute the subject-matter with which journalism most concerns itself, there are certain matters of a strictly technical and professional sort, such as the real nature of public news and the best way to gather, present, and distribute it; the law of libel; that large field which may be designated as the ethics of the public press; and so on. The School of Journalism at Columbia is to have a separate building and a good endowment. Mr. Pulitzer gives \$1,000,000 now, and promises another million in the near future.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From July 21 to August 20, 1903.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

July 21.—An anti-barge canal convention held at Rochester, N. Y., recommends the defeat of the canal project at the polls.

July 22.—The bookbinders in the Government Printing Office at Washington threaten to strike if W. A. Miller, the assistant foreman, whose reinstatement is ordered by President Roosevelt, is permitted to return to work.

July 23.—President Roosevelt refuses to consider the charges made by the bookbinders' union against W. A. Miller, assistant foreman, whose reinstatement has been ordered.

July 25.—The Government Printing Office bookbinders decided not to strike because of the reinstatement of Assistant Foreman Miller.

July 30.—The joint army and navy general board holds its first meeting....Judge George Gray, of Delaware, accepts appointment as a member of the Alabama Coal Strike Commission.

August 1.—The suit brought by the State of Minnesota against the Northern Securities Company in the United States District Court is dismissed.

August 5.—Gen. S. B. M. Young is designated by President Roosevelt as commanding general of the army in the interval between the retirement of General Miles, on August 8, and the going into effect of the General Staff law, on August 15.

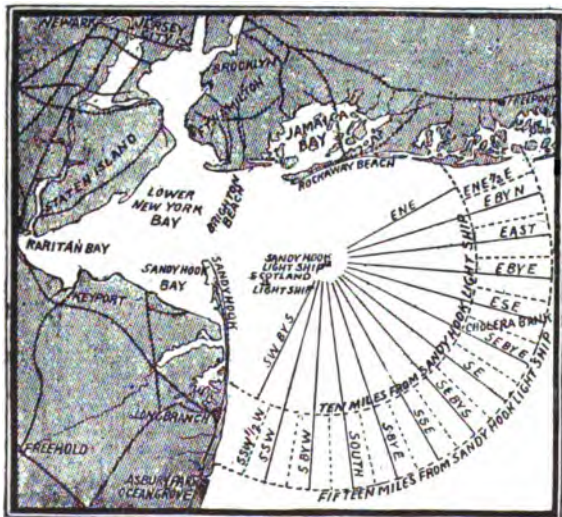
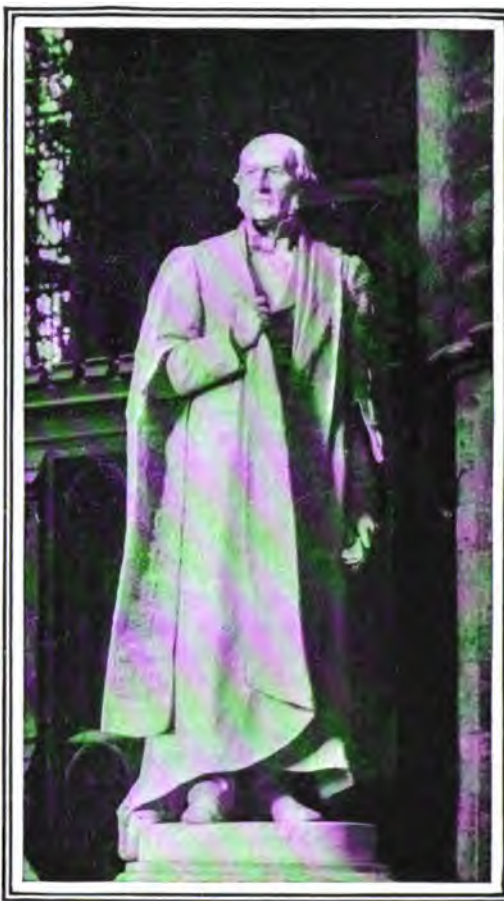


CHART SHOWING DIRECTION OF COURSES IN THE INTERNATIONAL YACHT RACES.

(The races are sailed over either a straightaway course, fifteen nautical miles from the lightship and return, or a triangular course, ten miles to a side.)



THE NEW STATUE OF WILLIAM E. GLADSTONE IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

August 7.—Lieut.-Gen. Nelson A. Miles issues an address to the army on the occasion of his retirement.

August 8.—Lieut.-Gen. S. B. M. Young assumes command of the army.

August 14.—Secretary of Agriculture Wilson directs that three cargoes of meat and wines from Germany be held at the port of New York pending analysis to ascertain fitness for entry under the new pure food laws.

August 15.—The new general staff of the army is organized at Washington.

August 18.—Nebraska Republicans declare in favor of the nomination of Theodore Roosevelt for President.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

July 21.—The Irish land bill passes third reading in the British House of Commons....The Duke of Marl-

borough is appointed Under Secretary of State for the British Colonies....The Tariff Reform League of Great Britain is inaugurated.

July 22.—The British House of Commons passes the third reading of the London education bill.

July 23.—In the Cape Parliament, Mr. Merriman brings forward a motion in favor of amnesty for those engaged in the late rebellion....The recommendation that the farm-owner shall receive four-tenths of the profits of a diamond mine is adopted by the Legislative Council at Johannesburg....The bill canceling the dynamite concession is passed at Pretoria.

July 27.—The debate on Mr. Merriman's amnesty motion is resumed in the Cape Legislative AssemblyThe agreement between the Dominion government and the Grand Trunk Railway for the construction of a third transcontinental line through Canada is signed at OttawaBaron Stephen Burian is appointed minister of finance in Austria-Hungary in place of M. de Kállay.

July 28.—The federal budget is introduced in the Australian Commonwealth House of RepresentativesA Home Rule convention at Honolulu starts a movement for Hawaiian independence....Mr. Balfour announces in the British House of Commons that a tariff bill will be introduced.

July 30.—In the Dominion Parliament, Sir Wilfrid Laurier introduces a bill for the construction of a national transcontinental railwayThe customs amendment and tariff bill is read a third time in the Cape Parliament by the casting vote of the president....In the Hungarian Chamber, the government and the Liberal party gain their first victory over obstruction.

July 31.—Count Szapary confesses to having instigated the bribery in the Hungarian Parliament.

August 3.—It is found that about \$60,000,000 will be required to pay the Cuban revolutionary soldiers,—twice the amount of the pending loan for that purpose.

August 6.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 119 to 57, passes the sugar convention bill to its third reading.

August 7.—The Irish land bill passes the committee stage in the British House of Lords without serious amendment....It is announced that King Edward has approved the appointment of Lord Northcote, now Governor of Bombay, as Governor-General of Australia, to succeed Lord Tennyson, resigned....Prominent Finns are expelled from their country by the Russian administration.

August 8.—The Hungarian cabinet resigns office.



THE LATE POPE LEO XIII.

(From a recent sketch made at the Vatican.)

August 10.—The British House of Lords passes the sugar convention bill.

August 11.—The British House of Lords passes the third reading of the Irish land bill.

August 12.—The British Government's agreement with the Cunard Line is approved by the House of Commons.

August 13.—The Chilean ministry resigns office....The Russian Government makes Vice-Admiral Alexieff viceroy of the far East, taking in the Amur region and the Kwangtung Province.

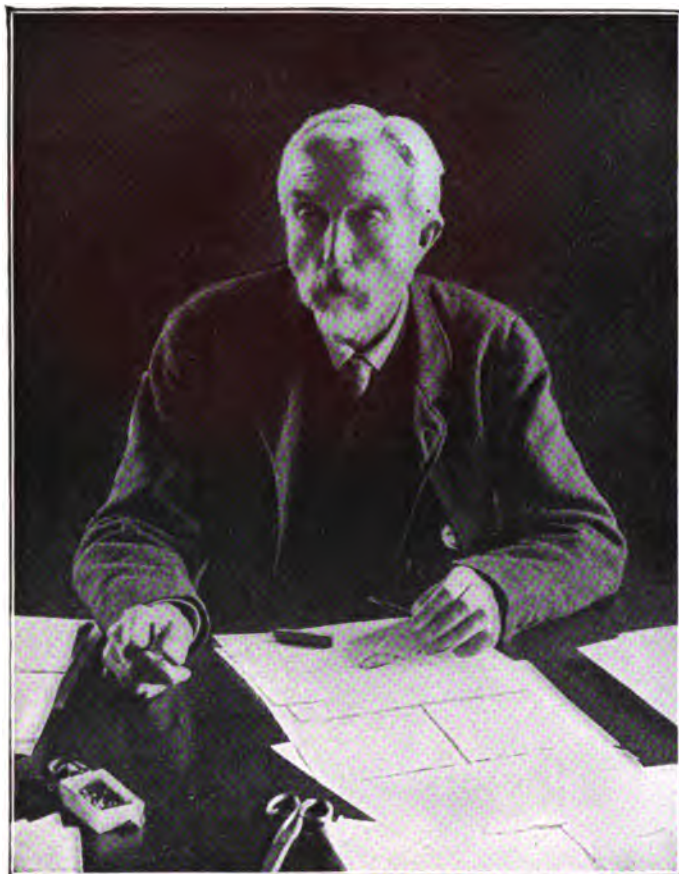
August 14.—The British Parliament is prorogued.

August 15.—Three ministers are chosen to fill places made vacant by resignations from the Servian cabinet.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

July 21.—French delegates arrive in London to confer with members of the British House of Commons on the question of international arbitration.

July 22.—The Chinese-American treaty negotiations are reopened by Chang Chih-tung.



CHARLES BOOTH.

(Author of the monumental work, "Life and Labour in London," the concluding volume of which has just been published, and is reviewed on pages 331-334 of this number.)

July 23.—The American and Mexican monetary commissions in Europe reach an agreement in regard to trade with China on a gold basis with silver circulation.

July 25.—An exchange of notes with regard to the regulation of Anglo-German commercial relations begins between London and Berlin.

July 28.—Ratifications of the Anglo-Chinese commercial treaty are exchanged at Peking.... Russia informs the United States of her intention to reduce by two-thirds the offices in this country where passports to Russia have been viséd.

July 31.—France decides not to lower the duties on meat unless compensation is made by a change in the United States tariff.

August 5.—Great Britain instructs her minister in China not to accede to China's demand for jurisdiction over the staff of a Chinese reform journal at Shanghai.

August 7.—Four battalions of Turkish troops are reported to have routed 1,700 Bulgarians near Sorovitch.

August 8.—The Russian consul at Monastir is murdered by a Turkish soldier.

August 10.—The Macedonian Committee at Belgrade issues a statement to the powers.

August 12.—The Colombian Senate rejects the treaty with the United States for the Panama Canal.

August 15.—Russian warships are ordered from the Black Sea to Turkish waters.

August 16.—Bulgaria sends to the powers a statement of the outrages committed by the Turkish Government in Macedonia in the past three months.

August 18.—The Czar of Russia names M. Mouravieff, Russian minister of justice; M. Lardy, Swiss minister to Paris, and Professor Matzen, of the University of Copenhagen,—all members of the Hague Court of Arbitration,—to hear the cases between Venezuela and the blockading powers.

THE PAPAL SUCCESSION.

July 21.—Cardinal Oreglia, in the presence of the other cardinals in Rome, officially proclaims the death of Pope Leo XIII.; the cardinals meet and appoint Mgr. Merry del Val temporary secretary of the Consistorial Congregation.

July 22.—The body of Leo XIII. is removed to St. Peter's.

July 23.—The body of Leo XIII. lies in state in St. Peter's and is viewed by thousands of people.

July 25.—Leo XIII. is buried in St. Peter's.

July 31.—The cardinals are locked within the apartments at the Vatican prepared for the Conclave.

August 1-3.—Two ballots for Pope are taken each day by the Conclave without result.

August 4.—The seventh ballot of the Conclave results in the election of Giuseppe Sarto, Patriarch of Venice, to succeed Leo XIII. as Pope; he takes the name of Pius X. (see page 191).

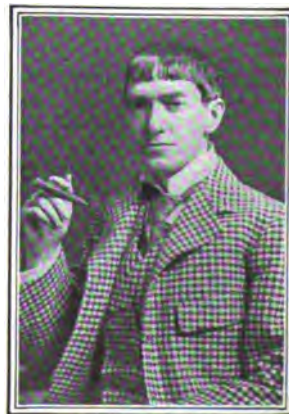
August 5.—It is announced that Cardinal Oreglia has been appointed Camerlengo.

August 9.—Pius X. is crowned Pope in St. Peter's, in the presence of 70,000 people.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

July 22.—A general strike, involving 40,000 persons, is declared at Baku, Russia.

July 23.—The battleship *King Edward VII.*, said to be the largest in the world, is launched at Devonport, England.... The



THE LATE PHIL MAY.

United States cruiser *Galveston* is launched at Richmond, Va.

July 24.—There is a serious decline of stocks in Wall Street, and two failures are announced.

July 25.—The Turkish cruiser *Medjidia* is launched at the Cramp yards.

July 27.—In a railway accident near Glasgow, Scotland, fifteen persons are killed and more than thirty injured....Thirteen prisoners escape from the California penitentiary at Folsom, killing a guard and wounding two officers....Seven hundred persons are drowned by the flood at Chefu, China.

July 29.—By the explosion of two powder magazines near Lowell, Mass., more than twenty persons are killed and fifty injured.

August 4.—The International Wireless Telegraphy Congress is opened at Berlin, Germany....Charles M. Schwab resigns the presidency of the United States Steel Corporation and is succeeded by W. E. Corey (see page 340).

August 5.—Andrew Carnegie makes a gift of \$2,500,000 to Dunfermline, Scotland, his native town.

August 9.—Italian anarchists make an assault on M. Combes, the French premier.

August 10.—More than one hundred persons are killed by the burning of an electric train in the tunnel of the underground railway in Paris.

August 11.—A hurricane passing over Jamaica destroys fifty lives and \$15,000,000 worth of property.

August 15.—It is announced that Joseph Pulitzer has given \$2,000,000 to found a school of journalism in connection with Columbia University, New York City.

August 17.—A grand review of United States battleships and cruisers is held on Long Island Sound, off the entrance to Oyster Bay, President Roosevelt's summer home.

August 19.—Dan Patch paces a mile in 1 minute and 59 seconds, lowering the world's harness record.

August 20.—The Grand Army of the Republic, in annual encampment at San Francisco, elects Gen. John C. Black, of Illinois, commander-in-chief.

OBITUARY.

July 23.—Gen. Cassius Marcellus Clay, of Kentucky, ex-United States minister to Russia and an eminent anti-slavery leader, 93....Francis Marion Wells, the sculptor, 55.

July 23.—Frederick W. Holls, member of the International Court at The Hague, 46 (see page 302).... Benjamin L. Farjeon, the English novelist, 70.

July 24.—Rev. Dr. E. Walpole Warren, of New York, 64.... Ex-Congressman Ellery A. Hibbard, of New Hampshire, 77.

July 25.—Ex-Congressman John M. Clancy, of Brooklyn, N. Y., 66.

July 26.—Sir John Rigby, formerly Lord Justice of British Appeal, 69....Representative Robert H. Foerderer, of the fourth Pennsylvania district, 43.

July 27.—President Frederick J. Kimball, of the Norfolk & Western Railway Company, 49....Mr. Donald Nicol, M.P., 59.

July 28.—John G. Long, United States consul-general at Cairo, 57.

July 30.—A. B. Youngson, successor to P. M. Arthur



THE LATE WILLIAM E. DODGE.

(Mr. Dodge, who died at Bar Harbor on August 9, represented the very highest type of American merchant-philanthropist. Like his father before him, he had been identified with innumerable religious and charitable enterprises in New York, and to each one he had given, not merely his money, but his personal service and intelligent interest. For seventy years the father and son had been active in the public life of city, State, and nation.)

as grand chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, 54.

August 1.—Dr. Hamilton L. Smith, formerly professor at Hobart College, Geneva, N. Y., 85....Rev. George M. Vanderlip, author and journalist, 71.

August 3.—Mrs. Jane Margaret Davenport Lander, a distinguished actress, 54.

August 4.—John Doerhoefer, tobacco manufacturer of Louisville, Ky., 54.

August 5.—Phil May, the English artist and illustrator, 39.

August 9.—William E. Dodge, of New York, the well-known merchant-philanthropist, 71....Onno Klott, the Austrian historian, 81.

August 10.—Gen. E. E. Bryant, of Wisconsin, 68.

August 12.—Albert E. K. G. von Levetzow, formerly president of the German Reichstag, 75.

August 13.—Dr. William S. Playfair, the noted English specialist in women's diseases, 67.

August 14.—Dan Parmelee Eels, a well-known capitalist of Cleveland, Ohio, 78.

August 16.—Noah Brooks, the well-known author and journalist, 73.

August 19.—Prof. Friedrich Dieterich, of Berlin, an authority on the grammar, literature, and philosophy of the Arabs, 82.

SOME GERMAN AND OTHER CARTOONS OF THE
MONTH.



THEODORE ROOSEVELT, PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

THE German cartoonists have of late been paying their compliments to the United States with an unwonted frequency, and it may interest our readers to see reproductions of a few of their latest efforts. The most noticeable, naturally, will be *Kladderadatsch's* portrait of President Roosevelt, on the opposite page. Americans must not be offended at this German caricature of our strenuous President, for our own press has



THE KIEL FESTIVITIES, — A GERMAN VIEW.
From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).



WHAT WE MAY EXPECT IN THE YEAR OF GRACE 1920!
(The streets of Berlin are no longer cleared for empty court carriages, but for Uncle Sam, who rides through them on his golden calf!)

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

published hundreds of caricatures of the strenuous German Emperor of an even more exaggerated sort.

There is some well-pointed satire in the cartoon of Uncle Sam riding his golden calf down the main street of Berlin to the obscuring of the royal equipages, in view of the way in which a certain type of the American millionaire has been splurging in Germany during the past season.



THE GREAT POWERS: "Help! help! this huge fellow will smother us all!"
From *Der Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart).

**LOCKED OUT.**

Russia's policy of the "open door" in the far East.
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

On this page will be found an amusing cartoon from still another German weekly—*Ulk*—with a similar motive. It calls attention to the remarkable swarm of the American type of dolphin on the Norwegian coast, this past summer, observed in the immediate proximity of the royal yacht *Hohenzollern*. The reference, of

**DELPHINUS AMERICANUS (AMERICAN DOLPHIN).**

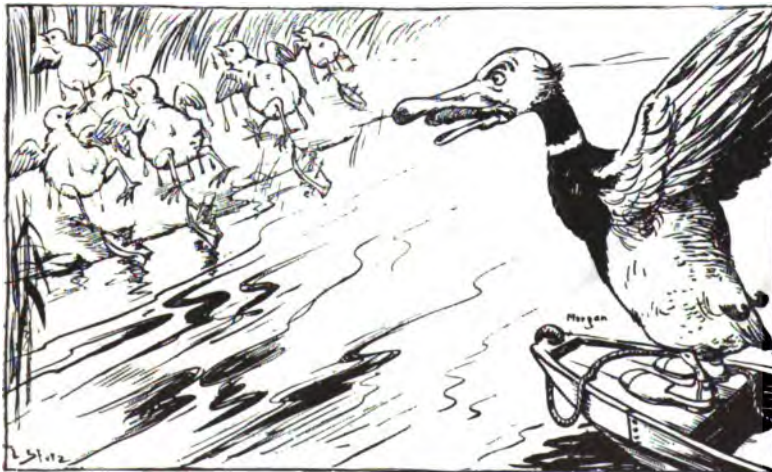
These interesting creatures are visible in unprecedented numbers, this year, on the Norwegian coast.

From *Ulk* (Berlin).

**IT IS GOOD TO SHOOT WHEN FAR AWAY.**

Ferdinand, with a good conscience, is, as usual, when anything is wrong at home, staying in a foreign land.

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

**THE MORGAN SHIPPING TRUST COLLAPSE.**

The old Morgan Duck, which has hatched out a beautiful brood of chickens, tries to call back her offspring to the water.—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

**THE END OF THE SHIPPING TRUST.**

MORGAN: "Goddam! Scarcely is the beautiful ring finished than it has snapped."

From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).



NOTHING BUT MERRY-MAKING!

Folleville-Loubet and Lamourette-Edward in London embrace each other from morning till night. When you're *en fête* you think no evil, so all's for the best. *Très-bien!* Nothing but merry-making!

From *La Silhouette* (Paris).



EDWARD VII.: "Well, didn't I tell you so? Chamberlain wishes you nothing but good."

THE PRESIDENT: "That's just what makes me uneasy."

From *Le Rire* (Paris).



THE WOOING STAGE.

FREE TRADE: "I have no wish to change my name."

From *Glückstrit's Advertiser* (Johannesburg).



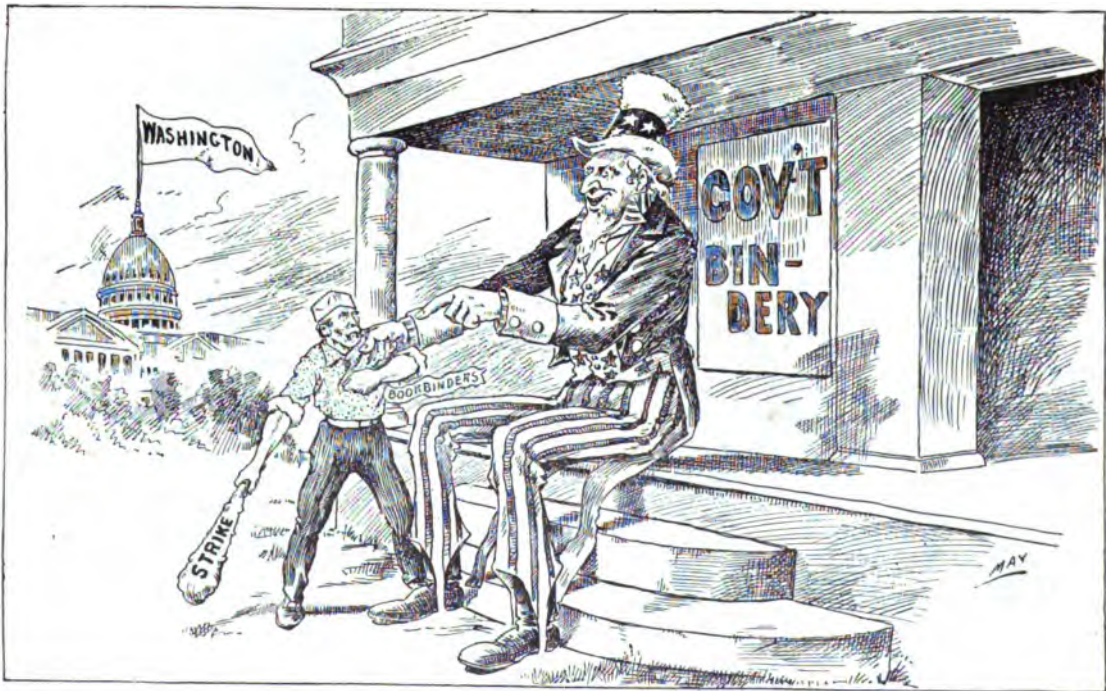
THE LION'S KEEPER: "To be sure, we object to foreigners feeding the animal, but you may throw him any little thing you have about you."

From the *Bulletin* (Sydney).

TIED UP.—From the *World* (New York).

course, is to the way certain rich Americans, with their yachts, were regarded in Germany as having followed the Emperor on his Norwegian cruise for the express purpose of receiving attentions from him. The German press has not shrunk from criticising the Emperor for failing to understand that certain American millionaires are not accounted here at home as distinguished representatives of their country.

Mr. Bush, of the *New York World*, has drawn some strong cartoons during the past month, several of which we reproduce from his original drawings in the present number of the *REVIEW*. On the opposite page is his tribute to General Miles, on the occasion of his retirement, after more than forty years of service in the United States army. We reproduce on this page one of his symbolical cartoons expressing the view that lynch law flourishes because justice is restrained through the tedious processes of criminal law. This cartoon well illustrates the views so vigor-

UNCLE SAM: "Before you declare war, my son, just look up my fighting record."—From the *Journal* (Detroit).

ously expressed last month by Justice Brewer, of the Supreme Court, who argues that there should be no appeals granted in criminal cases.

At the bottom of the opposite page is an interesting cartoon which refers to the attempt of the bookbinders' union in Washington to dictate to the Government regarding the retention of the Government Printing Office of a certain non-union employee. President Roosevelt pointed out with great force the obvious fact that the Constitution and laws of the United States cannot be waived out of deference to the rules and by-laws of a trade-union.

Mr. Rehse, of the *Pioneer Press*, has drawn an ingenious cartoon, reproduced herewith, to illustrate the idea of an elastic currency. When the country is moving its crops there is a great demand for ready cash, which ought to be met by a more flexible financial system than we now possess. Mr. Rehse also, in his own way, calls attention to the law's delays, which give excuse for lynching.



HIS FIRST SURRENDER!—From the *World* (New York).



WHY NOT GIVE JUSTICE A SWIFTER TEAM?

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT: "You see, those galluses ought to have rubber in them, so that when Uncle Sam stoops to move the sheaf there won't be much strain on the buttons."

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



"SHOULD AULD ACQUAINTANCE BE FORGOT?"—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



UNCLE SAM: "Say, Panama, you are henpecked. The only way you can deliver the goods to me is to get a divorce."
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



ON COMMON GROUND.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

THE NEW POPE—A CHARACTER SKETCH.

BY W. T. STEAD.

PIUS X. sits on the throne of Leo XIII., and all the world is asking what manner of man is he who has been elected by the vote of his peers to the loftiest position in Christendom. "Art thou for us or for our adversaries?" is the challenge which all the leaders of the progressive forces of the world address to the new occupant of the Papal See. Whether it is the German Socialist, the French Freethinker, or the Liberal leaders in Britain and the United States, the challenge is ever the same. With right hand on sword-hilt, they stand confronting the prelate who, from being a mere Italian patriarch, has suddenly flashed upon the world as "Pontifex Maximus, Sacerdos Magnus." Yet it is in no spirit of inveterate hostility that the question is asked, for even the most Protestant of Protestants and the most anti-clerical of Freethinkers would rejoice if, from his palace-prison in the Vatican, the new Pontiff were to answer, as did the angel of Joshua, "Nay, but as the Captain of the host of the Lord am I now come."

For the moment, there is no definite response to the challenge of the world, and the ear is filled with conflicting rumors. One day, telegrams assure us that the new Pope is the most uncompromising of the "blacks," who adopted the name of Pius in order to emphasize his entire acceptance of the absolute *non-possumus* of Pio Nono, while, on the other hand, we are assured that the King of Italy is delighted with his election, and that we may confidently look forward to a *rapprochement* between the Vatican and the Quirinal. Still more important and bewildering were the conflicting reports as to his attitude in relation to the Christian Democratic movement from which so much is hoped by the Liberal Catholics of Italy and elsewhere. At first it was regarded as the one fixed point about him that he was a Catholic Socialist of Cardinal Manning's type; but hardly have we made up our minds to accept this version than a Clerical organ in Rome declares that he is the resolute opponent of a Christian democracy. The same conflict of evidence prevails as to the significance of his election. One day we are told that his majority over Cardinal Rampolla represents the ascendancy of the Triple Alliance, which through Austria imposed its veto upon the election of Cardinal Rampolla. No sooner has this version obtained acceptance than we are assured

with equal emphasis that the selection of Sarto was the equivalent to a defiance of the Triple Alliance; that Sarto, if he did not exactly represent the Italian Irredenta, nevertheless represented that portion of Italy which was in the most violent opposition to Austria.

AN IMPRESSIVE ELECTION.

We may, however, dismiss all these conflicting stories,—pairing one off against the other, the result is zero,—and endeavor with such material as is available to picture to ourselves the new figure, stately and commanding, which has emerged from comparative obscurity and is now seated on the loftiest throne in the center of a halo or aureole formed by the traditional glories of two thousand years.

There was something peculiarly impressive in the reports which appeared of the ancient and stately ceremonial by which, in accordance with an immemorial usage, the latest successor of St. Peter was chosen to wear the triple crown. It is on such occasions that the Roman Church is enabled to make that appeal to the imaginations of mankind to which humanity, both civilized and uncivilized, has ever made ready response. The walling up of the Conclave in which the sixty-two cardinals and princes of the Church were voluntarily imprisoned, shut off from all influences of the outer world, in order that they might devote themselves to the solemn task of electing the vicegerent of the Almighty, powerfully impressed even the least reflective and most indifferent of men. Of course, there are the usual sneers at the intrigues of the wire-pullers of the Vatican, but it is not well to scrutinize too closely the machinery by which the effects are produced. No one can deny that the whole proceedings were characterized by a dignity worthy of the occasion. After all, one need not be a Roman Catholic to appreciate the way in which a great function has been observed. The Catholic Church is one of the assets of humanity, and it is satisfactory to find that in the ease and dignity, the splendor and efficiency, of its work it shows no sign of being impaired by age. Neither can it be denied that if we judge the Conclave as any other human institution devised by mankind for the purpose of attaining a given result, it has vindicated itself by the election of Pius X. Infallibility



POPE PIUS X.

does not reside in conclaves, and cardinals, like other men, may make mistakes; but neither a Republican nor a Democratic convention in America, meeting together for the choice of a Presidential candidate, could have shown more good sense or a truer instinct, or held a freer election, than did the cardinals who were walled up in the Conclave.

There were sixty two of them,—old men, for the most part, and an immense majority natives of Italy. Among these, some French, Austrian, German, Polish, Spanish, Portuguese, and Belgians were all represented. The only English-speaking man among them was Cardinal Gibbons. It is rather significant that no British subject was present in the Conclave, and that the only representative of the English-speaking race who took part—and a leading part—in the election of Pius X. was Cardinal Gibbons, the Archbishop of Baltimore. Since the Hague Conference broke up, four years ago, there has been no international assembly which so much deserved to be regarded as representative of the world as the electoral college at Rome, for the constituents of the great electors of the red-hatted princes of the Church are scattered over the whole world, and divided up into the twelve hundred bishoprics into which the world is mapped out by the successor of the Fisherman.

RAMPOLLA'S STRENGTH AT THE POLL.

The great surprise of the Conclave to the outside world, and also to many who believed themselves to be of the inner council of the Roman Catholic Church, was the extraordinary strength of Cardinal Rampolla. It has been regarded, hitherto, as part of the unwritten law of the Church that the secretary of state of one Pope is never allowed to succeed directly to the Papal chair. Cardinal Rampolla, for a long time, had held that high office, and had directed the foreign policy of Leo XIII. It was my good fortune, on two occasions, to have lengthy interviews with the great cardinal. He is a southern Italian,—a Sicilian,—adroit, subtle, a diplomatist to his finger-tips, quick to flatter and ready to seize and take advantage of all openings in debate or discussion. It was known for some time past that he had entertained the hope that some time he might become Pope; but no one was prepared to find his name heading the poll the first four votes of the Conclave, nor to see that in the fourth ballot he came within three votes of obtaining an absolute majority of the Conclave. That he did not succeed in carrying the election is popularly attributed to the direct intervention of the representatives of Germany and Austria, who, despite the denials which emanate from

Vienna, are said to have intimated that they objected to the election of Cardinal Rampolla on account of his notorious leanings toward France. Austria, in old times, was one of the Catholic powers which had a right of veto upon the appointment of any candidate who, in the opinion of the Austrian Emperor, was unfit to sit in the chair of St. Peter; but the use of the veto has fallen into desuetude of late years, and it seems somewhat of an anachronism since the Pope ceased to be a temporal sovereign. At the same time, although the Pope may still be a prisoner at the Vatican, he is more potent in European politics than he was in the days when he was permitted to misrule the states of the Church.

THE CONCLAVE TURNS TO SARTO.

There seems to be no doubt that the intimation of the Austrian Emperor carried great weight with the Conclave. The cardinals protested that they would take no account of the prohibition, and treated the intimation as an infringement of their independence. Cardinal Rampolla himself, while declaring that he would on no account accept the burden of the Pontificate, which he believed himself to be incapable of bearing, strongly protested against the undue interference of Austria; but it was not until after this intimation that the choice of Sarto became a certainty. In the first two ballots, Sarto had not even been second in the running. In the first, he had five votes; in the second, ten; in the third, twenty-one; in the fourth, twenty-four; in the fifth, he headed the poll with twenty-seven, and on Monday evening he secured a majority of the whole Conclave of thirty-five. I say "secured," but this expression must not be held to imply that Cardinal Sarto in any way sought election. The evidence is tolerably conclusive on the point that, despite his having been, according to popular report, first singled out by Leo XIII. as his successor, he had no ambition to become Pope. When he left Venice he mildly expostulated with those of his friends who came to bid him farewell, declaring that he would soon be back again, as he had taken a return ticket. It appears, says the London *Times* correspondent at Rome, that the most strenuous opponent of the election of Pius X. was Cardinal Sarto himself. When the ballots began to turn in his favor he was filled with a most unfeigned dismay. On Monday morning he broke down altogether, and implored the cardinals to find some other candidate, as he neither could nor would accept the tiara. It needed the most urgent insistence on the part of Cardinal Ferrara before he could be induced to say that he would not make the *gran rifiuto*.

But even then he seemed a broken man until the moment when he went out to deliver the public benediction. When, after his election, Cardinal Rampolla came to kiss his hand, the newly elected Pontiff clasped his late rival in the Conclave to his breast and addressed him with great emotion, while tears streamed down the cheeks of both. Despite his reluctance, however, he was elected on the final ballot by fifty votes, ten times as many as those with which he started, while ten remained faithful to the end to Cardinal Rampolla, and two to Cardinal Gotti. After the final ballot nothing remained to be done but for the Pope to be presented to the people in the ancient, time-honored formula: "Annuntio vobis gaudium magnum; habemus Pontificem eminentissimum Cardinalem Josephum Sarto, qui sibi nomen imposuit Pium Decimum."

A PEASANT PONTIFF.

And what kind of man is he whom we have as Pope? Those who caught the first glimpse of the tall white figure who faced the cheering crowd in the first hour after his election report that the features of the new Pontiff gave them the impression of a tall and decidedly pleasant and good-looking face. Few cardinals were so little known as he in Rome. According to Raffaele di Cesare, the historian of the Conclave of 1878, Cardinal Sarto had come to Rome as little as possible, and stayed there as short a time as possible. His whole career had been passed outside Rome, but entirely inside Italy. His predecessor had been Nuncio in Belgium, had traveled much, and was familiar with courts and cabinets long before he became Pope. Cardinal Sarto, as he pathetically reminded the cardinals of the Conclave, had never strayed beyond his parish or his diocese. He does not speak any language, not even his own, with ease. His Italian is mixed with a Venetian patois; his German is as imperfect as his French; of English, he knows nothing. Di Cesare, whom I have already quoted, declares that in breadth of education he is one of the most respected members of the Sacred College. His learning, however, will conduce less to his popularity with mankind at large than the more genial traits which render him kin to all of us. He is a peasant, and the son of a peasant; his sisters, who kept his house when he was Bishop of Mantua and Patriarch of Venice, still wear the peasants' costume familiar to the Western world on the shoulders of the humble organ-grinders. He is the first Pope for a century and a half who is of plebeian origin. Leo XIII., like Pius IX., sprang from a noble family. Sarto sprang

as much from the common people as Abraham Lincoln himself. His brother is an innkeeper in Mantua. One of his sisters married a tobaccoist and the other a sacristan of the church in which the present Pope had officiated for ten years as parish priest. His manner of life is frugal, nor did he, when prince of the Church, forsake the simplicity which was natural to a peasant; but although of the common people, he is one of Nature's gentlemen, and among the few books that have been mentioned as proceeding from his pen is a "Manual of Politeness" which he wrote for the benefit of his parish clergy. The papers abound with stories of his geniality and humor. Unlike many of his brothers, he does not disdain the use of tobacco; he is passionately fond of music, and is himself a musician who, with the aid of Perosi, may be expected to effect considerable revival of church music.

They say of him, also, that he is the devoted son of an affectionate mother, and that he liked nothing so much, when his administrative duties were over at Venice, as to sit down with three cronies (who were often members of the Venetian municipality) to a four-cornered card-game *tresette*, at which he would recuperate his energies, his old mother the while sitting with her needlework in a corner of the room, enjoying the merry talk of her distinguished son. Of the many personal descriptions which have come to hand, all seem to speak of his splendid presence, his handsome face, his bright and merry eye, and the rippling humor which plays around his lips. He is a tremendous worker, keeps his clergy in good order, and was distinctly a rigid disciplinarian.

A MODEL PRIEST AND BISHOP.

Joseph Sarto, who will be known in history as Pius X., was born at Riese, in the Venetian province of Treviso, on June 2, 1835. Being a promising scholar, he was sent from the village school to the college at Castel Franco, whence he passed to the central seminary at Padua, where he graduated with much distinction and was ordained priest in the cathedral of Castel Franco on September 18, 1858. He was then twenty-three years of age. Until he was thirty-one, he was employed as country curate. When he was thirty-two, he was appointed parish priest. Eight years later, the Bishop of Treviso, recognizing his ability, made him not only a canon of the cathedral and chancellor of the diocese, but the spiritual director of the college. From these posts he passed by an easy transition to be dean of the chapter, and after serving in an interregnum as vicar-

general was appointed suffragan by the new bishop. His eloquence, his piety, his energy, marked him out for further promotion, and in 1884 he became Bishop of Mantua. There was a hitch about his appointment. The Mantuans claimed that they ought to have been consulted as to his nomination, but the ecclesiastical authorities prevailed, and as soon as Sarto had established himself in the episcopal palace at Mantua he disarmed all opposition by his winning tact, his urbanity, and his kindly humor.

As he had been a model parish priest, so at Mantua he became a model bishop. His diocese came to be regarded as a standard up to which other bishops were exhorted to bring theirs. After nine years, Leo made him a cardinal, and almost immediately afterward created him Patriarch of Venice. In the hierarchy of the Church of Rome, a patriarch is higher than an archbishop. At the head of all stands the Pope; then come the patriarchs, of whom there are three,—the Patriarch of the Indies, the Patriarch of Lisbon, and the Patriarch of Venice. Under the patriarch comes the primate, and then after the primate, archbishops, bishops, and suffragans. As Sarto's nomination to the Bishopric of Mantua was contested by the Mantuans on the ground that they had not been consulted, his appointment to the Patriarchate of Venice was opposed by the Italian Government on similar grounds. It was only when the historians and antiquarians had been able to demonstrate that the Patriarchate of Venice was antecedent to the ancient Republic of Venice, which had only enjoyed the right of nomination as a temporary privilege which it could not bequeath to its successor, the Kingdom of Italy, that the Italian Government gave way, and Sarto was free to achieve as great a success in Venice as he had already won in Mantua.

INTEREST IN SOCIAL PROBLEMS.

His task was not an easy one. In 1894, there was considerable anticlerical agitation going on in Italy, of which Venice was the hotbed. The bishop, however, was not long in rallying round the patriarchal throne men of all classes in Venice, especially those among whom the revolutionary atheists had made their chief propaganda. According to all the accounts which reached this country since the election, he promises to be a kind of Italian Cardinal Manning. Living in homely style, meeting and putting on a footing of perfect equality men of all ranks, he was soon recognized as a much more genuine and earnest democrat than most of the Liberal leaders. A correspondent says:

He took an almost passionate interest in social questions, and threw himself heart and soul into all enterprises for the amelioration of the lot of the very poor. He lent his aid to the institution of rural banks, co-operative societies, benevolent associations,—to any scheme, in fact, for the improvement of the condition of the working classes. He did not even fear to come forward himself in person in disputes between capital and labor, and it was, thanks to his good offices, that a serious strike of cigarmakers in Venice was brought to a satisfactory conclusion. And at the same time he succeeded in so winning the confidence of the official world that no word has ever been said against the influence which he exercised upon the people at large. His great aim, the object which he had most at heart, was to make Venice a religious city. How far he succeeded it is difficult to say, but at least he had all the semblance of success, and in the battle which he fought with the Socialists on their own ground he was not worsted.

RELATIONS WITH THE STATE.

Whatever may be his views as to the great feud on which are divided the occupants of the Quirinal and those of the Vatican, there is no question as to the tact and good-feeling which he has displayed in his relations with the Italian authorities at Venice. The Italian Government at Venice is, of course, a very different thing in the eyes of the Vatican from the Italian King in Rome. Nevertheless, the fact that he was prompt to wait upon the Italian King on his visit to Venice is remembered in his favor, even by those who note with some alarm the fact that he did not notify his election to the King of Italy, and that therefore all state officials were forbidden to take any part in the popular rejoicings which invariably accompany the election of a new Pope in Italy. When the King of Italy visited Venice, the patriarch simply took his place in the antechamber with the rest of the public. When the King sent him an apology for keeping him waiting, he replied that he had no wish except to take his turn in audience with the others who had come for the same purpose. The significance of this action on his part was emphasized by the report current in those days that Cardinal Rampolla had given him a free hint that he could not do honor to the usurper. If such a hint were given, it fell upon deaf ears. Cardinal Sarto not only visited the King, but took part with the Italian Minister of Public Instruction in the ceremony when the foundation stone of the new Campanile was laid, last April.

SIMPLICITY OF LIFE.

It must be admitted that his record is wholly in his favor. All who know him speak warmly of his sincerity, his generosity, and his sympathy with the people. He was a Rosminian, but he was too obedient a son of the Church to

refuse to submit when Leo XIII. condemned some forty propositions of Rosmini. Once a Rosminian, however, always a Rosminian, and the Jesuits naturally looked somewhat askance at the advent of Cardinal Sarto to the supreme place in the Catholic Church. They have, however, ways and means of their own for reducing recalcitrant Popes to obedience, and they envisage the situation with considerable fortitude.

Cardinal Sarto is said to be no politician in the ordinary sense of the word, but if politics consist in the application of common sense to the management of human affairs, he seems to have displayed no little political ability in past years. He is a good man, all are agreed, and the report is persistent that the late Pope told him, shortly before his death, that he would succeed him as Pope, and that he felt sure the interests of the Church would be safe in his hands. Since his accession to the Papacy, he has displayed great simplicity of manners, and the artists who came to model his bust were astonished to find that he refused to allow them to kneel, and that the successor to the Apostles, who is also the heir to the Cæsars, noted the time by drawing from his pocket a nickel watch with a very shabby watch-guard.

In his first speech, when receiving the diplomatic representatives accredited to the Vatican, he declared that it was his earnest desire to see the peace of the world strengthened, and it

would ever be his endeavor to bring about that end. The Pope, of course, according to his theory, is the natural head of the supreme tribunal constituted for the preservation of the peace of the world. But he is himself excluded from the Hague Court, and it is to be hoped that he will work outside with zeal in the propaganda of peace, and that he will do his utmost to free the Papacy from the reproach of being prejudiced in its consideration of international disputes by its devotion to its lost temporal power.

AN ADVOCATE OF PEACE AND A BELIEVER IN AMERICA.

The most remarkable utterance, however, which was reported in the early days of his Papacy was the remark which he is said to have made to Cardinal Gibbons, who waited upon him with a deputation of American pilgrims. The Pope is said to have declared that he shared the belief of his visitors in the great destiny of their nation. He added this remarkable expression of his own belief, that the light which came from the United States would rejuvenate Europe. It is singular that the first utterance of the new Pontiff should have been so emphatic a declaration of his belief in the Americanization of the world. It would seem that Pius X. will be at least as American in his sympathies as his predecessor.

THE CONCLAVE AND THE POPE.

BY TALCOTT WILLIAMS.

SOME fifteen years have passed since, midway between our day and the departure of the temporal power from the Pope, I asked a distinguished member of the English diplomatic service, himself a Catholic, fresh from a confidential mission to the Vatican, if the Roman Curia, now that the Pope was no longer sovereign, was developing and training minds as subtle, as powerful, and as skilled in the management and manipulation of men and affairs as in the centuries gone by. In those centuries, a small Italian state, plus the Roman Church, had to be reckoned with as one of the greater powers of Europe and its representatives respected at any court as one of its greater ambassadors.

"The Italian mind is unchanged," he replied, in substance; "as subtle, as keen, and as able as ever. I see no change between the men of

the Curia to-day and thirty years ago." But the old opportunities and training are gone. The Church is no longer a state. The Conclave which has just chosen Pius X. has revealed and recorded the change which this acute observer noted, and which then, when a moiety of the College was still of Pio Nono's appointment, was but half completed. The temporal power had for the Roman communion many and manifest advantages; but the least of them, the inviolability of the Pope and his position as sovereign, has been, because most visible, most insisted upon. The greatest of these advantages has been least asserted. Its loss and its counterbalancing advantages have but now, by loss, become visible and valuable. The possession of a state, small though it was, the keystone of the Peninsular arch and the center of the movement

and intrigue which centered about Italy, gave to the rulers of the Roman Church the work and the training of statesmen. They alone among ecclesiastics in the modern world ruled cities and administered provinces. They shared the wider, if misleading, life of this world. At every court, they represented more than a spiritual power. Their careers were the careers of men of every ruling class in Europe,—in some evil days and in evil case more closely assimilated with this life than was seemly. Leo XIII. had himself been at great courts. He had shared, from early manhood, in the more delicate work of the diplomatist. He had for thirty years ruled Perugia and maintained order over a territory small but taxing every power of the administrator. His predecessor had visited the New World on an important diplomatic mission, personally knew the rulers of central Europe, and as ruler of Spoleto saved the future Emperor of the French from imminent execution in one of his early revolutionary attempts.

ANCIENT NOBILITY OF THE CURIA.

Both were of noble birth. Careers like theirs drew to the services of the Church the able and aspiring youth of the ruling families of central and southern Italy. From their ranks, the Papacy was for centuries served by men whose success as civil administrators of the estates of the Church left much to be desired by their subjects, but whose place in the privileged and advantaged circle of every European country was theirs by birth, by training, and by the exercise of power and the enjoyment of post and place, which, if held on the narrow field of St. Peter's patrimony, were still the same in kind as the foremost places in any country. The early, long, and habitual exercise of rule, forget it as one may in the perpetual changes of democratic institutions, imparts a training, confers a character, and gives an ascendancy in the affairs of life nothing else bestows. The Roman Curia up to thirty years ago possessed an attraction and offered advantages to the princely caste of Europe nowhere else open. It combined the rule of this world and the influence and assurance of the next.

THE CONCLAVE THAT ELECTED LEO.

When the Conclave met, on February 19, 1878, to elect Cardinal Pecci Leo XIII., there sat in the College a Hohenlohe from Germany and a Howard from England, a Schwartzenburg from Austria, younger brother of the head of the house, scions of the princely families of Chigi-Albani and Monaco-Valetta,—a Sforza had but just been removed by death,—while Lucien

Bonaparte represented the last European house to raise itself by its own ability to an unchallenged position in the royal caste. The list was thick-sprinkled with members of lesser noble



CARDINAL OREGLIA.

families. There were many men in it of lowly birth. Not a body of its place and importance in Europe was as democratic; but, none the less, its tone was aristocratic. If its members were princes of the Church, many also were princes of this world. They and their companions were men of the upper castes of Europe. By birth, by association, by kinship, by education, they were part of that network of intimate personal relations which make the ruling and dominant strata of all European countries practically one. Such a body elected a man of this training, type, order, and acquaintance, in Joachim Pecci, a scholar and a saint, if ever either lived; but a scholar as those of gentle birth are scholars and a saint of Cæsar's household.

DEMOCRACY IN THE RECENT CONCLAVE.

The Conclave which met a month ago, twenty-five years and five months after its predecessor, had wholly changed. But one man, Cardinal Oreglia, himself a man of good birth, survived of the earlier college. All others were of the creation of Leo. A believer in democracy, he had answered to the spirit of the

day in his elevation of cardinals. Still more, he had been guided by the men from whom he had to choose. Stripped of its temporalities and offering to its chosen sons in its own service no secular career, the Church no longer finds its College filled with scions of princely houses. You will look in vain for any member of the mediatized houses of Europe or of the royal caste. A Chigi stood on guard at the door of the Conclave, but none of his name voted within, where one has not often been absent, and one of its members, Cardinal Chigi, led the successful faction in the longest contest of modern times which in 1670 elected Cardinal Altieri. There are great Roman families which have not been without a cardinal for generations together. No single great Roman name is now present in the College, though many are of a secondary rank; but the list is thick with the names of men of humble birth, some born of poor peasants, like Sarto, elected, Gotti, a dock laborer's son, and Svampa, a shepherd's.

The Spanish cardinals revive the earlier tradition. The cardinals from Sicily are of the class from whom cardinals were earlier selected. So are some of the Roman cardinals. But there has not been in centuries a College of whom so few were well-born and so many men who had risen from a lowly origin and owed their all to the Church which had honored them and which they had faithfully served.

In this Conclave, it has become plain to all the world that the center of gravity for the Roman communion has shifted. It was once swayed and colored by the state it controlled, small though it was. Its higher ecclesiastics felt the atmosphere of affairs at Rome. To-day, the Roman Church is a church, and a state but in memory. Unconsciously, it has accepted and is accepting the separation between church and state the modern world decrees. Even in our own American cities, the man with a political memory of thirty years back can see that the political bishop of a prior day is disappearing in the American Roman Catholic Church, to be replaced by men whom all feel are before all things men of religious affairs, accepted by all without jealousy or challenge.

GRADUAL SEPARATION OF CHURCH AND STATE.

This circumstance alone has radically altered and affected the action and atmosphere of the Conclave, but it alone would have done little. More than one of the Popes of the past two centuries has been of humble origin. Clement XIV., most pious and most aspersed of modern Pontiffs, was as completely and wholly preacher and ecclesiastic as the Patriarch of Venice, though

of an order. But the Conclave has not only been colored and composed of men whose life was all of and in the Church. They were, necessarily, men without civic and secular relations. Papal abstention has cut off the Roman ecclesiastic more completely from the active and worldly life about him than is true of Catholic primates even in England and in the United States, one of which by statute still penalizes English Roman sees, while the other separates church and state. In France, republican administrations admonish bishops active in politics like



PRINCE CHIGI.

(Marshal of the Conclave.)

schoolboys. In Spain, Austria, Germany, and Belgium alone do great churchmen still enjoy the close connection with affairs of state they once had in all European lands.

The cardinals met, therefore, not only without birth and without secular careers, but without wide relations or intimate companionship and association with affairs and the advantaged, except in their chosen field in the Church itself. They are all ecclesiastics, and nothing but ecclesiastics. Even their work as Nuncio and apostolic legate relates to spiritual and not to secular affairs. They may, as in Germany, exercise a paramount influence on the policy of the strongest party in the Reichstag, but even this they do as primates and spiritual shepherds, and not, as cardinals once did, in more than one court and government, as statesmen, ministers, and men of affairs.

STRENGTH OF GOTTI AND RAMPOLLA.

These things go to the core of men and decide the inmost turn and temper of their acts and character. The old traditions were strong at Rome. Men looked for the old divisions and the old influences. Not a correspondent predicted the result. Sarto was scarcely noted. As the Conclave met with every medieval ceremony, so men looked to see old conditions control its action. The new Pope not often represents the policy of his predecessor. Leo XIII. turned from the path of Pius IX. Cardinal Ferretti, so differed from Gregory XVI., the friend of Austria, that Metternich sent by the Bishop of Padua to "exclude" the election of Pius IX. Clement XIII., the avowed friend of the Society of Jesus, had as his successor Ganganelli, its sincere opponent.

It was natural for men who had seen this change so often repeated that it has become the rule to expect Leo, the broad, urbane, active, and intellectual Pontiff, to be succeeded by some man who, like Gotti, or even Oreglia, stood for the uncompromising assertion of priestly power. In every organization, there are men prone to believe in it as an end and not as a means. Most of all is this true of ecclesiastics, and the simple, strong, and austere Carmelite monk who as Archbishop of Genoa represents the clerical opposition was the natural choice of such men. He had also German support. The old order which Leo so well represented, the shrewd and skilled Italian policy and management which has for centuries addressed itself to secure suprem-

acy for the Roman See, a policy weighted for him with a solemn sense of a high mission, had its representative in Rampolla, supported by the Sicilian cardinals and the Roman group which had served with him in the Curia. Such an election would have stood for the cool, farsighted course which through so many centuries has made secular politics the handmaiden of spiritual power. Under Leo, it foiled Bismarck in Germany, recovered control in Spain, and kept it unchallenged to the end, ruled Belgium, and was only clouded, at the close, by the revolt of great throngs in Austria and Hungary, and by the wanton intolerance of the republic in France. Ten years ago, when Pecci's course seemed about to be everywhere triumphant, an election which continued the central Italian group in control would have been almost inevitable; but events have chilled the early laurels of the Leonine policy. It had in him a great man of high principle and absorbing faith,—far more than the usual Italian churchman. In lesser hands, it would become mere opportunism.

THE ITALIAN VOTE ALONE NO LONGER ELECTS
A POPE.

When the Conclave met, therefore, it is plain, from current and contemporary Roman, Italian, and European comment, that a division was expected along the old familiar lines of cleavage between the rigorous ecclesiastic party and the party, familiar in all churches, which believes in a perpetual adjustment of ecclesiastical policy to secular needs. If the latest reports, which give Rampolla 24 votes, Serafino Vannutelli 4, Gotti 17, Oreglia 2, Di Pietro 2, Capecelatro 2, and Sarto 5, be approximate, and they are probably more approximate than accurate, they simply indicate that the official party held a third of the Conclave; that the opportunist representative of reaction, Vannutelli, its rigorous candidate, and its reactionary leader had between them 23 votes, and that two men, Pietro and Capecelatro, fit for the compromise of an aged and blameless candidate such as chose Leo XIII., with the liberal Agliardi, protector of Father Murri, divided 5 votes, leaving 7 scattering. When Leo XIII. was elected, as now, out of 64 cardi-



CROWD WATCHING THE SMOKE FROM THE CHIMNEY OF THE SISTINE CHAPEL, SHOWING THAT AN ELECTION HAD NOT YET BEEN COMPLETED.



From a drawing in *L'Illustration*, Paris.

THE CARDINALS ASSEMBLED IN THE SISTINE CHAPEL FOR THE ELECTION OF A NEW POPE.

nals, 24 were foreign. The foreign cardinals in the present College of 65 number 25. In both, the Italian vote alone could not, if it united, elect a Pope, as was once the traditional possibility. But for late recent and numerous creations by Leo, the Italian cardinals would have been in a bare majority. It is not long since there were only thirty-seven Italian cardinals to thirty foreign. If another Pope were to carry this policy another march as far beyond his predecessors as Leo went, at one time, the foreign cardinals would be in a majority.

ROME LESS PREDOMINANT.

His later creations redeemed the balance and gave the Italian party its old predominance, but it was no longer Roman. When he was elected, half the College was clustered about Rome and its outlying members were in close touch and sympathy with well-born Europe. North Italy was now dominant. Of the leading candidates, Gotti, Oreglia, and Sarto, elected, were born in North Italy and Rampolla in Sicily. Only Vannutelli was born in the narrow region from which so many Popes have come. But more than birth or personal association was the simple

circumstance that the men now gathered in the Conclave had been all their lives only ecclesiastics. Leo himself, the old man of ninety-three, with his training in diplomacy and his early associations with courts, was a survival. So are Rampolla and the courtly Vannutelli, in whose arms the Count of Chambord died and all whose associations are of the higher social class. Gotti stood for the religious orders. Of these, there were but five in the Conclave,—Cardinal Steinhuber, a Jesuit, by German relations affiliated to his fellow "regular," Cardinal Celesi, a Benedictine; Cardinal Capececelatro, an Oratorian; Cardinal Pierotti, a Dominican, and Cardinal Vives y Tuto, a Franciscan and also a Spaniard, among whom Cardinal Rampolla was strong, having been Nuncio at Madrid from 1883 to 1888. Sixty of the Conclave were of the secular clergy, and they were, save the few in the score of cardinals who reside in Rome and make up the Curia, bred as priests and were in their earlier years only priests.

THE NEW POPE A SIMPLE PRIEST AND BISHOP.

To such a man the Conclave turned, and now that the result is reviewed, it is clear that to

such a man it was certain to turn. There was a half-century before the French Revolution when Popes were judged for their attitude toward the Society of Jesus. For the first half of the century, men passed on their attitude to the advancing liberal tide which at last engulfed Rome. For twenty-five years, the Pope has been Bishop and not King of Rome. The successor of Leo is a man whom no man knows save as priest and bishop.

He did not, like Gotti, enjoy German support, or Rampolla, Spanish, or, like Vannutelli, have Austrian affiliations born of his relations with Maximilian. Rather as parish priest in Venetia, forty years ago, he probably had his sympathies with the early revolution. He has never resided in Rome. He has no personal Roman connections. His life has been spent more apart from the Eternal City than any predecessor for two centuries, though one, Pius VII., born in the same province at Cesena, was elected in Venice one hundred and four years ago.

The new Pope is wholly separate in life and training from the Curial influences and prepossessions which constitute the bureaucracy of the Vatican. It has been for long years the Roman phrase that the Pope must be *bene natus, bene doctus, et bene vestitus*. In almost uninterrupted succession, they have belonged to the better or noble class of central Italy. This man is the son of obscure folk in an obscure village, one brother keeping an *osteria* and the other being a tobacconist. *Bene doctus* he is because educated by the charity of a man, Dom Bosco, whom he may be privileged to canonize, since he is already beatified. *Bene vestitus* he is only in his robes as cardinal and patriarch. Pius X. began life as a poor parish priest, and his modest stipend of some twenty-five hundred dollars as Archbishop and Patriarch of Venice proved all too large for his personal wants in a spectacular post justifying a lavish expenditure. His whole life has been dedicated to the simple and wholesome work of priest and bishop. He knows naught of courts. He has had no contact with diplomacy. He has known the charities of his diocese better than its politics. Priest, bishop, and ecclesiastic, he has been chosen by priests, bishops, and ecclesiastics.

Of his future policy, it would be temerity to speak. The report that Cardinal Satolli led the movement to him may be true, for in conversation while in this country the cardinal spoke in the highest terms of the dignity, the learning, and the administrative ability of Cardinal Sarto. Doubtless, as in all relations, there were various factors. The veto of Austria, in spite of denials, there is good reason to believe, was

interposed to render impossible the election of Rampolla. The objection of France rendered Gotti an unwise choice. A compromise became necessary. Once this would have turned to a man like Vannutelli, well-born, trained in courts, of the old type. Instead, and this is the significant fact in an election due to more than one factor, the Conclave selected a pious and faithful bishop, not so much from individual choice as because the current of the Church sets toward such men of lowly birth who, as priest, bishop, and archbishop, are known for their devotion to the work of the Church as a church. Pius X. is distinctly the new type of Roman bishop, like many in our cities whom all respect and all who know love. The general course of the recent years he cannot alter. He could not, if he would, and, though those without the communion find it hard to understand, he would not if he could. Being what he is, the presence of another sovereign in Rome is to him the foulest of wrongs, the worst of sacrilege. He will remain the "prisoner of the Vatican." His daily life will continue the etiquette of a captive sovereign.

But the logic of numbers nothing can change. The Pope is no longer, as was even Leo when crowned, the accepted head of a majority of Christendom. His flock of 230,000,000 is outnumbered by the total of Greek and Protestant, 246,000,000. Even in Europe, 160,000,000 look to him, and 170,000,000 to divided shepherds. When Pius IX. was crowned, his flock in Europe was 125,000,000, and those without his fold in European lands but 50,000,000. When Pius VII. took his troubled seat, a century ago, the proportion was nearly four to one. It was nearly eight to one when an Albani, as Clement XI., by the great Bull, *Unigenitus*, began modern ultramontanism. In two hundred years, this assertion of the power of the Pope has seen him pass from the head of all but a ninth of Christendom to the head of less than half. In another century, Protestantism alone will equal Roman Catholicism. But the Roman Pontiff remains for all these changes, which have seen the great growth of modern population flow in Greek and Protestant channels, the august head of a majestic communion in whose many-chapeled shrine all lands and all men worship. To no man on earth do so many of earth's souls turn for comfort, compassion, and consolation, and no blessing is more truly *urbi et orbi*, felt by all the world, blessing those who acknowledge him not. For the deeper spiritual influences of life are not to be bounded by creed and confession, but fall, like the rain, on the just and unjust, the faithless and believing, all alike children of one Father, merciful and full of mercy.

THE LATE FREDERICK WILLIAM HOLLS.

IN the sudden death of Mr. Frederick W. Holls, on July 23, this country has lost one of its best-trained and most versatile men of public affairs. Mr. Holls had just completed his forty-sixth year, and was in the very prime of his intellectual power and capacity for usefulness. With an intense American patriotism, he was at the same time a citizen of the larger republic that embraces broad-minded and peace-loving men of all nations.

His father, George Charles Holls, was born in Darmstadt, Germany, in 1824, of a family both distinguished and cultured. The father of George Charles Holls, after retiring from army service in the Napoleonic wars, had spent the remaining period of his life in the direction of public charities for the city of Darmstadt and the surrounding province. George Charles at first chose the calling of a professor of science; and to that end he studied in German and French polytechnic schools. But he soon found himself strongly drawn toward religious and philanthropic work, and in a few years, through intensely interesting experiences, he had made himself both a practical and a theoretical master of such methods as were then in vogue in Germany for the training of destitute children and the carrying on of other forms of social amelioration. He was a friend of Froebel, and all the most distinguished educators and philanthropists of Germany. While still in the twenties, he rendered distinguished service in Silesia, learning the Polish language in order to be of greater use.

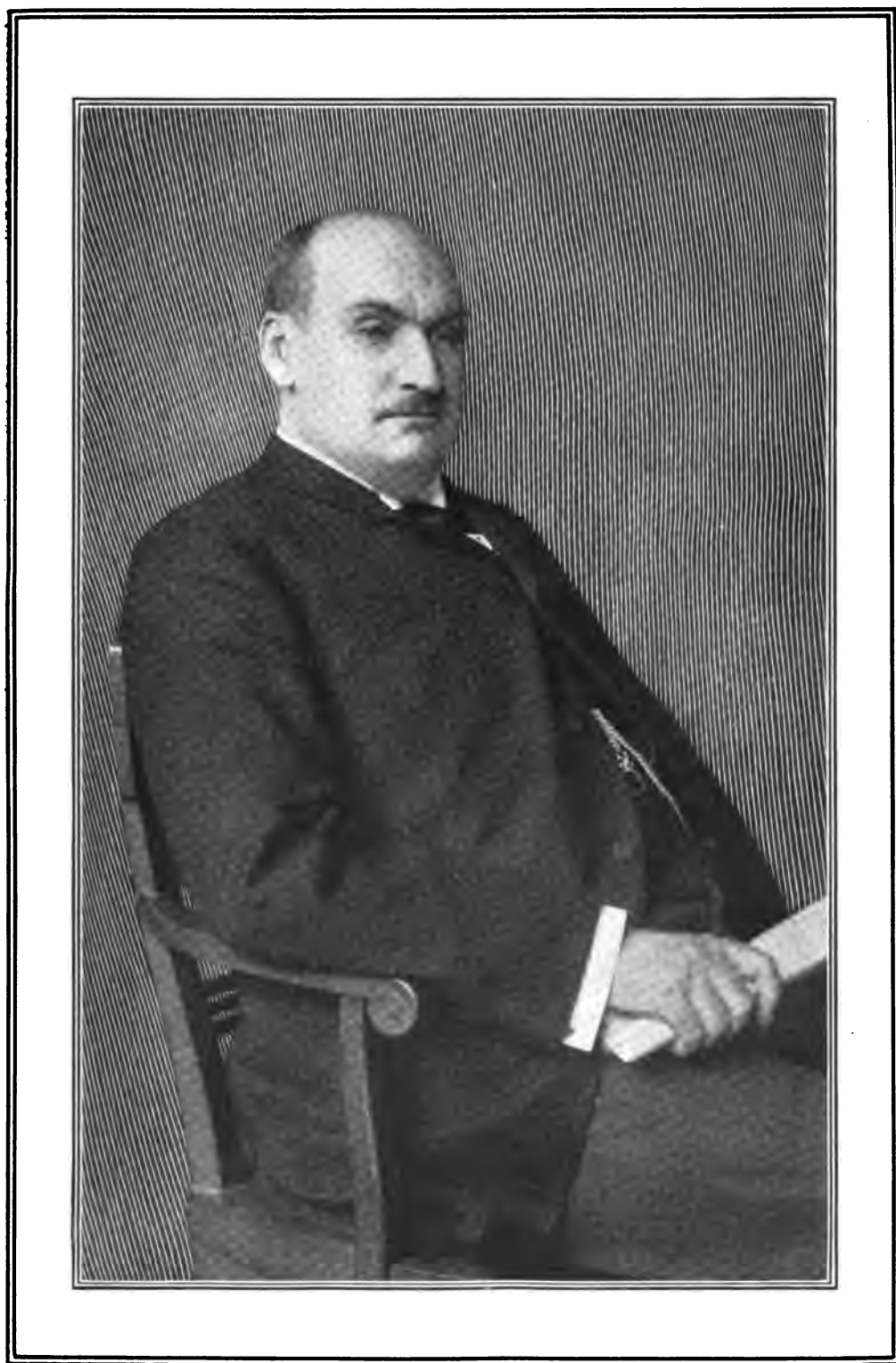
It was in 1851 that he yielded to a strong impulse to come to America. He was then only twenty-seven. His first year was spent in teaching German and French in an academy in Ohio while he learned English. In the next year, he was married in Germany, and it was not long before he was called upon to organize the first Lutheran orphan asylum in this country, the location being Zelienople, Butler County, Pa. He remained at the head of that institution for eleven years. It was there that his only son, Frederick William Holls, was born in 1857. In the year 1866, Dr. Holls having meanwhile entered the Lutheran ministry and risen to a high position in the Church, there was established the Wartburg Orphan Farm School, near Mount Vernon, in Westchester County, a few miles from New York City. Dr. Holls was placed in charge of this institution, which during his administration was pronounced by our foremost authorities to be the most admirable and perfect

institution of its kind ever known. He was a master of religious music, a man of wide and varied tastes and interests, a writer and contributor to the press, and, in short, a man of the very highest type of usefulness. He died in 1886, when his son, then a member of the New York bar, was entering his thirtieth year.

It is only through some such allusions to the career of his father,—a man greater even than his fame,—that one can understand the qualities and the career of Frederick William Holls. He graduated with honor at Columbia College in 1878, and from the law school of the same institution in 1880; but the best part of his education was that which he owed to the training he derived from his father at home as a boy. The father was as convinced and enthusiastic an American as if his ancestors had come over in the *Mayflower*; yet he knew the value of languages and of a cosmopolitan training, and the son grew up with a complete and easy mastery of two great languages. From his early boyhood, also, he was trained in music, of which he obtained a very extensive and thorough knowledge. He was an amateur organist of greater skill than most professionals.

With a father and grandfather eminent in philanthropy and charitable work, it was natural enough that Mr. Holls should have identified himself early with public movements for the bettering of the condition of the people of New York City. He was for many years a leading officer of the Legal Aid Society, which has protected scores of thousands of poor people against oppression and wrong. He was a director of the Charity Organization Society, was active in tenement-house reform work, and was ready to render service wherever called upon.

He was married, in 1889, to Miss Caroline M. Sayles, daughter of F. C. Sayles, Esq., of Rhode Island, whose death was noted several months ago, and who had recently built, at Pawtucket, R. I., a magnificent memorial library, a picture of which was published in this REVIEW, and at the dedication of which Mr. Holls made an address. Mr. and Mrs. Holls, soon after their marriage, made their home on the Hudson River, in the suburbs of Yonkers, where his death occurred. This charming home was a center of hospitality and of cultured life. Many persons of eminence, widely scattered, will long cherish the memory of interesting conversations in Mr. Holls' library, and of rare entertainment in the music-room. Mr. Holls was an omnivor-



THE LATE FREDERICK WILLIAM HOLLS.

ous reader, with a prodigious memory ; and he possessed a large and well-selected library, rich in historical, biographical, and political works.

While engaged for some twenty-two or three years in the practice of law in New York City, he was always intensely interested in politics and public questions ; and as a Republican, had participated actively in every national campaign for nearly a quarter of a century. He was in regular demand where the campaign committees desired a speaker able to appeal in their own language to Germans of the best class in such cities, especially, as Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Louis. The only elective office which he ever held was that of a member of the great constitutional convention which ten years ago revised the organic law of the State of New York. Ambassador Choate presided over that convention, and Secretary Root was its leading member on the floor. Both these men will bear ready testimony to the indefatigable services rendered them by Mr. Holls, who was chairman of the committee on education, a prominent member of the committee on cities, and a prompt authority on many points that arose involving the past legal or constitutional history of New York, or comparison with the systems of other States.

As he grew older, his interest in foreign policy and international problems was constantly increasing. He visited Europe almost every summer, and became ever more widely acquainted there with leading public men. He was especially well known in Germany, where in recent years he had established a branch of his legal firm, and where his long and greatly prized friendship with Dr. Andrew D. White made him always at home at the American embassy. From the very moment of the first announcement of the Czar's idea of an international conference for the discussion of disarmament and the promotion of peace, Mr. Holls was an enthusiastic supporter of the plan. Without disparagement of any one else, it may be said that to him, and, indeed, to him almost alone, must be attributed the gradual arousing of President McKinley's interest in the conference, and the final determination of our government to be represented by a large and strong delegation.

Mr. Holls' activity in the matter had made it natural that he should be sent to The Hague, and he preferred to go in the capacity of the delegation's secretary and executive officer. His wide acquaintance in Europe, and his knowledge of French and Spanish, as well as of German, made it possible for him to be of enormous service, not only to the American delegation, but also to the Hague Conference as a whole. Every leading European member of the conference,

whether English, French, Russian, German, or otherwise, has ever since been ready to testify to the remarkable record made by Mr. Holls in the whole work of the conference. It happened that the disarmament proposals came to naught, while most unexpectedly the conference was diverted—largely through American influence—into the more fruitful field of international arbitration. Mr. Holls was the American member of the great committee which drafted the arbitration treaty. He showed unexpected resources of knowledge in the sphere of international law, and when the conference was over he wrote a book on its work and achievements that will long make his name known to students of history and international relations.

He had long been an intimate friend of President Roosevelt, who had only a few weeks ago asked him to umpire the adjustment of the German and English claims against Venezuela. He possessed the high distinction of being a member of the permanent international Hague tribunal, having been appointed to that office by the King of Siam. Whatever future public honors might have been in store for him, he had reached a position of influence and authority in the discussion of affairs which had already brought him world-wide recognition.

There was something, at times, in his directness and frankness that seemed to men who did not know him well, or who were of feebler convictions, to be tactless and aggressive; but in these days of over-tactfulness and complaisance it is refreshing to know a man who has strong views and opinions, and who never hesitates to assert them and is ready to fight for them. Men of complete candor and intellectual honesty in public affairs are not as numerous as one might wish for. Mr. Holls lived and thought upon a high plane, and strove for large rather than for petty ends. In the midst of the hurly-burly of professional, political, business, and social life, he never flinched from his full share of work ; yet he still, somehow, found time for the pursuits of a thinker, a scholar, and a man of taste. With a remarkable sense of humor, his conversation sparkled with anecdote, and his letters were full of wit and pithy description. From a letter that Dr. Edward Everett Hale has written to express his own sorrow in the loss of Mr. Holls, we may quote the following sentences :

I used to write to him every month to ask him what secrets there were which I might publish on the house-tops in our journal. And so often, at least, I used to receive one of his wise, entertaining, vital letters, full of the suggestions of that extraordinary insight which was, once and again, of such service to the country.



COTTON HARVEST IN THE MISSISSIPPI DELTA.

(On the line of the Southern Railway, near Greenville, Miss.)

THE COTTON CROP OF TO-DAY.

BY RICHARD H. EDMONDS.

(Editor and general manager of the *Manufacturers' Record*, Baltimore, Md.)

SINCE 1880, the South has raised 180,000,000 bales of cotton, worth at the price paid to the growers \$7,500,000,000. During that period,—or, rather, from June 30, 1881, to June 30, 1903,—the exports of cotton were \$5,393,500,000, of cotton goods \$363,900,000, and of cottonseed products about \$150,000,000,—a total of \$5,900,000,000, or 26 per cent. of the total export trade of the country. The importance of cotton in our foreign trade relations is strikingly illustrated in the fact that the aggregate value of the exports of flour, wheat, and corn since June 30, 1881, has been \$4,190,000,000, against \$5,900,000,000 as the value of cotton, cotton goods, and cottonseed products exported. In its relation to the commerce of the world, in its importance as a basis of vast manufacturing in-

terests employing a million of operatives and hundreds of millions of capital, no other agricultural product holds such a commanding position as cotton. Two years ago, our corn crop was cut short 40 per cent. by the drought and hot winds. Instead of an expected yield of nearly 2,500,000,000 bushels, the crop was but 1,500,000,000 bushels, but that enormous decrease created no excitement in the financial and manufacturing centers of the world. It did not even halt the phenomenal growth of traffic on Western railroads, but the most vivid imagination could scarcely picture the disasters which would follow a shortage of 50 per cent. in a year's cotton crop. A disaster so great as to cut our average cotton crop of ten and a half million bales down to five or six million bales would shake

the business world and bring about in America, as well as in Europe, a repetition of the conditions in Lancashire, forty years ago, caused by the cotton famine of 1861-65. During 1863-64 cotton averaged over \$1 a pound in New York, or ten times its normal price.

HALF A BILLION A YEAR TO AMERICAN GROWERS.

When the wheat crop or the corn crop is below the normal yield, in part at least, substitutes can be provided, but for cotton there is no substitute. After it has left the field, it affords employment in its manufacture to over a million operatives, besides the hundreds of thousands employed in the making of machinery and in other work connected with this industry. The capital invested in the cotton-manufacturing interests of the world has been estimated to exceed two billion dollars. The world's production of cotton has averaged, for the last six years, 13,470,000 bales of 500 pounds each, of which the South has produced during that time an average of 10,023,000 bales, or 75 per cent. The South is now producing an average of about ten and a half million bales a year. The largest crop which it ever raised was 11,274,840 bales, in 1898; but owing to the very low prices then prevailing, its value was the smallest for any year since 1878. In that year the yield was 5,074,155 bales, but this gave to the cotton planters of the South \$236,586,000, while the eleven-million-bale crop of twenty years later brought \$282,772,000. From the low prices of 1898 there was a sharp rally, and the crop of 1900, running to ten and a third million bales, was valued at \$494,567,000, and that of the following year at \$452,000,000. To these figures should be added the value of the seed, now averaging about \$80,000,000 a year, making the true value of the cotton crop to the farmers during the last two or three years between \$500,000,000 and \$575,000,000 a year.

PROS AND CONS OF LOW PRICES.

The average price in New York for the crop year, from September 1, 1900, to August 31, 1901, was 8.96 cents per pound, and during the following year 8.75 cents per pound. At these figures there is a fair margin of profit to the growers. Of late years it has been generally accepted that ten-cent cotton would not again be seen except for some brief period when a crop failure or speculation might temporarily advance the price. But is this true? The answer to that question is beyond human knowledge. Leaders of the bull movement, which has lately run the price of cotton up several cents per pound, making it higher now than the average yearly price

for any year during the last quarter of a century, claim that for twelve years this staple has been selling much too low, and that we have entered a period of higher values for the South's great crop. On the other hand, manufacturers at home and abroad are curtailing production, because the advance in the manufactured goods has not been commensurate with the advance in raw cotton. It is possible, however, for that condition to prove only temporary, and the argument against high-priced cotton which they base on this is, therefore, not of much importance. But they also insist that the world's markets would not through a period of years take the product of a ten or eleven million bale crop with prices for the raw material as high as now prevailing. The mill-owners believe that these high prices would reduce the consumption of coarse goods in China and among the poorer classes of this country to such an extent as to bring about a great reaction in price.

Another argument which is constantly put forth against high prices is that they would stimulate the development of cotton-growing in other countries, and that the South's policy should be to produce large crops that prices may be kept down to a low figure, in order to discourage cotton-growing in Egypt, India, Russia, and elsewhere. It is true that every possible encouragement is being given by European governments, as well as by business organizations, to aid in the development of cotton-growing abroad, in order that the dependence of European spinners upon American cotton may be lessened. The argument for big crops and low prices, though, is not entirely sound; there are some strong points to it, but even if sound it would be without effect, for cotton growers, acting individually, as they must do, are not controlled by such broad reasoning. On the same line, and with equal propriety, Western farmers were once urged to raise enough wheat to keep prices so low that other wheat-growing countries might be kept from increasing their production. Cotton planters, like wheat growers, are moved simply by the question of whether they can sell at a profit the cotton they raise each year. They are looking not to what may come about ten or twenty years hence, but to the actual results which they can secure to-day. Theoretically, the argument for large crops raised at a low cost, in order that the South may continue to hold its monopoly of the world's cotton production, may be correct, but, practically, it has no more effect than would an argument for low-priced wheat have on wheat growers.

In this connection it should be borne in mind that cotton manufacturers are, almost neces-



PICKING COTTON NEAR MUSKOGEE, INDIAN TERRITORY.

sarily, "bears" on the price of the raw material, as the influence of European and American spinners is consciously or unconsciously united to force down the price paid the grower and to create a sentiment throughout the business world against higher prices. Handling cotton at \$50 a bale requires much larger capital for the mills than at \$30. Moreover, when the price of cotton is low, the margin of profit between the raw staple and the manufactured product is proportionately greater than when prices rule high. Here are two of the compelling causes which make "bears" of cotton manufacturers. Therefore, European spinners, having no other interest in our cotton than to buy at the lowest possible cost, are unceasing in their efforts to depress the price, and American spinners, following their lead and urged by their own pecuniary interests, based on the fact that low prices mean greater profits to them, naturally join in the effort to bring about this result. This policy is in no wise different from that pursued by all other buyers under similar conditions, but its effects are probably more far-reaching.

RANGE OF PRICES IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

While no one can forecast the future of cotton prices with any certainty, it will, at least, prove interesting to study the subject in the

light of the past. In the early part of the nineteenth century, cotton sold as high as 44 cents a pound, and from that gradually declined under a rapid increase in production, but until 1839 it had never gone below 13 cents a pound as the average price in New York for a full year. In 1840-41, however, it dropped to 9.50 cents as the New York average for twelve months, and then steadily declined until 1843-44, when the New York average price for the year was 5.63 cents, the lowest average ever recorded. From this it soon rallied, reaching 7.87 cents the following year and 11.21 cents in 1846-47, declining again in the two following years, but by 1849-50 it had recovered to 12.34 cents. Between 1850 and 1860, the average New York price ranged from 9.50 cents per pound in 1851-52, the lowest during that period, to 13.51 in 1856-57, the highest. During the war cotton advanced in New York to over a dollar a pound, and for some years thereafter it fluctuated between 42 cents and 13 cents. The largest crop produced before the war was 4,860,000 bales in 1859. Not until 1878 did the yield again reach that figure. Between 1852 and 1890 there was only one year in which the New York price fell below 10 cents, and that was in 1885, when the average was 9.44 cents. Beginning with 1890, broken by one or two temporary spurts to better



IN THE RAILROAD STORAGE YARD, PINE BLUFF, ARK.

prices, there was a steady decline from 9.03 cents in that year to 6 cents in 1898, but between 1891 and 1902 the average New York value never got back to as much as 9 cents a pound.

HOW MUCH COTTON CAN THE WORLD USE?

In the light of these figures it becomes a very interesting question whether the contention is true that the world would not consume an 11,000,000 to 12,000,000 bale crop at about the same prices that ruled from 1850 to 1890, excepting, of course, the war period. In 1859, a crop of nearly 5,000,000 bales,—or, to be exact, 4,800,000 bales,—was marketed at an average of 11 cents. Is it unreasonable to suppose that a crop of ten and a half to eleven million bales a year would not now be equally as well absorbed at about the same price? The material progress of the world since 1859 has been so stupendous, population here, as in Europe, has so enormously increased,—our own population having advanced in that period from about 30,000,000 to nearly 80,000,000,—and labor is so much more fully employed at higher wages, that the natural conclusion would seem to indicate that consumption of cotton goods would be sufficient to absorb our present crops of the raw staple, even at a range of several cents a pound above the low price of the last ten years. In the last hundred years there have been only two periods,—one between 1840 and 1849, and the other since 1890,—in which the average price of cotton was not above 10 cents a pound; and yet the world took all the cotton goods produced during that period. At 8 cents a pound cotton-growing is fairly profitable to the more thrifty Southern farmers, but 10 cents a pound would mean an additional clear profit to them, beyond the profit at 8 cents, of about \$100,000,000 a year.

The production of cotton by States since 1860 is illustrated in the following figures:

States.	1860. Bales. 400 lbs.	1890. Bales. 477 lbs.	1900. Bales. 500 lbs.	1902. Bales. 500 lbs.
Alabama.....	980,955	915,210	1,023,802	958,215
Arkansas.....	387,303	601,494	812,984	970,205
Florida.....	65,153	57,923	48,616	58,980
Georgia.....	701,840	1,191,846	1,203,308	1,425,044
Illinois.....	1,482			
Indian Territory.....		34,115	249,925	351,586
Kansas.....		212	151	50
Kentucky.....	61	873	133	1,213
Louisiana.....	777,738	650,190	705,767	882,073
Mississippi.....	1,202,507	1,154,725	1,046,700	1,443,740
Missouri.....	41,188	15,856	27,871	42,355
New Mexico.....	19			
North Carolina.....	145,514	306,261	477,269	549,542
Oklahoma.....		425	106,707	183,784
South Carolina.....	353,412	747,190	748,726	823,498
Tennessee.....	226,464	190,578	221,619	317,122
Texas.....	451,463	1,471,242	3,438,386	2,458,082
Utah.....		186	81	
Virginia.....	12,727	5,375	11,022	15,614
Total.....	5,387,052	7,472,511	10,123,027	10,620,945

NOTE.—The figures for 1860 and 1890 from the census of those years deal with the crop of 1859-60 and 1889-90, respectively. The figures for 1900 and 1902 deal with the cotton ginned from the crops grown in those years.

GATHERING THE CROP.

Owing to the rainy weather which prevailed throughout the cotton region last spring, planting was much delayed, and the crop is estimated to be at least three weeks late. The condition of the plant is, however, favorable, and rapid improvement is reported from nearly every part of the South, giving promise of a good yield; but there are still many dangers to be met, not the least of which is early frost, and this danger is all the greater by reason of the lateness of the crop. The "picking" or gathering of cotton begins in the late summer, as soon as the bolls begin to fully open; but as all bolls do not open at the same time, every field must be covered by the pickers many times. Picking may go on in the same field from early September to the end of December, as fresh bolls continue to open until a heavy frost. During the season cotton-pickers are almost as much in demand as are harvest hands in Kansas when Nature has given to the wheat growers such an abundant crop as that State has had this year, but the South has never attempted to draw laborers from elsewhere into its cotton-fields. Cotton-picking is still done entirely by hand. Many picking machines have been invented, and a few have given promise of success, only to go down when put to the practical test, though one was reported as fairly successful last season in an experimental way, and its promoters have great hopes that it may solve a problem which

has taxed the mechanical ingenuity of the country, the solving of which would be worth many millions of dollars annually to the South, for cotton-picking is one of the heaviest items of cost to the growers.

THE MENACE OF THE BOLL-WEEVIL.

It is generally understood that the production of cotton can be advanced in the South as rapidly as the world's requirements may demand. The opening up of new land in the Southwest, especially in Texas, Oklahoma, and Indian Territory, is expected to provide all the increase in cotton acreage which may be needed. Judged by surface indications this seems true, and to some extent it is correct. It has often been said that the South could provide the acreage and the labor to produce twenty million or twenty-five million bales whenever the world's requirements created a demand for such a quantity, but within the last few years new factors have arisen which may set some limitations to this forecast. Within that period the boll-weevil has entered Texas, moving northward from Mexico, and as yet no remedy has been found for this destructive pest. It is to-day the greatest menace cotton growers have ever had to face. The national

government and State governments are seeking a remedy, but none has been found. Texas has recently offered a reward of \$50,000 for the discovery of any agency which will destroy the boll-weevil. In some sections of that State cotton-growing is being abandoned because of this pest, and the land is being turned to other crops, while in some cases Texas cotton growers are moving to Oklahoma and Indian Territory, where the boll-weevil has not yet reached. This so far unconquered enemy of cotton may retard the expected increase which the future has been counted upon to produce. But outside of this, other causes are at work to curtail the anticipated increase.

DEVELOPMENT OF OTHER INDUSTRIES OPERATES TO RETARD COTTON PRODUCTION.

The remarkable industrial activity throughout the South is creating a demand for labor greater than the supply. Mining operations, railroad construction, lumbering, cotton manufacturing, and the growth of cities are all united to draw labor from the cotton-fields. In these pursuits the rate of wages is much higher than on the farm, and with cotton at the low range of prices which have prevailed for ten years, planters can-



INTERIOR OF THE "KATY" COTTON SHEDS AT HOUSTON, TEXAS.

not advance wages sufficiently to meet the growing demand for industrial laborers. Even now the mining and manufacturing interests of the South are often restricted by the scarcity of hands. It is true that in the towns and cities of the South there are thousands of idle negro men, who live on the earnings of the negro women, who ought to be out in the cotton-fields, but nothing has yet been devised to force them to go. The man who wants to work, whether on the farm or in industrial labor, whether he be white or black, can find abundance of opportunity throughout the South; but the lazy

loafer, though his name be legion, need not be counted as a possible factor in the demand for more men in cotton-growing. It is safe to say that the demand for labor throughout the South is developing more rapidly than the supply. Moreover, the attractions of early fruit-growing, trucking, and diversified farming generally are every year causing many farmers to turn to these pursuits. The development of large industrial communities is creating a home demand for diversified farm products, and cotton has ceased to be the only ready-money crop which can be raised. Though the early fruit and trucking industry is comparatively new, the South is already shipping over \$50,000,000 a year of fruit and vegetables to Northern and Western markets. The whole trend of Southern activities and opportunities seems to be away from any great increase in cotton-growing. The development of diversified farming will prove of far more value to the South at large, as well as more profitable to the farmers individually, than would a large increase in cotton acreage at the expense of diversification of agricultural interests. On the other hand, so great is the South's devotion to this staple, so simple is its cultivation, that under a very remunerative price for a few years in succession the increase in production would quickly overcome these adverse factors and result in much larger crops than we have ever had, however strong may seem the theoretical arguments against the possibility of this. But any important increase is not likely to come about under a low range of prices.



COTTON TRAINS IN A SOUTHERN PACIFIC FREIGHT YARD.

HOW THE ANTE-BELLUM COTTON CROP WAS MADE TO PAY.

Prior to the war, it was the general custom of Southern planters to raise a very large part of the foodstuffs, corn, bacon, etc., needed for man and farm animals, thus making cotton to a considerable extent a surplus money crop. But with the changes brought about by the war, the necessity of mortgaging their crops in advance of planting for the money needed to get a fresh start, and the development of the tenantry system, the South came to depend more and more upon the West for its corn and bacon. Even with the marked increase of late years in diversified farming, the central cotton States of the South do not as yet raise as much corn or produce as much bacon as in 1860, though the population is more than two and a half times greater.

When the Confederate soldier, after his long struggle, returned to his home, it was to a land of utter desolation. Burdened with debts, crushed by the loss of loved ones and the destruction of his cherished ambitions, without credit at home or abroad, with the whole economic situation revolutionized by a disorganized labor situation, he had to face conditions unparalleled in the world's history. How to start anew was the supreme question. Under the old system, the well-managed plantation was almost complete in itself. The large planters directed and controlled their plantations as great business concerns, with almost as much skill as the big industrial combinations of to-day are handled.

Their aim was to carry production from the raw material to the finished product. In cotton planting as an industry the raw material might be classed as every element entering into its cheap-est production. That meant the raising of nearly all foodstuffs for man and beast, for upon the planter's ability to provide at a low cost an abundance of corn and bacon depended his ability to produce cotton at a low cost. The investment in slaves and the cost of maintenance made slave labor too costly to be profitable unless managed with skill. In addition to raising corn and bacon, the plantation must have an ample supply of live stock for all purposes; bad weather must be utilized indoors, and so the negro men were taught to repair wagons and agricultural implements, to make boots and shoes, and do similar work, while the more skillful negro women, under the instruction of the mistress of the home, were taught to spin and weave, to provide the supply of "homespun" goods needed for clothes for the slaves. Living at home, and utilizing its labor in this most intelligent way, the South made its cotton almost a surplus money crop. Its marvelous prosperity under these conditions

is illustrated in the simple fact that between 1850 and 1860 the true valuation of Southern property, according to United States census reports, increased over \$3,480,000,000 against an increase during the same period of \$2,460,000,000 in the New England and Middle States combined.

THE LIEN SYSTEM—THE PLANTER'S ECONOMIC DEPENDENCE.

The wreck and ruin of 1861-65 and the evils of reconstruction changed all this. Without capital on which to start, the planter had to depend alone upon credit. He had to buy new farming implements, mules, and everything else needed for home and farm until he could raise a crop. Money-lenders were promptly on hand, and, as "beggars cannot be choosers," he had to accept their terms: these were credit at their stores as an advance against cotton to be raised. They would provide mules and plows, and corn and bacon,—in fact, anything from a paper of pins to a silk dress, or from a pound of nails to a wagon or carriage,—all in proportion to the number of acres to be planted in cotton, no ad-



A MODERN COTTON GIN AT SMITHVILLE, TEXAS.



COTTON COMPRESS AT BIRMINGHAM, ALA.

(Where bulk cotton is turned into bales.)

vances being made against corn or other grain crops. The fact that prices were from 50 to 100 per cent. higher than would have been the cash price counted not, for the planter had no cash. The more cotton he could plant the more credit he could get, and the less corn and bacon he raised the more Western corn and bacon he had to buy from his money-lender, known as commission man, or factor. The latter thus had a strong incentive to discourage a return to the older practices of producing food supplies and a necessary expansion of it with the growth of population. Before the war, the South was to some extent a buyer of Western corn and bacon, notwithstanding the fact that in 1860 it raised nearly one-half of the corn crop of the United States; but under this cotton-crop-lien system, the South's purchases of bacon and corn and flour in the West, according to the most reliable estimates that can be made, ran up to largely over \$100,000,000 a year, and it has probably averaged that much for the last forty years. Under this system, the farmer had a long struggle to get out of debt and on a basis where he could begin diversified farming. At last, however, he is getting out of the hands of the money-lender, and is steadily increasing the attention given to diversified agriculture.

THE VALUE OF COTTON LANDS.

The traveler from the North or West, accustomed to the grazing lands of those sections, and

not understanding the agricultural conditions of the South, often expresses surprise at what looks to him like very poor soil, which he sees in the hilly and pine-land sections of much of the South. He wonders how cotton-raising in these districts can support the growers, but he little understands the conditions. The cotton crop of 1901-02, including the seed, was worth \$530,000,000. It was produced on less than 24,000,000 acres, or an average value per acre of over \$22. The total wheat crop for same year, produced on 43,200,000 acres, was worth \$422,000,000, or an average of \$9.79 per acre; and the corn crop of the same year, raised on 94,000,000 acres, was worth \$1,017,000,000, or an average of \$10.82 per acre. The cost of raising cotton was, doubtless, more per acre than the cost for wheat and corn, but the difference was hardly as great as the difference in the value per acre. On the richer lands of the South, where a bale per acre can be raised by good cultivation, the value per acre would be from \$40 to \$50, according to the price of cotton, which would match the high yields of wheat and corn in the best Western farm districts.

NEGRO LABOR.

Owing to the fact that the negro, as an independent or as a tenant farmer, is not successful in producing as good results in agriculture as when, in slave days, his labor was directed by the planter or an overseer, much of his farming has

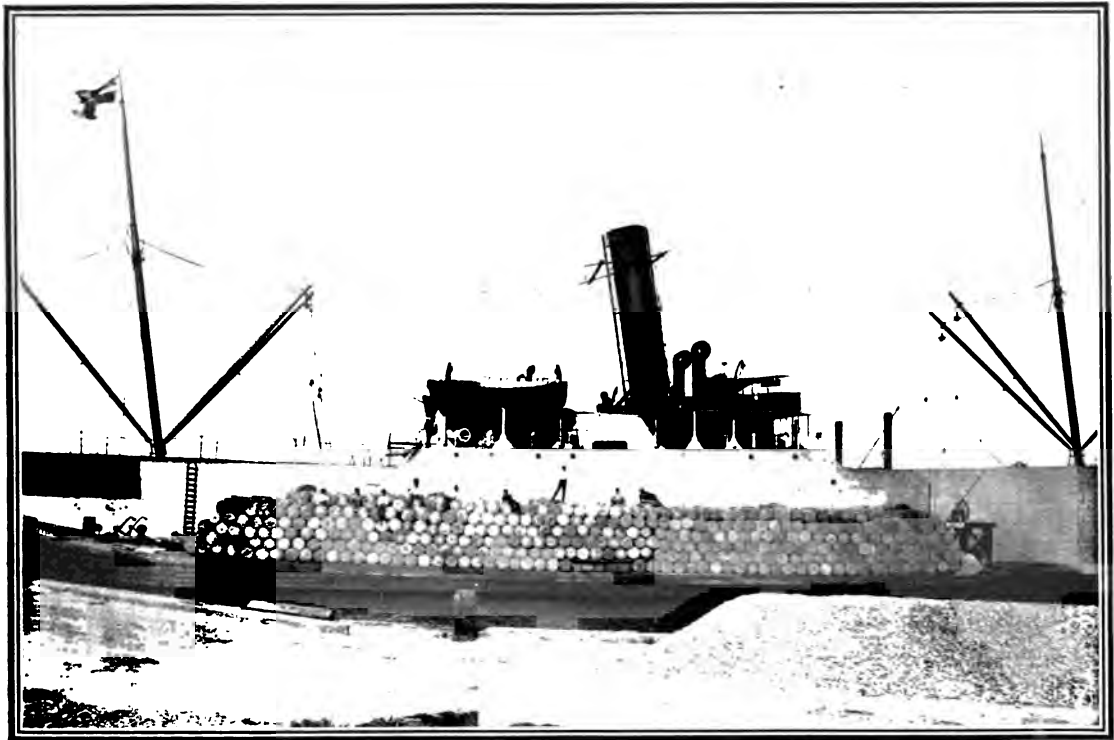


"ROUND BALES" IN THE STEAMER'S "SLING."

been unprofitable to him, and at the same time ruinous to the soil. He has not understood the value of raising his own foodstuffs, and as a yearly tenant, moving from place to place, he has not had much incentive to improve the soil, even if he had had the knowledge. His work has, therefore, made him every year a less important factor in the production of cotton. Absolute statistics of the relative amount of cotton produced by negro and by white labor are not obtainable,

but everywhere throughout the South, except in sections similar to the Yazoo Delta, the amount of cotton raised by negro labor in proportion to the whole crop is steadily declining. Such statistics as are available for a few districts bring this out very clearly.

Fifty years ago, defenders of the institution of slavery upon economic grounds thought that the production of certain staple crops of the South, especially cotton, depended absolutely upon the maintenance of slavery. Their reasoning was that the negro was necessary in the production of cotton, and that the best results could be obtained from him as a slave. Subsequent events have demonstrated the fallacy of the argument, even though the free negro is not yet as efficient in agriculture as was the slave under some one else's direction. The actual work of raising cotton was never exclusively in the hands of negroes. It is certain that since the passing of slavery their importance in this particular has tended to a steady decline. This is fully understood in the South, but not elsewhere. In 1739, in an English court testimony was given to the effect "that cotton grows very well in Georgia, and can be raised by white persons without the aid of negroes," and this has been true ever since, though many writers not familiar



TRANSFERRING 3,000 "ROUND BALES" OF COTTON TO AN OCEAN STEAMER AT GALVESTON, TEXAS.

with Southern conditions even yet suppose that almost the entire crop is raised by negroes.

COTTON MILLS IN SOUTHERN STATES.

The most striking phase of the cotton trade of the world of late years has been the development of cotton manufacturing in the South. A considerable mill industry was in existence in that section many years before the war, and its expansion was urgently advocated by some of the foremost public men of the times, not only that the South might have a home market for its cotton, but special stress was laid on the importance of creating employment for the poorer whites,—a class to whom the development of this industry during the last ten or fifteen years has proved a very great blessing. Living, as most of their class had lived generation after generation, on small hillside and mountain farms, without the possibility of finding other employment, cultivating a few acres of poor land not suited for general crops, their condition was most deplorable. With the building of cotton mills there came the first opportunity ever opened to them for profitable employment. The mill village has become the center of community life, of religious and educational advantages such as they had never known. The development of the cotton-mill interests of the United States is indicated in the following figures :

Census years.	Number of spindles.	Number of hands.	Capital employed.	Value of products.
1830.....	1,246,503	62,208	\$44,914,941	\$32,036,760
1840.....	2,264,631	72,119	51,102,359	40,350,453
1850.....	3,633,693	92,286	74,500,981	65,501,687
1860.....	5,035,798	122,028	96,585,209	115,681,774
1870.....	6,621,571	135,369	140,706,291	177,489,739
1880.....	10,768,516	174,659	208,280,346	192,090,110
1890.....	14,188,103	221,585	354,020,843	267,981,724
1900.....	19,050,952	302,861	467,240,157	339,200,320

In 1880, the South had 667,000 spindles, out of a total of 10,768,000, and its capital invested in cotton manufacturing was \$21,000,000,—a fraction over one-tenth of the cotton-mill capital of the country. By 1890, the number of spindles had increased to 1,700,000, and the capital to \$61,000,000, the capital then being over one-sixth of the total for the country, and the South had then, for the first time, come to be seriously regarded as a possible dominant factor in certain lines of cotton goods. The census of 1900 showed that in that year the South had 4,500,000 active spindles and \$112,000,000 of cotton-mill capital. At the present time the South has, in round figures, a total of about 8,000,000 spindles, representing an investment of between \$175,000,000 and \$200,000,000.

The relative growth of this industry in the

South as compared with other sections is shown by the following table, covering the consumption of cotton by sections and the total for the country :

Crop year ending August 31.	Consumption in Northern mills. Bales.	Consumption in Southern mills. Bales.	Total consumption in United States. Bales.	Total crop. Bales.
1850.....	475,702	87,087	562,789	2,171,708
1860.....	780,521	178,107	958,628	4,823,770
1870.....	806,690	90,000	896,690	3,154,946
1880.....	1,573,907	221,337	1,795,244	5,701,352
1890.....	1,799,258	546,864	2,346,122	7,311,392
1891.....	2,027,362	604,661	2,632,023	8,652,597
1892.....	2,190,766	696,060	2,876,846	9,035,579
1893.....	1,687,286	743,848	2,431,134	6,700,365
1894.....	1,601,173	718,515	2,319,688	7,549,817
1895.....	2,083,839	802,838	2,946,677	9,901,251
1896.....	1,600,271	904,701	2,504,972	7,157,346
1897.....	1,804,680	1,042,671	2,847,351	8,757,964
1898.....	2,211,740	1,231,841	3,443,581	11,199,994
1899.....	2,190,065	1,399,399	3,589,464	11,274,840
1900.....	2,068,300	1,507,112	3,565,412	9,436,416
1901.....	1,967,570	1,620,961	3,588,531	10,383,422
1902.....	2,050,774	1,937,971	3,988,745	10,680,680

In 1891, the consumption in Northern mills was 2,027,362 bales, and in Southern mills 604,661 bales ; in 1902, Northern mills consumed almost exactly the same quantity, having gained only 23,000 bales, while Southern mills had gained over 1,200,000 bales.

RELATIVE RANK OF THE UNITED STATES IN COTTON MANUFACTURE.

The number of spindles in the various countries of the world in 1891-92 and 1901-02, respectively, was as follows :

	Great Britain.	Continental Europe.	India.	Northern States.	Southern States.
1891-92.....	45,350,000	26,405,000	3,402,000	13,250,000	1,960,000
1901-02.....	47,000,000	33,900,000	5,200,000	15,000,000	6,400,000
Actual increase since 1892..	1,650,000	7,495,000	1,798,000	1,750,000	4,450,000

These figures show a total in 1891-92 in all other countries than the United States of 75,157,000 spindles, and in the United States of 15,200,000 spindles, as against 86,100,000 in all other countries in 1901-02 and 21,400,000 in the United States in that year. The gain in the United States in that period was 6,200,000 spindles, or at the rate of 40 per cent., while the gain in the rest of the world was 10,900,000, or 14 per cent. The actual increase in the South was 4,450,000 spindles, or 228 per cent., against an increase of only 1,650,000 spindles in Great Britain, or a gain of 3 per cent. During the last twelve months the increase in the number of spindles in the United States, especially in the South, has been very considerable, and while statistics are not available to show what increase has been made during the same period in Europe,

it is undoubtedly true that the United States is continuing its gain on the rest of the world.

WHY DO WE SHIP RAW COTTON TO EUROPE?

While the largest expansion of the cotton-mill industry is in the South, this does not mean the decay of New England's mill interests. There is room for growth in both sections, certainly for New England to maintain its present cotton business by a steady tendency toward the finest products, even though most of the future growth should center in the South. There are about 110,000,000 cotton spindles in the world, and three-fourths of all the cotton used by them comes from the cotton-fields of the South; but that section, with all its progress, still has only 8,000,000 spindles. The entire country has only about 22,000,000. We are still shipping to Europe over 60 per cent. of our raw cotton every year,—almost as uneconomic as it would be to ship our iron ore instead of turning it into the finished product here. In 1900, there were 302,000 hands employed in the cotton mills of this country. On this basis the full utilization in our own mills of the ten and a half million bales we now produce would furnish employment to nearly a million operatives. For the control of this vast industry, employing a million people, probably two billions of capital, and producing about \$1,500,000,000 a year of finished goods, the South is now beginning to contend. It is a prize worthy the struggle, for it



THE WHITMAN COTTON-BALER.

is enough to enrich an empire. Add to the \$500,000,000 or \$550,000,000, the present value of the cotton and seed crop, the \$1,500,000,000 as the value of the finished product, and the \$125,000,000 as the present value of the product of cottonseed-oil mills, and the total of about \$2,250,000,000,—merely, of course, a rough estimate in round figures,—is the dazzling wealth which the South, by natural advantages, has the right to claim and the certainty of eventually winning.



OUR SECOND GREATEST SEAPORT,—COTTON SHIPS LOADING ON THE NEW ORLEANS WHARVES.



A "SNOW LOCOMOTIVE," USED TO DRAW LOGS DURING WINTER SEASON.

A GREAT TRACTION MOTOR.

The variety of motors operated by steam, electric, and other power is remarkably large, ranging from the tractor used for farming and lumbering purposes on the Pacific coast to the motor cycle of one or two horse-power. In northern Michigan, however, one has been constructed and operated which is really a giant of its kind. It is known in the lumbering region where it is used as a "snow locomotive," for the reason that it has been used principally during the winter season in hauling loads of logs through the woods to the sawmill. The motor represents no less than 200 horse-power, and is capable of hauling 100 tons of weight through snow-beds which range from two to three feet in depth, and across a country where there is not even a footpath. Under these conditions, the locomotive will attain a speed varying between three and four miles an hour, according to the condition of the surface over which it is moved. Tests upon a hard and fairly smooth surface, such as packed snow or ice, show that it will develop a speed of six miles an hour, yet hauling 150 tons.

This tractor differs radically in design from others which are utilized for hauling heavy weights. It was constructed after the plans of Mr. George T. Glover, of Chicago, its inventor, and possesses some peculiarly interesting fea-

tures. The one illustrated weighs twenty-five tons, but is attached to the runners in such a way that much of its weight can be shifted to bear directly upon what is known as the traction wheel. This portion of the engine is a hollow cylinder of boiler iron, and is provided with a series of three-cornered teeth, which are set in rows upon its face. Each is fastened to the wheel independently of the others, so that it can be quickly replaced if desired. The wheel moves upon a hinged frame which automatically raises and lowers it as it moves over the surface, adjusting it to the inequalities of the route, while the teeth, continually gripping the surface, furnish a tractive force which permits the engine to move where a motor of much greater horse-power would be unable to stir.

A curious feature of this traction wheel is that the hollow drum is connected with a steam pipe through which is discharged the exhaust steam. This keeps the drum heated to a high temperature, and as it comes in contact with the snow it rapidly melts the latter material, which, as it is packed down, makes a firm surface for the runners of the engine and the trucks which follow it. In this way the motor literally constructs its own roadbed. The drum is, naturally, built very heavily, to withstand the hard usage it receives, the walls which support the

teeth being one and one-half inches thick. It is six feet in diameter, and weighs seven tons. When additional tractive force is desired, the weight of the engine is transferred to the drum by special apparatus. A powerful steam cylinder, called a "nigger," is so arranged that by merely pulling a throttle valve the engineer can operate it, with the result that the additional load is placed upon the drum almost instantly. The traction wheel is connected with the balance of the engine by gearing which represents ~~three~~ degrees of speed, and in this feature it resembles the ordinary pleasure automobile. The slow gear is used in starting the train, in ascending grades, and in places where the route is more than usually difficult. When the speed can be safely increased, the engineer uses what is called the fast clutch, which allows a rate of seven miles an hour if desired. By admitting more steam into the driving cylinders he can increase his speed accordingly. A rate of as high as twelve miles an hour has been attained by the locomotive with a light load.

Some portions of the forest where the snow locomotive has been in service are low and swampy, being partly covered with water in the spring, while in mild weather, in the winter season, the snow may cover the soft spots to a depth of several feet, thus offering little resistance. In

fact, it would be impossible for a team of horses to pass over some of these spots without being "mired." Tests of the strength of the snow locomotive have been made by forcing it through this marsh land, and, with the aid of the traction wheel, the experiments have been successful. It has been used at the end of the winter season by substituting wheels for runners. Even where the surface is largely composed of sand, it develops such traction that it can be forced through this material while pulling loads varying from fifty to one hundred tons. In fact, its performances seem almost incredible, considering the topography of the country.

This railless engine has been in use in the Michigan woodlands owned by the Alger Lumbering Company, and with it operations have been conducted in midwinter with little cessation. It has been placed in service not only to haul sledges loaded with logs such as those shown in the illustration, but for pulling the logs themselves through the woods and loading them on the sledges. This is done by attaching a cable to the log and pulling it to the top of the sledge. The number of logs transported, naturally, varies according to their size and the condition of the route, but the loads average from thirty to sixty tons, yet only three men are required for the train crew.



THE ENGINE OF A "SNOW LOCOMOTIVE," SHOWING TRACTION WHEEL RAISED.
(Dotted lines show position when in operation.)

THE RENOMINATION OF PRESIDENT DIAZ.

BY L. S. ROWE.

(University of Pennsylvania.)

THE nomination of President Diaz for a seventh term has been accepted as conclusive evidence that Mexico is an enlightened despotism in fact, whatever it may be in name. It is argued, with considerable force, that a country in which one man is able to wield almost unlimited power for a period of twenty-eight years can lay no claim to republican institutions. The fact that the renomination of President Diaz was a foregone conclusion, that not even the name of another candidate was mentioned, are circumstances cited to show how far Mexico has departed from the ideals of the framers of the Constitution of 1857 and the leaders of the reform movement of 1859. This view is the logical outcome of the attempt to apply to Mexican affairs the hard-and-fast standards of our own political development. Judged by those standards, no one would attempt to class Mexico as a democracy.

In order to grasp the significance of Diaz's dominant position we must apply totally different rules of interpretation. The true meaning of his influence and policy becomes apparent when we regard it as an attempt to prepare the people for the democratic institutions which the Constitution of 1857 attempted to introduce. That Mexico was unprepared for popular government at that time is now generally conceded. The political traditions of the country were those of absolutism, tempered by revolution. It was not only natural, but inevitable, that these traditions of absolutism should determine the character of the new institutions, and no one realized this more fully than President Diaz. His first aim, and one that he has constantly kept in view, was to allay the spirit of unrest that had taken hold of the population, and to repress with vigor, and even severity, any attempts to foment disorder. The crowning glory of his administration is the establishment of a respect for law and order which gives to Mexico an enviable position among the most advanced nations of the world. Person and property are now quite as secure as in any portion of the United States.

In order to accomplish this purpose within the short space of twenty-five years, it was necessary to resort to measures which seem harsh, and even cruel, when tested by the standards of our more advanced communities. The character of the

people was such as to call for a policy that should not err in the direction of leniency. With a population over 90 per cent. of which is of pure or mixed Indian blood, the task was one to make a man with less faith in the future of his people shrink with terror. That the mass of the people were illiterate was by no means the most discouraging factor in the situation. The fundamental requisite for the development of the resources of the country,—namely, the unity of national life,—was lacking. Even the imperial *régime* of Maximilian was unable to overcome the local jealousies and sectional spirit which arrayed sections of the country against one another. When President Diaz assumed control of affairs the Mexican people could hardly be called a nation; each section of the empire had its own customs, dialects, and system of laws. It was not until 1896 that freedom of trade between the different portions of the republic was established. Until then the states were constantly interfering with the freedom of commerce by the imposition of high tariff duties on goods coming from other states of the republic. These taxes, combined with numerous restrictive administrative measures dictated by local jealousies, greatly retarded the industrial development of the country.

The unification of the country was, therefore, the second great problem which President Diaz had to face. It is difficult for us to realize the obstacles that had to be overcome in order to secure anything like coördinate action among the states. The reestablishment of the republic under the federal form of government was accompanied by a marked increase of local jealousies and rivalries. In order to overcome these obstacles to progress the federal government was compelled to take a hand in local politics, and has practically succeeded in dictating the nominees for state governors. Through the state authorities thus made subservient, the wide differences between the legal systems of the states were gradually eliminated. The final result of these efforts was the enactment in 1884 of a Federal Code of Commerce and a Federal Mining Law.

These important steps toward the industrial and legal unity of the country have been the outward expression of a corresponding growth in the intensity of national feeling. To the mass



GENERAL D. PORFIRIO DIAZ, PRESIDENT OF MEXICO.

of the people President Diaz is the personification of the unity of the country ; in fact, to such a degree as to arouse some uneasiness in the minds of those who are striving to prepare the country for the time when a man of less strength than Diaz may be at the head of affairs. They all realize that the marvelous development of the economic resources of the country, and the gradual uplifting of the lower class which has accompanied this industrial advance, involves grave responsibilities which the country must be prepared to meet. The feeling of national unity must be developed to a point to make it independent of the existence of any one man or group of men.

The circumstances attending the nomination of President Diaz for a seventh term mark the first conscious and concerted attempt to prepare for these responsibilities. There is a settled determination among the property-holding classes that the reign of law and order shall not cease with the close of the present administration. General Diaz is now seventy-three years of age. At the close of his next term it is likely that the country will have to make a new choice, and it is for this transition period that preparation is now being made. The men who have played an important part in Mexican affairs realize that scattered individual effort is inadequate to meet the requirements of the situation. A national party organization is necessary which will assume the responsibility for the maintenance of those traditions of law and order which are so closely associated with the period of President Diaz's rule.

It is a matter of no little surprise to the foreigner that in a federal republic, whose institutions are modeled after those of the United States, party activity, and even party organization, are practically absent. The immediate cause of this anomalous situation is the overwhelmingly dominant position occupied by President Diaz. All classes of the population, from the poorest *peons* to the wealthiest land-owners, place such unbounded confidence in his ability to direct the policy of the country that there is no need for an organized party to rally to his support, and no room for an opposition party. That this situation has remained practically unchanged during the successive terms of his administration can only be explained by the fact that the political education of the people has not as yet reached the level which the democratic political system adopted in 1857 demands.

In the nominating convention of the Liberal Union party, which assembled in the City of Mexico on June 19, the political progress of the

last twenty-five years was clearly mirrored. Delegates from every state and territory of the republic assembled, not merely to renominate General Diaz, but to found a national political party, whose main purpose will be the maintenance of those traditions of law and order which have contributed so much toward the industrial advance of the country. Whether this party organization will lead to the formation of an opposition party remains to be seen. The indications are that no such party will be formed, inasmuch as it would have to take a position antagonistic to the present administration in order to find a reason for its existence. With such a platform it would be impossible to form a party, owing to the absence of any articulate opposition sentiment in the country. The only possibility is the formation of a conservative party, which would soon be forced into the attitude of the old clerical party. The resentment aroused by the confiscation of church property and the expulsion of the monastic orders might form the nucleus for a conservative or clerical party. But even here much of the bitterness has disappeared, owing to the spirit of fairness which has characterized the policy of President Diaz in his dealings with the Church.

The absence of an opposition party will probably lead to a split in the Liberal party between the radical and the conservative elements. Indications of such a division are already apparent. The most important speech of the recent convention emphasized the essentially negative and destructive work of the Radicals. It is likely that this radical element will be gradually eliminated from the councils of the party, and will form a new organization, gathering to its support the more rabid anti-clericals, as well as those who, for some reason or other, are dissatisfied with the present administration. The leaders of the Liberals realize full well that the formation of such an opposition party will be greatly to their interest, as it will enable them to strengthen party ties and discipline.

Whatever the future may have in store, the reassuring factor in the present situation is that the better element throughout the republic realizes the advisability of continuing President Diaz in office, and also the necessity of preparing for the time when either old age or death will make it necessary to place an untried man at the head of affairs. If a new President is able to depend upon the support of a strong party committed to the maintenance of law and order and to the repression of every tendency toward military despotism, there need be but little fear for the future of the republic.

THE RACE PROBLEM IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY LYMAN ABBOTT.

A LETTER from a Southern correspondent informs me that there are sections in the South where no white woman can go out safely unattended, and some regions where she cannot even be left in her house unprotected, and that the peril from a certain class of negroes is so great that farmers, in considerable numbers, are moving into the towns for protection. I hope that my correspondent exaggerates the fears, and that the fears which he describes exaggerate the dangers. But that these dangers are real, and these fears great, no student of contemporary history can question. The public apprehension amounts to an almost social insanity, inciting to lynchings accompanied with burnings and tortures, and to an incredible preservation of bones and other relics of the murdered wretches, which seem to demonstrate how much of the wild beast is still left in man notwithstanding centuries of evolution. What shall be done to protect the white woman from assault and the accused negro from lynch law?

In Alabama and Georgia, slavery has been revived under forms of law, and called peonage. It is soberly defended by the old slave argument,—namely, that the negro will not work unless he is compelled to work. Southern courts are dealing with this peonage in such fashion as to make us quite sure that it will not long survive exposure. But what is to be the future industrial condition of the negro in the far South?

An overwhelming majority, both in numbers and in influence, of Southern men have thus far given evidence that they accept the apothegm of Dr. J. L. M. Curry, that "ignorance is a cure for nothing." But there is a noisy though not very influential minority in the South who wish to keep the negro ignorant; either because his past education has been misdirected, or because they fear the industrial competition of the negro. Probably most of those who are familiar with educational conditions in the South are dissatisfied with them, and are of the opinion that the methods of negro education have not accomplished what was hoped from them. The negro is to be educated,—practically all men are agreed on that. How? On that question there is much serious disagreement.

The attempt to solve the problem of reconstructing society on a democratic basis by the simple expedient of establishing universal suf-

frage, thus giving to ignorance and idleness political power equal with and in some sections superior to that possessed by intelligence and industry, has proved the failure which the wiser men of the nation prophesied it would prove when it was initiated. Universal suffrage has few advocates in the South, and a lessening number of advocates in the North. But what should be the basis of the political organization of the future is not so clear.

Such are some of the questions involved in the so-called "race problem." In this article I propose, first, to define that problem, and then to indicate in outline certain fundamental principles which must be kept in mind by the nation in the attempt to solve it.

What, then, is our race problem, stated in its briefest form? We have in this country, speaking in round numbers, sixty millions of whites (a little more than that) and ten millions of blacks (a little less than that). What are to be the relations between these sixty millions of whites and these ten millions of blacks? What are the duties which these sixty millions of whites owe to these ten millions of blacks? The problem as it presents itself to us in America is practically a new one. It is, indeed, nothing new in the history of the world to have two races living side by side,—one superior, the other inferior. But in the past, whenever two such races have been brought into the same community and put side by side, one of three things has happened: the superior race has exterminated the inferior race, as the Israelites practically exterminated the Canaanites; the superior race has subjugated the inferior race and held them in bondage, as the white race subjugated and held in bondage the black race in this country; or the two races have intermarried, and out of the intermarriage a third race has grown up, as by the intermarriage of the Normans and the Anglo-Saxons the present English race has grown up. Neither one of these solutions is possible for us, in this country. It is true that some of our black fellow-citizens may be sent as colonists to Liberia, if they wish to go; but it is not true that colonization can solve or approximate a solution of the problem. We cannot exterminate the negroes nor drive them from the country. Christian principle, religious instinct, economic need, the patriotic impulse,—all combine

to say that the negro will remain on American soil. We cannot expect that out of the inter-marriage of the two races a new race will spring up. Amalgamation deteriorates certainly the one and probably the other race. It is against the instinct of black and white alike. We may dismiss the notion, which very few if any entertain, that out of amalgamation a new race will spring into existence on American soil. As to subjugation, we have tried it, and it has cost us millions of dollars and thousands of lives, and we shall not try it again.

THE RACES MUST REMAIN SEPARATE.

The question, then, which presents itself to us is this: How can two separate races live together as separate races in the same community? It is not, how can a few black men live in a white community; nor how can a minority of white men live in a Black Belt, peopled by a majority of black men. It is, how in a great republic can two separate races, with the broad line of distinction between those two races maintained, live together happily and prosperously, in accordance with democratic principles. For let us not deceive ourselves by saying that the black man is a man. He is a man, but he is not simply a sunburned white man. The negro is a separate and distinct race. Let us not be guilty of the egotism of thinking that no man is a man who is not a white man, nor much of a man unless he is an Anglo-Saxon; that the white man and the Anglo-Saxon are the type to which all men must conform themselves. Nor, again, let us deceive ourselves by the term "equality." Whatever they may come to be in the future, to-day the negro race is the inferior race. For behind this Anglo-Saxon people there have been ten centuries of Christian education, and behind this African people there have been three centuries of slavery and unnumbered centuries of barbarism. If three centuries of slavery and unnumbered centuries of barbarism have at this time made this negro race equal to the Anglo-Saxon race, with its ten centuries of Christian civilization and education behind it, either the negro race was immeasurably the superior race by nature, or else there is no value in centuries of Christian education. The real question, then, for us is this, how shall these two races, one stronger in numbers, in wealth, in education, in inheritance, live together side by side as distinct and separate races?

THE NATION IS RESPONSIBLE.

And this is a national problem. The men of the North cannot rid themselves of it if they would; the men of the South cannot assume it

if they would. The North helped to bring these negroes to this country; the North helped to enslave them; they were held as slaves in the Northern States until self-interest reinforced conscience and humanity in demanding their emancipation. When the question came up, whether the North would allow the Southern States to go out of the Union and solve this problem for themselves when they said, You believe in freedom, we believe in slavery, therefore we propose to go out and take our three million slaves with us and solve the problem in our own way, the North replied, You shall not go out, you shall not solve the problem as you think best, you shall solve it as the nation thinks best. And the North cannot now disavow all responsibility for the problem and leave the Southern States to face the difficulty and bear the burden alone. The problem belongs to the whole nation; the whole nation must share in the solution; and it must be solved in accordance with the principles which have directed and the spirit which has inspired our national life. That spirit, those principles, are embodied in the three words,—Liberty, Equality, Fraternity.

What do these words mean? What did our fathers mean by them?

By liberty they meant the right of every man to a free and full development. Feudalism denied this. Under the feudal system, he who was born a slave remained a slave; born a trader, he remained a trader; born a landed proprietor, he remained a landed proprietor. In this country, no man's status was to be fixed by his birth. Every man was to be free to make of himself what he could, unhindered by the traditions of the past. By equality, our fathers meant the equality of all men before the law. Under the old feudal system, there was one set of laws for the serfs, another set of laws for the proprietors of the serfs; one set of laws and one set of courts for the ecclesiastics, another set of laws and another set of courts for the laity. In this new government, there were to be no differences: the rich, the poor, the wise, the ignorant, the high, the low, were to be subject to the same laws, and were to be brought before the same tribunals. By fraternity, our fathers meant a democratic extension of the old principle of *noblesse oblige*. Under the feudal system, every man of the nobility counted himself under obligation to others of the nobility; every man owed a duty to the neighbor in the circle in which he moved. Under the new democratic system, this obligation was to be universal; every man was to recognize in every other man a brother. Mutuality of interest, mutuality of service,—this was to be the fundamental princi-

ple in the new republic. Liberty—of development ; Equality—before the law ; Fraternity—a common fellowship binding all together : this was the spirit of the new country. Our race problem must be solved in accordance with this threefold principle, by the application of this threefold spirit.

"LIBERTY" FOR THE NEGRO IN THE FULLEST
SENSE.

It must be solved in accordance with the spirit of liberty. The negro must have the right to the fullest, freest, largest development. He must not be shut off to a particular vocation ; he must not be told that he can be only a hewer of wood and a drawer of water ; he must not be set aside to particular and subordinate employments ; he must not be brought again under any form whatever of bondage. He must be a free man. The argument in favor of the system of peonage is, in a word, that the negroes will not work in the Black Belt, "and,"—I quote the words of a defender of the system,—“if we do not make them work, they will not work at all, and we shall be bankrupt.” What is this but putting money in one scale and manhood in the other ? And whenever manhood is put in one scale and money in the other, the manhood outweighs the money. Character is worth more than millions. It were better to bankrupt the nation in money than to bankrupt an ignorant race in character. Americans will never consent to see slavery reestablished on this continent and under their flag because it is pronounced peonage.

EQUAL RIGHTS BEFORE THE LAW.

The problem must be solved in accordance with the principles of equality before the law. What the principles of our Declaration of Independence demand, what the principles of our Constitution demand, what the spirit of our nation demands, is all summed up in the direction of the old Mosaic code to the Jews, "Thou shalt not respect the person of the poor nor honor the person of the mighty : but in righteousness shalt thou judge thy neighbor." Neither prejudice for the rich nor against the rich, neither prejudice for the negro nor against the negro, has any place in the administration of justice. If there be a reason why certain crimes should be punished with exceptional quickness and by summary measures, if there be a reason why some criminals should not wait the slow processes of ordinary criminal jurisprudence,—and there is a great deal to be said in favor of that proposition,—the summary proceedings and the expeditious justice must be applied as rigorous-

ly and as expeditiously when the white man is a criminal and the white woman is a victim as when the black man is a criminal and the white woman is a victim. There must not be one law for one race and another law for the other race. If America should ever conclude to adopt burning to death as the punishment for the crime against womanhood,—and I think there is nothing to be said for that proposition,—it must also be applied equally to the black man and to the white man. We must not have a law in this country which burns to death one criminal and hangs, imprisons, or sets free another for the same crime. The character of the crime does not depend on the race or color of the criminal.

Equality means equality before the law ; equal justice to all men. It does not mean equality in character nor in function. It does not mean that all men are of equal height, or of equal weight, or of equal muscular strength, or of equal brain development, or of equal virtue, or of equal intelligence. It does not mean that all men are to exercise the same function in society ; that all men are to be farmers, or doctors, or merchants, or preachers, or lawyers, or governors. It does not mean that all men shall be sheriffs or constables, executing the law ; or legislators, framing the law ; or voters, determining what the law shall be. That our fathers did not think that equality meant universal suffrage is evident from the fact that when the Declaration of Independence was adopted there was not unlimited and unqualified suffrage in the colonies. In some of them the suffrage was conditioned on religious qualifications, in some on intellectual qualifications, in some on property qualification ; in nearly if not all of them suffrage was conditional. All that we have a right to ask, all that the principles of our government ask, all that the spirit of our forefathers asks, is this,—that there shall not be one political standard for one race and another for another. One man may be six feet high, and another five feet high ; all we demand is that they shall be measured by the same yardstick.

THE FRANCHISE IN THE SOUTH.

Six Southern States have recently passed constitutional provisions respecting suffrage. In every one of these States the constitution, as adopted, allows any man, black or white, to vote, provided he owns three hundred dollars' worth of property and can read and write the English language. What is known as the "grandfather" clause, and what is known as the "veteran" clause, are temporary clauses, which will have expired by the close of this year, except in one

of the States.* The effect will remain for a longer period, but the effect is also temporary. The permanent provisions in these constitutions are not unjust. It is not an injustice to say to any man in this country, "You must own three hundred dollars' worth of property, and you must be able to read and write the English language, before you can vote." We may think it expedient, or we may think it inexpedient, but it is not an injustice. Under the Constitution, every State is free to settle its own conditions of suffrage, subject to the one clause provided by the Fifteenth Amendment, that the same conditions must be applied to black and white alike. It is not an injustice to say in Alabama or Mississippi, it would not be an injustice to say in New York City, and it is by no means certain that it would not be a benefit to that not always well and wisely governed city if it were said, that no man shall vote unless he possesses three hundred dollars' worth of property and can read and write the English language. It is said that though these provisions of the Southern constitutions may be just, they are not justly and equally enforced; that, although the amended constitutions allow the negro to vote if he can read and write, and if he owns three hundred dollars' worth of property, the people will not allow him to vote. Probably that is true in many sections of the South; certainly it is true in some sections of the South. What is the remedy for that?—not for illegal provisions in the constitution, but for illegal and unjust enforcement of legal provisions in the constitution. These are not identical questions. Is this a righteous constitution? Yes. Is it righteously enforced? No. The remedy for an unrighteously enforced law is one thing, the remedy for an unrighteous law is, or may be, very different. The remedy for the unrighteous enforcement of the suffrage laws in the South, in so far as it exists, brings me to my third point.

FRATERNITY BETWEEN THE SECTIONS.

The spirit of this nation is expressed by these three words, Liberty, Equality, Fraternity. We need for the solution of the race problem fraternity both between North and South, and between black and white. The remedy for illegal execution of legal and just provisions is to be

found, primarily, in the recognition of that word fraternity, and in maintaining the fraternal spirit between North and South. We, in the North, have been excessively credulous about the ability of the uneducated negro, and excessively skeptical about the virtues of the educated white man in the South. There are considerable classes of men in the South who are as strenuously opposed to injustice and inequity toward the negro as any man in the North. There are considerable classes in the South who are as strenuous believers in Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity as any man in the North. They do not believe in universal suffrage; they do not believe that the ignorant portion of the community should dominate the intelligent portion of the community; they do not believe in amalgamation and social equality; but they do believe in these three great principles,—Liberty, Equality, Fraternity. They may be in a minority. That is not material. Majorities do not rule. Virtue, intelligence, justice, rule. If there are a few men brave, courageous, honest, true, in these Southern States,—and certainly such there are,—who believe in Liberty, Equality, Fraternity, those in the North who believe in these principles should strike hands with their fellow-believers across that vanished Mason and Dixon's line, and work in coöperation and combination with them for the solution of this problem which confronts us. All the sinners are not in the South; all the saints are not in the North. The remedy for this problem is Christianity; but it is not pharisaism; and there are many persons who mistake pharisaism for Christianity. The remedy for this problem is not going into the South with "I am holier than thou, and I am wiser than thou, and I am a greater lover of liberty than thou, and I am a greater philanthropist than thou, and thou must follow my lead." The remedy is to find the honest and true lovers of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity in the South and work with them, more ready to follow their lead than to ask them to follow ours. For they live where the problem must be wrought out. If there were but a few,—there are, in fact, many,—who believe in the free development of the negro, in the equality of the negro before the law, in the spirit of fraternity that is helpfulness toward the negro,—it would still be for us to say to them, "Lead you the way; we will work with you, we will follow you."

WHAT WE OWE TO THE BLACK MAN.

Fraternity means fraternity between North and South; it also means fraternity between black and white. We owe something to this col-

* The grandfather clause provides that all who could vote in 1866 and their direct descendants may vote, provided they are registered prior to a certain specified date; the veteran clause provides that all who have fought in any war of the United States, or between the States, may vote on the same condition. The time for such registration has already expired in some of the States, and will have expired in all, except North Carolina, on January 1, 1904. In North Carolina, it operates for about five years more.

ored race. We owe it because they are men. We owe it because they are our fellow-citizens. We owe it because they are loyal. We owe it because not yet, I believe, in a single case has one of them been found to raise a hand against the American flag, and many have been found to suffer and to die for it. And what we primarily owe them, apart from that liberty and that equality which is every man's right in this country, is education. First, primary and industrial education. Sixty-five per cent. of the negroes cannot read and write. It is safe to say that 80 per cent. of the negroes are industrially dependent on their white neighbors; it would probably be safe to say that 90 per cent. are. Dr. DuBois, of Atlanta University, is not a man who tends to juggle with figures in the interest of opposition to the negro race, and he tells us in his recent book, "The Souls of Black Folk," that in the Black Belt 10 per cent. of the negroes may be regarded as intelligent, 9 per cent. as hopelessly vicious, and the remainder as more or less shiftless, ignorant, and dependent. What is present in a society in which 9 per cent. are hopelessly vicious, 81 per cent. shiftless, ignorant, dependent, and only 10 per cent. intelligent? Its first and most pressing need is an education which will teach men so to use their hands and their brains that they can earn a living; an education in industry, economy, thrift; an education in those primary lessons which most of us Anglo-Saxons

were taught in our great-great-grandfathers; an education which will impart those virtues which we have inherited from a remote ancestry. Industrial education,—the sort of education for which Dr. Booker T. Washington has been pleading and is pleading to-day,—is their greatest need, and this therefore is our first duty toward them.

But that is not enough. If this African race is to live as a separate race, if it is not to be amalgamated, nor to be subjugated, nor to be exterminated; if it is to live here, ten millions of people, separated by race lines from seventy millions that surround it, then this race must have its own lawyers, its own doctors, its own preachers, its own teachers, its own authors, its own leaders, and this means higher education for the few as well as industrial and primary education for the many.

"He that will be greatest among you, let him be servant of all." That is what brotherhood means. By just so much as we are richer and stronger and wiser than this race coming out of the barbarism of the past, by so much we, their elder brother, owe them every help in our power to rise to a higher and nobler manhood. By just so much as we of the North are richer and stronger than our fellow-citizens in the South, by just so much we owe to them a hearty co-operation in the great problem which is remote to us, but imminent to them; which is a problem to us, but is a life-and-death struggle to them.

THE NEGRO PROBLEM IN SOUTH AFRICA.

BY ARTHUR HAWKES.

[The article that follows is a fresh chapter of impressions from the pen of an Englishman now visiting South Africa to note conditions after more than a year of peace. Its glimpses of the position of the black natives are none the less valuable for being mere side-lights. It seems to us especially worth reading in connection with the article by Dr. Abbott that precedes it. The very fact that we are prepared in the United States to discuss the race question on so high and serious a plane is evidence that the negroes here have made vast progress when compared with those under the jurisdiction of white men, whether of English or Dutch blood, in South Africa. In the spirit they show toward the blacks, most of the white men of South Africa are less tolerant and less considerate than were the American slave-owners half a century ago.—THE EDITOR.]

THERE is no country like South Africa in the heavens above or anywhere else. "We are all oligarchs here," said a high official whose experience of South African administration is unique among living men, and who was trying to explain to me the impossibility of a stay-at-home understanding South African progress. Leader-writers used to say "oligarchy" when they were killing Krüger in the press. They would have been astonished to hear my distin-

guished instructor say it about his fellow-countrymen and mine. According to him, South Africa is without the basis of society which has given rare stability to the home population, and which is the first fundamental distinction between Australia and South Africa. In Australia, the white man is his own laborer, not because he likes the job, but because he is afraid to invite a brown man to do it for him.

In Africa, it is of such vital importance to

teach the benighted black the dignity of labor that the white really hasn't time to carry his own bricks. If he lays them, he has paid copious homage to the blessedness of example. The white servant is not above his lord; but he is miles above his lord's colored servant. And so he is an oligarch. He carries his head like a man. He is as independent as the immortal framers of the American Declaration of Independence, which asserted that all men are born equal, and forgot the poor relation whose toil did not even bring him pocket-money.

THE NATIVES.

The poor relation is an indispensable nuisance in South Africa. He was there first; and Mr. Benjamin Kidd's dream of edging him over the Zambesi is not within the region of practical politics. He is not given to theorizing. But he understands the multiplication table. Israel is in Egypt, only the other way on. You have not completely defined your ethical position toward him when you call him a man and a brother; for somebody is sure to ask you how you would like him for your brother-in-law. The prospect of being uncle to a band of mulattoes would



DR. JAMESON.

(Now leader of the Progressive party, Cape Colony.)

surely be enough to upset your temper and make you doubt the sufficiency of grace in time of need. It is no crime to be black. Neither is it an inducement to close communion on a hot day.

A friend of mine in Natal who would boldly undertake to settle racial questions which a two-hundred-and-twenty-million war didn't finally dispose of confessed himself floored when I



LORD MILNER.

(Governor of the new crown colonies.)

asked him how to treat a colored literary man who was coming to meet me in a town strange to both of us. "It wouldn't do to go to an hotel," he said. "What would you do, then?" Well, he was hanged if he knew!

I applied for advice to a gentleman learned in the law and practised in Christian duty. He was as puzzled as my other friend. Finally, he suggested that possibly the negro and myself might find a minister of the Gospel kind enough to play Good Samaritan to both of us. What happened I won't stop now to tell.

All this, I dare say, sounds queerly to people who, like myself, were nurtured on missionary meetings. We needn't argue about the propriety of drawing a color line. It is there, and there isn't in all Africa a man bold enough to believe that it will ever be obliterated. There is only a limited similarity between the negro question of America and that of South Africa. In America, for instance, he speaks "God Almighty's own language."

A Colorado friend traveled with me from Cape Town to Johannesburg. For a generation he has employed negroes on all sorts of building work in the United States. He is used to them;



Sir Arthur Lawley.
(Lieutenant-Governor of the Transvaal.)



Major Gould Adams.
(Commissioner of Orange River Colony.)



Sir Hely Hutchinson.
(Governor of Cape Colony.)

SOME LEADING BRITISH REPRESENTATIVES DEALING WITH THE NEW PROBLEMS OF SOUTH AFRICA.

he never said an uncharitable word about them. But when he had seen all sorts and conditions of them where they are indigenous, he summed up his impressions in one sentence, "Well, I never want to see another nigger as long as I live."

A CIVILIZATION TEST.

The most courageous word that was spoken for the negro while I was in South Africa was Lord Milner's speech to the Municipal Conference at Johannesburg. He spoke neither as the governor of the new colonies nor as high commissioner for the whole of British South Africa, but as "a friendly old gentleman with a certain amount of political experience." Prospectively, he suggested that the test of fitness for the municipal franchise should be civilization, not color.

He knew that the popular sentiment of Johannesburg and of the two colonies was against him. But he stated the case for the lettered black with absolute fearlessness. Theoretically, and apart from its relation to the Vereeniging terms, Lord Milner's position is unanswerable. Practically, it has scarcely any friends. When it was submitted to the Legislative Council at Pretoria, only one unofficial member blessed it, and the government withdrew its proposal.

YOU PAY THE PIPER, WE FIX THE TUNE.

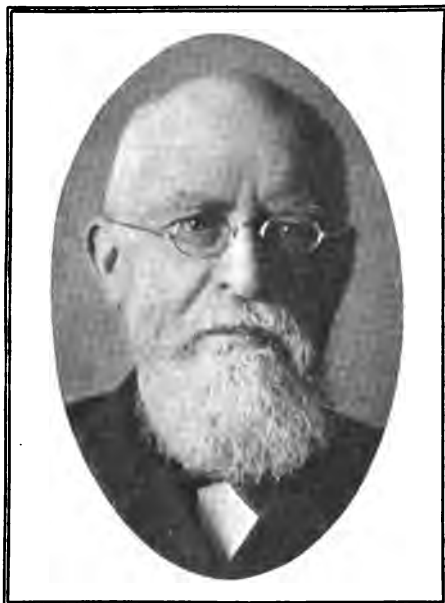
Certain patriotic Englishmen declare that as the old country has to pay for the war, it is going to be master when native policy is settled

in South Africa. There are two certainties in connection with that attitude. The first is that the old country will for generations be paying for the war. The second is that the old country will not be permitted to dictate South African native policy. Let Downing Street try; it will raise a storm in Africa which it cannot calm. There are South African imperialists who cannot understand how sane Britishers can think of granting home rule to Ireland. They are even more unable to understand how any sane Britisher can imagine that he may dare to deny home rule to South Africa, especially with regard to dominion over the Kaffir.

Don't run away with the idea that your fellow-Christian in Africa is an incipient Legree. He knows the Kaffir much better than he knows the Ten Commandments. He deplores the ability of the Kaffir to copy the white man's vices without emulating his virtues. He will tell you how, a generation ago, he would send a raw nigger forty miles to a bank for workmen's wages, sure that he would not even be tempted to dishonor his trust. He will not repeat the deed in the twentieth century. While you are trying to think out the significance of this, he will announce to you that 95 per cent. of the black convicts whom you see working on the road or harbor works are Christianized Kaffirs. Straightway you are thankful that, so far, your dealings with the native problem are chiefly confined to settling up with rickshaw boys.

WHAT'S TO BE DONE WITH THE KAFFIR?

What will South Africa do with her negroes? I don't know. South Africa doesn't know, and doesn't profess to know. On this question, more, perhaps, than upon any other, my countrymen consciously place their trust in Providence. Sufficient for the day is the Kaffir thereof. An English parson put it to me like this: "If we give the Kaffirs plenty of liquor, we shall have no trouble. If we deny liquor to them, we shall have a frightful problem to deal with." As there are ten blacks in Natal to one white.



MR. JAN HOFMEYR.
(Leader of the Afrikaner Bond.)

as nearly every native woman you see has a tail of three or four youngsters, as large families are not the rule among the British-born, the terrible problem is sure to come, for unlimited intoxication is in no man's creed.

The Kaffir is a child. During the war, he was treated as a man, and paid three and four times as much as was given to long-suffering Tommy Atkins. To this aspect of patriotism the Kaffir applies the immutable principles of arithmetic. In Cape Town, he goes to work at nine, quits at five, and draws 4s. 6d. for the exercise with the air of a man who has done his employer a favor. It will take him some time to get rid of the notion that he is thrice as good as Tommy Atkins. When you see a gang of Kaffirs making a Johannesburg road, on about the same terms, you see that the gospel of the dignity of labor is still

imperfectly understood. They work part of the time, rest most of the time, and talk all the time.

WHERE BRITON AND BOER ARE ONE.

The South African Britisher concedes many merits to his neighbor Boer. The Dutch, he says, understand the Kaffir. Mr. Chamberlain has reached the same conclusion. Which means that on the question which underlies, overshadows, and encompasses all others in South Africa there is neither Briton nor Boer. Dislike their demeanor toward their poor relation as much as you please; but remember that on this matter there is substantial identity of views and conduct.



MR. FISCHER.
(Former Secretary of the Orange Free State.)

Go against their prejudices and experience, and you will contribute something to the fusion of the white races which every wise man so ardently desires.

It is a waste of good emotion to hope for any social equality between white and black in South Africa. I have seen an ordained clergyman walking in the gutter in a British capital because he dare not tread upon the causeway, not having a pass for such an honor. A self-denying worker in a Young Men's Christian Association discoursed to me about the Kaffir in terms which showed that his great apprehension for the future is that the Kaffir will get an idea that he has a capacity to rise in intelligence. But the Kaffir will rise. You cannot teach him the dignity of labor without helping him to do it. The Toryism which would have denied education to the common people in England would keep the Kaffir in perpetual babyhood. But the Almighty is against that kind of bondage. How, then, are you to give the Sermon on the Mount a chance to operate on your poor relation?

NOVEL CHAMBERS OF EVOLUTION.

Missionaries, they say, are mistaken in thinking there are short-cuts from barbarism to high civilization. The ascent of black mankind is bound to be slow, even as the elevation of the white was. If he is cultured from his cradle, and resides in Piccadilly, he will hunger for the

kraal even as young inland republics hunger for the sea. But the black is coming out of the darkness of savagery into the marvelous light which beams from Europe. Rand mines are veritable chambers of evolution, and compounds are resting-places on the road to that beneficent independence of honest endeavor which will some day be appreciated even in Belgravia.

When Adam had foolishly unlocked the secret of knowledge of good and evil, the first lesson he had to learn was to eat bread in the sweat of his face. The all but naked Kaffir who comes to Johannesburg is not far from where Adam was before he became a father. His more advanced brother is apt to place himself in competition with his white benefactor. That will never do. The need for helping the black is as great as the most fervent orator of Exeter Hall asserts it to be. It is so big that every ounce of civilizing power that is generated in a negro's character must be spent on his fellow. The best friends of England in Ireland declare that the root blunder of English rule over there is the attempt to make bad Englishmen into good Irishmen. There is wisdom in the saying. So there is in the dictum that a dress suit cannot become a South African native all the time millions of his brethren are happy with the least possible additions to the clothes in which nature sent them into the world.

THE CAPITALIST.

The mine-owner is doing a divine work. It is not necessary to praise him for it any more than it is to congratulate yourself on having made the mistakes which have taught you the most valuable lessons in this life. The mine-owner, when he talks to himself, does not say he is a philanthropist to his Kaffirs. He is an unintentional evangelist of the gospel of clothes, all the same. A raw Kaffir from the East Coast buys a trunk with some of his first month's wages and asks the storekeeper to hold it for him. Next month he buys a suit and puts it in the trunk. So he fills the box with the outward symbols of civilization. In due time he takes it away, with

perhaps a trousers-stretcher or two. It makes you laugh to see his apings of Regent Street. But there is always something of the ludicrous in struggling gentility. The thing that matters is that Taste is awaking out of sleep. In the mine, the seed of industry has taken root; and presently your Kaffir won't be satisfied to shiver in the co'd morning air. His Rand experience is



MR. MERRIMAN.

(Introducer of the amnesty bill into the Cape Parliament.)

MR. SAUER.

(A prominent member of the Cape Parliament.)

all to the good, and no one need be anxious lest his employer make too much moral and intellectual dividend out of it.

THE EVANGELISTS OF THE GOSPEL OF CLOTHES.

The mine-owner is a human being. As a rule, the mine manager is more so. Both are worth something besides a bill of indictment. They have taught some Cape Colonists that it is dangerous to hurry to be rich. While the colonists recommend to one another the supreme virtues of simple living, they draw their chief governmental revenue from the railways, which would not have been there if the mine-owner had not exploited the reefs of the high veldt. Gold mining on the Rand is a real industry. Any notion that gold can be dug as easily as potatoes cannot survive a tour around a mine.

Of course, there have been capitalistic excesses in the Transvaal. There is enough wa-

tered capital in the Kaffir market to drown the integrity of a whole school of divinity. But the Johannesburg stock exchange is not the only one in the empire where the Anglo-Saxon from Saxony is too much of a predominant partner. Swearing at him won't convert him. Nor will it teach him his place. He is a good servant, but a bad master,—chiefly the latter. The way to bring him into useful service is to recognize and exploit his good qualities, and to prove to him that political wisdom generally is housed among people who are not heavy-laden with this world's goods. The goldbug, as a rule, knows his own political disabilities better than his pure critic does. He deploras the absence of great statesmen from South Africa just as much as you do.

THE NEED FOR LABOR.

The millionaire called for war, and got it. A cynical Englishman has said, "The Uitlanders fought for their grievances, and they've got 'em." Cynicism and satire generally overshoot their mark. But the Uitlander was born to grumble, and though war destroys many things, it cannot stop a Britisher's growling. Abundance of labor on the Rand is still a long way off; and John Chinaman's shadow is beginning to terrify the land. It was predicted that British rule would soon tend to open up the country. So it has. Government has borrowed five millions for railway-building. But, bless you, to build railroads means navvies,—black navvies. Even a nigger can't be in two places at once. So when the government takes the Kaffir to make gradients, the mine-owner says that isn't playing the game. He has the first claim on labor, and the government should see that the country cannot live by railways alone. It is impossible to build British supremacy on the backs of only sixty thousand boys engaged for only a year each. Isn't this cool cheek?

THE DOMINANCE OF THE RAND.

It isn't cheek. It is hard necessity. Providence has decreed that the Rand is the first driving-wheel of South African twentieth-century progress. That is a fact which will never, never down. South Africa would have been bankrupt but for the birth of Johannesburg. South Africa is destined to be a great commonwealth. But it can only become such by way of much tribulation. Johannesburg is a synonym for tribulation. Which is another way of repeating that South Africa is unlike anything in the heavens above or the earth beneath. The foundation of Canada's prosperity and of her political grandeur was spread across the con-



RICKSHAS IN MARKET STREET, DURBAN.

tinents on farms whereon white men were and are their own laborers. So the way was made straight for developing the mineral wealth which is richly stored in the mighty Dominion.

Agriculturally, South Africa is a paradox. I traveled a thousand miles and saw not a single sign of a fine crop of cereals. The Western prairies will sustain millions of people, who only have to go there to be sure of bread and butter. But in South Africa, agriculture will develop on other lines. It costs ten dollars a week to feed a horse in Pretoria. There is plenty of fertile land in the country, but precious little water. When the mines are in full blast, there will be an overflow of prosperity to the land, and a family will be able to live on a much smaller estate than is possible to-day. Capitalism may have a special part to play in South African agriculture.

A TOP-HEAVY COMMUNITY.

Sir Percy Fitzpatrick described the position of Johannesburg to me in one word—"The community is top-heavy and needs to be steadied." He spoke the truth. The man who can make of Johannesburg the sure corner-stone of imperial South Africa will be he who can put the pyramid the right end up. If such a one arise, he will show the way to save the empire, at whose condition Mr. Chamberlain has taken the gravest alarm. When you have rescued the millionaire from himself, you have cracked the hardest nut in Christendom and Jewry.

THE HEART OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE AND ITS SOUL.

A REVIEW OF CHARLES BOOTH'S NOTABLE BOOK.*

LONDON is the heart of the British Empire. It has waxed mighty and great, greater than all the cities of ancient and modern times. But wherewith shall it profit if it have lost its soul? If the existence of its soul is to be inferred from the extent to which its citizens frequent meetings for prayer, it must be admitted to be in a very parlous state. For the one notable result of the recent *Daily News* census is the discovery that prayer meetings, which were once regarded as the vital breath of the life of the Church, have almost ceased to exist. In the populous borough of Chelsea, only thirty persons were found to be in attendance at prayer meetings. Thirty persons out of seventy thousand.

Week-night services have also fallen into disuse. The religious life of London is forsaking the accustomed channels of former days. Has religion itself dried up and disappeared? Or is London as religious as ever it has been—only in different fashion?

HOW THE CENSUS WAS TAKEN.

The *Daily News* census is a notable piece of journalistic work. It is at least a good thing to know where we are. The census was taken in a very methodical fashion. Instead of being taken all over London on one day, the collection of the number of attendants was spread over more than six months. Each Sunday, the census was taken simultaneously at all the churches and chapels in one of the twenty-nine boroughs into which London is divided on one day, but no one knew which day was allotted to which borough. Four hundred enumerators were employed, one for each church door. Half the enumerators were called superintendents. Over the whole staff were thirteen inspectors, working under Mr. Mudie Smith, as registrar-general. These enumerators had to count every man, woman, and child entering places of worship in London, distinguishing between the sexes and between children and adults. They also, by an ingenious

system, discovered that 65 per cent. of the worshippers are the poor creatures called "oncers" by Mr. Gladstone. Only 35 per cent. attend two services on Sunday.

THE FIGURES OF THE CENSUS.

The net result of their numbering of the people as they entered places of worship is summarized as follows:

MORNING AND EVENING TOTALS.

	Morning.	Evening.	Total.
Established Church.....	220,431	209,722	430,153
Nonconformist churches..	169,312	246,913	416,225
Roman Catholic Church..	73,680	12,868	86,548
Other services.....	35,310	27,660	62,970
Totals	498,733	504,207	1,002,940

TOTALS FOR MEN, WOMEN, AND CHILDREN.

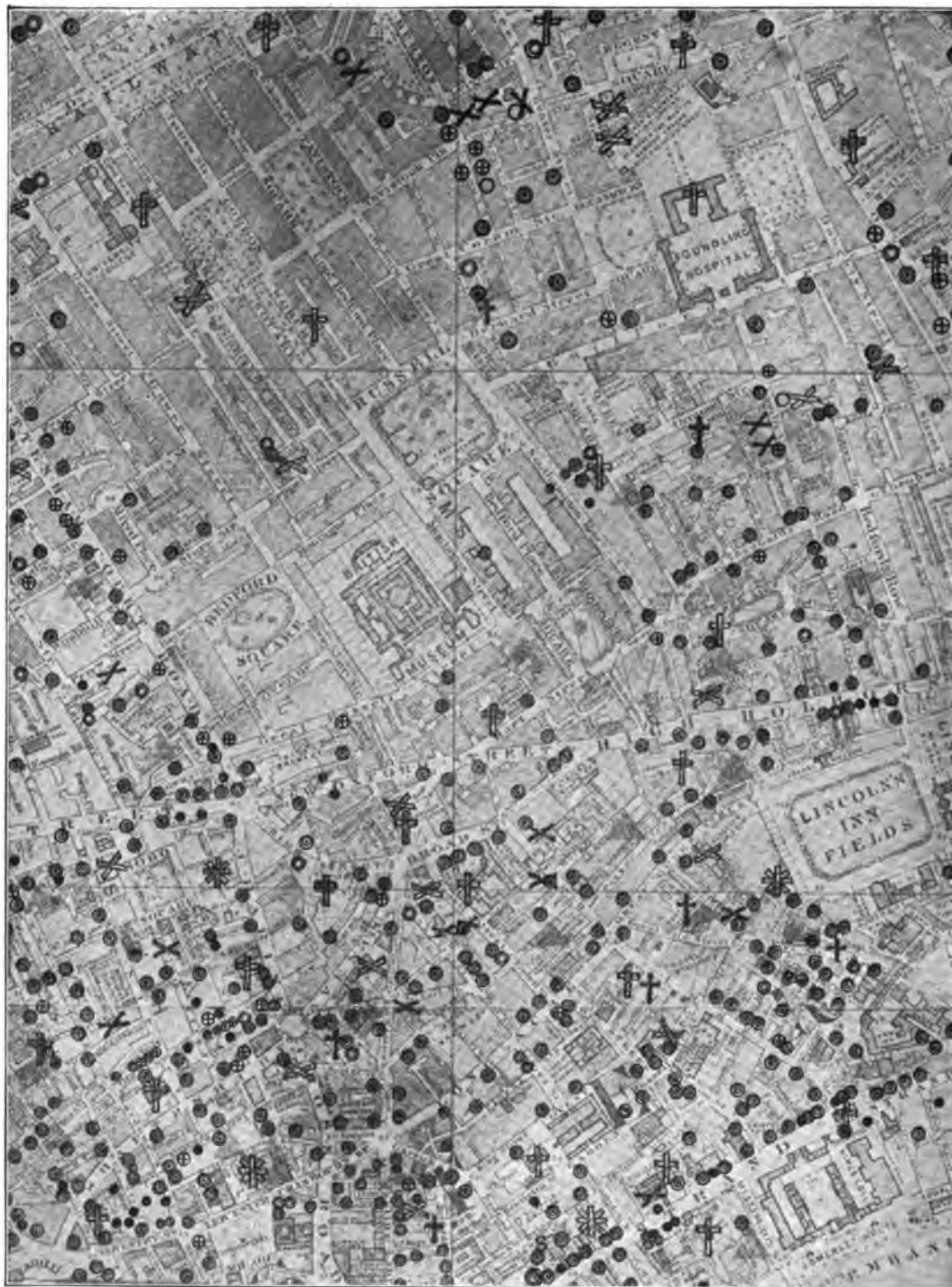
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
Established Church.....	98,477	138,354	143,322	430,153
Nonconformist churches...	120,782	165,978	129,465	416,225
Roman Catholic Church...	23,555	42,774	20,213	86,548
Other services.....	22,436	15,867	24,667	62,970
Totals	265,250	412,988	323,307	1,002,940

It adds to the significance of these figures to know that the number of attendants at the Established Church is steadily sinking. The Church is numerically and comparatively worse attended than it was twenty-five years ago. Not all the fervor of the Tractarians has succeeded in arresting the drying up of the congregations of the Establishment. On the whole, the Nonconformists have held their own better than the Anglicans. But the ancient practice of not neglecting the assembling of themselves together in the worship of God is apparently on the wane among us.

A man need not be a Christian to regret this. In the remarkable volume in which Mr. Charles Booth sums up the results of seventeen years' close observation of London and its peoples, nothing is more remarkable than what its author calls "the great main fact" which no carping can touch, and to which "we have endless testimony," that "Christian people are nearly all temperate and thrifty, and the better in every

* "Life and Labour in London." Conclusion. By Charles Booth. Macmillan & Co.

The *Daily News* Census of Church Attendance in London.



A PORTION OF MR. CHARLES BOOTH'S MAP OF LONDON, 1890-1900, SHOWING PLACES OF WORSHIP, ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AND HOUSES LICENSED TO SELL INTOXICANTS.

Roman cross—Anglican, in outline a church, solid a mission.
 A double cross—Roman Catholic church.
 St. Andrew's cross—Nonconformist, in outline a church, solid a mission.
 A circle—beer-house with "off" license.

A double circle—beer-house with "off" and "on" license.
 A double circle with dot in center—fully licensed house.
 A circle with cross—grocers with license.
 A solid circle—licensed restaurant without a bar.
 A square—Board, and a triangle—Voluntary elementary school.

way for being so." If this be so, it is an ill look-out for London if year by year an increasing number of its population cease to be Christian even in name. Londoners will not be "better in every way" for losing their attachment to the one great agency which, Mr. Booth being witness, operates everywhere for temperance and thrift and the betterment of the people.

WHY THE CHURCHES FAIL.

The more we read of what Mr. Booth has to tell us, the more we feel dismayed at the symptoms of decay that are revealed by the *Daily News* census in the efficiency of the soul-stirring apparatus of modern London. For, although bright gleams of hope here and there irradiate the gloom, the picture which he gives us is on the whole a somber one. The evils which he reveals are those which the Christian Church was constituted to overcome, nor does he point to any other agency better fitted to carry on the struggle if the Church is dismissed as effete. It is true that the Church of Christ has largely forgotten Christ, and many of the evils described by Mr. Booth are never assailed in flank or in rear by the bodies which describe themselves as the armies of the living God. Mr. Mudie Smith, in summing up the conclusions which he deduces from his enumeration, lays the greatest stress upon the fact that the churches have all, more or less, abdicated their great function as ministering servants of humanity.

A SUGGESTION TO PREACHERS.

This leads us up to the practical question whether the preachers in the twenty-six hundred places of worship to be found in London to-day have done anything to bring before the million souls who listen to them every Sunday the conclusions which Mr. Charles Booth has arrived at in the course of his prolonged, patient diagnosis of the diseases of the body politic.

"Watchman, what of the night?" is a cry which often rises from the lips of every earnest waiter for the dawn. Here is a watchman who has given seventeen years of his life to find out and proclaim the truth concerning this Great Babylon in which we live. He has seen it with his own eyes, in its riches and in its poverty, in its grandeur and its crime, he has probed it in every part, he has dissected its living nerves, and he stands forth to tell us how things are, and, what is still more important, how things may, in his opinion, be mended. He is a prophet with a message. His prophecy is based upon scientific observation. His message is instinct with a hope born of knowledge and

experience. If the churches of London are going to take seriously their divine commission, they had better, one and all, from the Bishop of London and the Jewish rabbis down to the ethical societies and General Booth, take this concluding volume as the subject for their sermons at least once a week for the next six months.

THE SERVANTLESS MILLIONS.

London,—what is London? To begin with, London is a conglomerate of 800,000 families,—if we average five persons to a family,—of whom 666,000 have no servants. While only 95,000 families enjoy the luxury of a domestic servant, 3,371,789 persons,—men, women, and children,—wake every morning in London knowing that in the course of the day they will have to do all their own work with their own hands, while only 476,325, or 11 per cent. of the whole, are in a position to employ any of the 205,858 persons of the servant class. Of these 3,371,789 of the servantless class, nearly half a million are pigged together three in a room, while three-quarters of a million have half a room each; 354,000 belong to the very poor, 900,000 to the poor. The poor we have always with us, to the tune of 30 per cent. The poor and the very poor outnumber all the men, women, and children who find themselves, on Sunday, in church or chapel. There is no overcrowding in the house of God; but the houses of men are inconveniently full.

HOUSING SLOWLY IMPROVING.

Bad as things are,—and they are very bad,—hundreds of thousands being herded together in conditions which render decency and morality and a human life practically impossible, it is reassuring to be told that the statistics of overcrowding show considerable progress in the last ten years.

While one-room tenements have decreased from 172,502 to 149,524, or 14 per cent., three-room and four-room tenements have increased 16 per cent., 18 per cent., and 21 per cent., respectively. In every way, there is considerably less crowding than ten years ago.

No doubt there are still slums; but the worst are gone, and the present state of things cannot be compared with the squalor, misery, and neglect which prevailed thirty years ago.

Much has been done; but it is little to that which remains to be done. One of the most elaborate chapters in this book is devoted to a painstaking exposition of what ought to be done to improve the housing of the Londoners, and another to set forth that policy of expansion which is the only radical remedy.

MR. BOOTH'S SUGGESTION TO BUILDERS.

There is only room here to note one of Mr. Booth's most characteristic recommendations:

I wish I could rouse in the minds of speculative builders a sense of the money value that lies in individuality, with its power of attracting the eye, rooting the affections, and arousing pride in house and home. Then would they seek to use, in place of sedulously destroying, every natural feature of beauty, and take thought to add others. A slightly greater width of garden on the sunny side, whether front or back, may make all the difference; a single tree left standing can glorify a whole street. Fresh painting and papering within is not the highest ideal; its charm passes; the other gathers force as the years go by.

ARE LONDONERS BECOMING SOBER?

As to intemperance, Mr. Booth has much to say that is very interesting.

There is less drunkenness than formerly, and the increase in drinking is to be laid mainly to the account of the female sex. This latter phase seems to be one of the unexpected results of the emancipation of woman. On the one hand she has become more independent of man, industrially and financially, and on the other, more of a comrade than before, and in neither capacity does she feel any shame at entering a public-house. . . . Whether the people drink less or not, the police are practically agreed in saying that they are much less rowdy than formerly. . . .

HOW TO DEAL WITH PUBLIC-HOUSES.

Mr. Booth's remedy would be, not prohibition, but improved public-houses. He wishes

To improve the conditions under which alcoholic drinks are supplied to all classes of the community, that the standard of propriety in these public places should not only be set as high as possible, but should everywhere at least equal, and in poorer neighborhoods rise above, that ordinarily obtaining in the homes. . . . Whatever the policy, we need a stronger and more vital authority to enforce it. For London, I would suggest that such an authority could be constituted by a small committee of the London County Council, with a permanent paid secretary sitting with assessors, who might be trained lawyers appointed by the home office.

Such a body, he thinks, would insist on several reforms.

The first of these will be for powers of local taxation by means of extra rating of the values created by the granting of licenses. . . . The next demand will probably be for placing all clubs or bars of clubs in which alcohol is sold under the same restrictions as the hours of public-houses; and, again, this will be even more necessary with a policy of unmitigated restriction.

As to the hours of closing, Mr. Booth says:

I still think that there would be a substantial gain for the cause of temperance in adopting an earlier hour, and should advocate 11 o'clock every week-night

(and in clubs the same), with further special consideration to houses which were willing to close at 10.

LIGHT AND SHADE.

Betting, he thinks, is increasing both among men and women. On the other hand, we read:

Habits of thrift, it is said, must be improving. It would be impossible otherwise to explain the wonderful reserve power of the poor. The poor help each other more than any other class, and there must be resources of a greater extent than is realized.

Another bright side is revealed to us in the following extract:

Moral improvement among the people is immense, owing, mainly, to education; shown, among other ways, in kindness to animals. The day was (says an old resident) when no cat could appear in the streets of Bethnal Green without being hunted and maltreated; now, such conduct is rare.

OLD-AGE PENSIONS.

When Mr. Booth comes to deal with the relief of distress and the organization of charitable relief, he seizes the opportunity to restate his plea for universal old-age pensions at the age of seventy:

I would make seventy the age at which a free and honorable pension should be granted to every one who up to then had not received poor relief (other than medical), and I put the amount at seven shillings per week, in place of the more generally adopted proposal of five shillings a week at sixty-five. Proof of age, nationality, and residence in England during the working of life would be required.

The abolition of out-relief is, I think, essential, and at the same time quite possible, if poor law and organized private effort will work hand in hand, and if the pension, which becomes in itself a great motive to thrift, is assured in the future.

Among the reforms which he thinks essential are:

An extension of the system of a common poor fund, subject to agreement as to the principles of administration; consultations between boards of guardians and charitable agencies as to the relief, and a distinct recognition of their respective spheres.

MR. BOOTH'S BEST HOPE.

Surveying London as a whole, Mr. Charles Booth seems to see most ground for hope in the London County Council and in trade-unions. He says:

A new middle class is forming which will, perhaps, hold the future in its grasp. Its advent seems to me the great social fact of to-day. Those who constitute this class are the especial product of the push of industry; within their circle, religion and education find the greatest response; among them, all popular movements take their rise, and from them draw their leaders. To them, in proportion as they have ideas, political power will pass.

THE NEW MOVEMENT FOR RELIGIOUS EDUCATION.

BY PROFESSOR FRANK KNIGHT SANDERS.

(Dean of the theological faculty of Yale University and president of the Religious Education Association.)

SO marked has been the advance during the last decade in an appreciation of the actual working conditions of religious instruction for all ages and classes, that both those who are theorists and those who actively participate in instruction are agreed in realizing that the current methods are unsatisfactory and unscientific and, not infrequently, irreligious. This is hardly more true in the Sunday school than in the day school, public or private. The crusade against the teaching of religion in our public schools need never have gained headway if the limitations as well as the possibilities of such instruction had been carefully studied.

The mistakes of the past are now seen with reasonable distinctness, the resources available to the earnest and thoughtful religious instructor in any field are more fully realized, and the time is clearly at hand when an organized attempt to develop religious education along broad lines may accomplish large and immediately practical results. A new organization is required for the important reason that none of those already in existence are in a position to deal with these problems in a comprehensive and satisfactory way.

RELIGIOUS TEACHING IN THE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

Much progress has been made in the last decade or two in the development of biblical instruction in the curricula of our educational institutions. In 1880, the matter was either ignored altogether or almost universally met by the provision that at a certain hour in the week each college or academical class should meet for instruction in the Bible, the regular faculty being depended upon to furnish the requisite instruction. At the present time, a dozen institutions of higher learning, not professional schools, can be named at which the very highest type of biblical study is made a part, usually elective, of the course for the degree of B.A.

In 1888, Yale University began to offer courses of biblical instruction on an equality in every respect with those of other departments, and purely for the sake of their value for general, liberal culture. Yale may or may not have been

the pioneer, and is certainly no longer exceptional in making such provision. At that time such a department was greatly hindered by the lack of appropriate reference literature or text-books. These are now being rapidly provided. The field for this sort of religious advance is, indeed, unlimited. There are few institutions of higher learning, not excepting the State universities, which cannot wisely and readily adopt such a series of courses on the history and literature of the Bible, of the Orient, and on the philosophy of religion as obtain in a few colleges. Such courses are absolutely without sectarian value, and are followed with enthusiasm by students of every shade of religious belief and of every form of historic faith. The Protestant, Romanist, Jew, Greek, or barbarian can find common historical ground in the class-room of an instructor trained in modern methods. There is, therefore, a large work of promotion possible in the institutions of higher learning, a work which demands the influence and support of such an organization as the Religious Education Association.

BIBLICAL INSTRUCTION BY CORRESPONDENCE.

The field of correspondence instruction is one of magnitude and importance. Its possibilities for the promotion of religious education among people at large are just beginning to be fully realized. More than twenty years ago, President William R. Harper, then a professor of Hebrew at the theological seminary at Morgan Park, Ill., organized the American Institute of Hebrew, to give instruction by correspondence in Hebrew. This work was taken over by the American Institute of Sacred Literature in 1889, instruction being also offered to individual students in the English Bible. Soon provision was made for work for clubs and guilds, and so the work has steadily developed until, last year, the institute taught thousands of students. Moreover, such well-established institutions as the University of Chicago and Vanderbilt University deliberately utilize correspondence courses as a possible means of making progress toward a degree. The method is fully justified; it remains to use it to the utmost.

A CLEARING HOUSE FOR EDUCATIONAL IDEAS.

Summer assemblies, or schools, have become a well-recognized auxiliary in education. They are multiplying rapidly, and rarely fail to plan to combine education with recreation. They afford a unique opportunity for the promotion of religious education, and are almost uniformly hospitable to its presentation.

Aside from these and other opportunities which present themselves to-day for a well-organized, well-balanced forward movement in religious education, and which call for the unifying and comprehending influence of a new organization, its relationship to the host of unrelated and unattached investigators of religious problems must not be overlooked. These are legion. They may be sincere and resourceful, but are often unable to get a public hearing. They are not infrequently possessed of valuable ideas which may or may not be workable in the form originated by them. The Religious Education Association, organized to promote investigation and discovery, will serve, through its proper department, as a clearing house for ideas, as a friendly critic, and as an indorser of plans which are sound.

There is, then, abundant room for an organization which may devote itself to the active promotion of religious and moral education, one which seeks,—to use the language of the resolution adopted by the convention of last February,—"to render such general assistance as shall increase the efficiency of all individuals and organizations now engaged in religious and moral instruction, serving as a clearing house for ideas and activities, unifying, stimulating, and developing all those forces which together can secure to religion and morality their true place and their proper influence."

THE NEW ASSOCIATION AS A WORKING BODY.

Since the organization of the association at Chicago, on February 12, 1903, the executive board has been busy with the completion of the plans of organization, no easy or quickly managed task. The convention voted to adopt a constitution modeled on the lines of that of the National Educational Association, departing from the usages of that body in three important particulars,—a single board of directors, a large and fairly representative executive board, and departments organized for continuous service. As in that association, the executive board is given the responsibility for the management of the organization's affairs. The convention elected the president, sixteen vice-presidents, twenty directors at large, and an executive board of twenty-one.

Since its organization, the executive board has appointed two executive officers, thirty-nine State or provincial directors, and one hundred and thirty-three committeemen to be in executive charge of the sixteen departments of religious education at present organized: universities and colleges, theological seminaries, churches and pastors, Sundays schools, secondary public schools, elementary public schools, private schools, teacher training, Christian associations, young people's societies, the home, libraries, the press, correspondence instruction, summer assemblies, religious art and music. The organization is now complete with the exception of two executive officers,—the general secretary and the editorial secretary,—so important that the board has been as yet unable to announce permanent appointments. That no harm has resulted from this delay is due to the remarkably efficient volunteer service so far available. The council also awaits organization.

Meanwhile, the membership list has grown spontaneously and with astonishing rapidity. In June, at the time of the issue of the volume of proceedings, it had reached a total of thirteen hundred. It numbers now over fifteen hundred, and bids fair to be doubled, at least, by the end of the first year. A perusal of the list conclusively shows that the religious and educational strength of the country is already centering in the association. This gives ample reason to anticipate steady and important progress as a result of the movement. It is noteworthy that this association, within three months after its organization, had nearly one-half as many active members (with the same annual fee of two dollars) as the National Educational Association after its thirty years of illustrious history and unparalleled service to general education.

PUBLICATIONS.

During these months, the executive board has published an attractive volume of four hundred and thirty pages, giving in full the history of the movement, leading up to the convention, the addresses delivered, the minutes, the constitution adopted, and the list of officers and members, with a convenient index. It is a handbook of the association in its initial year, but far more. The convention was one of the most significant and stimulating gatherings ever held. The addresses constitute a permanent contribution to the discussion of the weighty problems of religious education. The volume is unrivaled for interest, freshness, and continued value. The board has also issued a thirty-two-page pamphlet of information and the first number of a regular bulletin for mem-

bers.* In July, at Boston, a meeting of the board of directors convened to hear a report from the executive board and to provide for the vigorous promotion of the work of the association in the months to come. It indorsed a wide observance of October 4 as "Bible Study Sunday," on which day the ministry will be urged to discuss "The Bible in Relation to Christian Life and to the Work of the Church;" it ratified the suggestions outlined for the immediate development of departmental work; it approved the plans for the next convention, and for securing a general secretary; it got together a body of about sixty officers, thirty-eight living outside of New England, and in many ways contributed to the strengthening of the movement.

RELATION TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

A well-defined programme for the future the association is unprepared to announce. It plans to make each annual convention the occasion for a noteworthy permanent contribution to the working literature of religious education. No pains will be spared to insure that the next convention, in March, 1904, will afford such a treatment of "The Bible in its Practical Application to Life." The association will do its constructive work through its departments, and should not anticipate their action. Each one of the sixteen is in charge of an important field, although public interest seems to be particularly centered upon the religious education of the young in the Sunday school, the day school, and the home. A great and puzzling problem is that of the elementary and secondary public schools. These departments are under the wise guidance of well-known men who are fully identified with public-school interests, and yet are in complete sympathy with an effort to reasonably promote religious growth side by side with mental training. These and other departments have organized, initiated investigations, and will be heard from as soon as there can be a judicious publication of results. An organization so far-reaching must make haste slowly, notwithstanding the natural desire on the part of the public for immediate reforms of all abuses.

ADOPTION OF SCIENTIFIC METHODS.

A factor of no inconsiderable value in the promotion of these interests will be the Council of Religious Education, as yet unorganized. It will be composed of sixty active members of the

organization, each one chosen as an expert, on the basis of his actual contributions to the cause of religious education. This body will give itself to the initiation, conduct, discussion, and completion of investigations, on the basis of which it will make authoritative recommendations. It will aim to develop theories, but not to be impractical. With the adjustment of theories to practice it may not concern itself, but rather with the adequate survey of data. A true theory can be readily adjusted to existing conditions; an inadequate induction is productive only of weakness.

THE APPEAL TO THE INDIVIDUAL.

The Religious Education Association welcomes to membership not only those who are actively engaged in the work of religious education, such as ministers, professional men, secretaries, or teachers, but every one who desires to make his or her influence felt in promoting a wise progress in religious and moral education. Great movements require the coöperation of many unselfish individuals, who never ask for personal recognition. The right solution of the problems which press for consideration to-day can only be reached when good men consent to think and plan together along broad, unifying lines, and to act in unison for practicable ends.

The work before us to-day is highly important. It is "to give religion its rightful part in the development of the individual and of society, to correlate religious and moral instruction with that in history, science, and literature obtained in public or private schools, to determine the established results of modern psychology and pedagogy, and of the historical study of the Bible as related to religious instruction, to indicate the proper place of the Bible in religious and moral instruction and the wise methods of its use, to establish its adaptedness, historically studied, for the promotion of such religious instruction as the state may rightfully promote, to show the necessity of adapting religious instruction to various stages of physical, mental, moral, and spiritual development in the pupil, to promote the adoption in all schools of courses of study and methods of teaching which take into account the present status of knowledge, to further the adequate training of leaders and teachers for the responsible work of religious instruction, and to unite all individuals and agencies now laboring for these higher ideals of religious education." These achievements are wholly within the range of the men and women of to-day, and constitute an imperative summons to all to lend such a movement their influence, participation, and support.

*The Religious Education Association has established an executive office at 153-155 La Salle Street, Chicago, Ill., at which its literature is obtainable on request.

RURAL SCHOOL LIBRARIES IN NORTH CAROLINA.

BY CLARENCE H. POE.

(Editor of the *Progressive Farmer*, Raleigh, N. C.)

JUST now, when the princely donations of Mr. Andrew Carnegie have given a new stimulus to library-building in American cities, it may be well to turn our eyes to the "other half,"—the rural half,—of our population, for although, until quite recently, no one thought of the public library as a possible rural institution, it has now made an auspicious entry into this new field, and is destined to play an important part among the twentieth-century forces,—rural mail delivery, good roads, rural telephones, etc.,—that make for the uplift of American country life.

The need of the rural library must be apparent to all who are familiar with country school methods. Reading is the magic key to all our storehouses of intellectual wealth; it is the basis of all education. "The true university of these days," says Carlyle, "is a collection of books." And it is here, of all points in its curriculum, that the country school has failed most grievously,—it has not taught the child to read, to use books. Do not understand me to charge that the rural school is literally and avowedly disloyal to the first of the immortal three R's, for it is not. But only in the narrowest sense does it teach reading,—reading as the mere pronunciation of words and the observance of punctuation marks; the unlovely, mechanical side of reading. The brighter side of reading the country pupil does not get; the city pupil does. Aided by the prescribed supplemental literature, and guided by the teacher, the child of the townsman learns to find joy in reading, learns not only *how to read*, but actually learns *to read*, to use books. If you know the country school as the writer does, you know the other side of this picture. You know children who live out a long school career without learning anything of literature beyond the monotonous rehearsal of dry text-book matter. Cold, hard facts about the boundaries of foreign states, the dates of ancient battles, the rules of the Stock Exchange, are regarded as matters of importance, but the teacher does not see that it is better to foster a love of reading than to teach history or geography. Or if he sees the duty, and longs to direct the child to the beauties of literature, he is shackled by

the lack of facilities for such work. Year after year, there is the same old drill in the same old readers, no classics are studied, and there is no supplemental reading to give the spice of variety.

It is inevitable that children reared in such schools come to regard reading not as a luxury, but as drudgery, and grow up potentially, if not in the strictest sense, illiterate. "I confess," says Thoreau, somewhere in his "Walden," "that I do not make any broad distinction between the illiterateness of my townsman who cannot read at all and the illiterateness of him who has learned only to read what is for children and feeble intellects." How much narrower, then, should be the distinction between the "illiterateness of him who cannot read at all" and the illiterateness of him whose training has been such that he regards reading only as a task to be shunned! People everywhere are now beginning to see the mistake pointed out, ten years ago, by President Eliot in his essay "Wherein Popular Education Has Failed":

• We have heretofore put too much confidence in the mere acquisition of the arts of reading and writing. After these arts are acquired, there is much to be done to make them effective for the development of the child's intelligence. If his reasoning power is to be developed through reading, he must be guided to the right sort of reading. The school must teach not only how to read, but what to read, and it must develop a taste for wholesome reading.

It is to remedy just this defect that the rural school library has been introduced into twenty-nine American States. And though widely varying plans have been adopted, in no other State, I dare say, has more rapid progress been made or greater results accomplished in proportion to capital expended than in North Carolina. For this reason I may be pardoned for referring at some length to this North Carolina plan, which seems to be the one best adapted to States having a large rural population and a small revenue. The law as passed by the General Assembly of 1901 provides, in substance,—

That wherever the friends or patrons of any rural public school contribute \$10 or more for starting a library in connection with the school, \$10 of the district school fund shall also be set

apart for the same purpose, while another \$10 will be given from the State appropriation,—thus insuring at the outset at least \$30 for each school library; in many cases, of course, the patrons contribute more than the minimum sum, \$10, needed to secure the \$20 from other sources. The county board of education then names some competent person to manage the prospective library and buy the books for it, these to be chosen from a remarkably well-selected list of standard works recently prepared by a committee of distinguished educators. The same committee, by the way, obtained competitive bids from prominent publishing houses, thus forcing prices to strikingly low figures, even for classics. The smallest libraries have seventy-five or eighty neat and substantially bound volumes.

By the earnest efforts of the North Carolina Literary and Historical Association, an appropriation of five thousand dollars was obtained for the payment of the State's part on the experimental plan just outlined, and in September, 1901, the appropriation became available, and the first North Carolina rural school library was established. The entire sum would have been speedily exhausted by the more progressive sections had not the Legislature provided that State aid should be available for not more than six school districts in any one of the ninety-seven counties. Within five months, a third of the counties reached this limit, and applications from other communities within their borders had to be rejected. Before the General Assembly of 1903 met, in January, four hundred and thirty-one of a possible five hundred libraries had been helped. In the face of such success there was nothing for the Legislature to do but make an appropriation of five thousand dollars more for the ensuing two years, while twenty-five hundred dollars was added to maintain and enlarge the libraries already established, the same Carnegie-like principle of coöperation to be observed: each gift from the State to be duplicated by an appropriation from the school fund, and again duplicated by private subscription.

Already many applications for aid from the new appropriation have been received, and Superintendent Joyner confidently predicts that before the next Legislature meets North Carolina will have one thousand State-aided rural school libraries. Then there are others, established entirely by private gifts. In one county

(Durham), adjoining that in which the writer lives, a wealthy citizen continued the good work begun by the State. He offered to duplicate amounts raised after the State-aid limit had been reached, and now every one of the forty white schools in the county has a library.

One other fact deserves mention. Not only does the rural school library develop the reading habit,—it develops it along right lines. Since, as Emerson says, "the ancestor of every action is a thought," how important it is that the literature that is to provoke thought be wholesome and well balanced! In our city libraries, fiction has much too large a place, many women and young people read nothing else. But while these rural libraries contain a few great novels, the chief effort is to develop a proper appreciation of choice works of science, travel, nature-study, poetry, history, biography, and mythology. Even if the child formed the "reading habit" outside the school, it would still be worth while for the State to have these libraries for the sole purpose of turning his new-found love of literature into right channels of truth and beauty.

Nor have the boys and girls been the only beneficiaries of the new movement. It has opened up a new world for many of the parents, and has done incalculable good in continuing the education of persons too old or too poor to longer attend school. The superintendent of schools for Durham County says that the books are used almost as much by the parents as by the children themselves, and the Pitt County superintendent says that the libraries have caused hitherto indifferent parents to become deeply interested in reading and in the education of their children. "The peculiar value of the school library," as the *New York Evening Post* rightly observes, "lies in the fact that it educates the younger generation as well as the older."

All in all, the North Carolina plan has proved a strikingly successful innovation, and we are moved to wonder that our educational leaders did not long ago perceive the value of rural library work, or, realizing it, did not think of the ease with which it may be conducted in connection with the public school. We are now not far from the time when no house where children meet for study, whether in town or country, will be regarded as even tolerably equipped without a small collection of the best books.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE NEW HEAD OF THE STEEL TRUST.

MR. WILLIAM E. COREY, the new president of the United States Steel Corporation, succeeding Mr. Schwab, is, at the age of thirty-seven, head of the greatest corporation in the world. Nevertheless, Mr. Earl Mayo, who contributes a sketch of Mr. Schwab's successor in the September *Frank Leslie's*, says that a chief consideration that led to the appointment of Mr. Corey was the belief that he would prove an essentially conservative man. "We think of conservatism as associated naturally with gray hairs and dignity, but the man who sits at the president's desk in the offices of the Steel Corporation to-day is a short, sturdily built, blue-eyed, and red-cheeked individual who looks more youthful even than his years would indicate, and who puts on no more airs than he did when he was superintendent of a single department in one of the Carnegie mills.

MR. COREY'S CAREER.

"He was born in the town of Braddock, Pa., just outside of Pittsburgh, and got his early education from the public schools there until he was sixteen years old. One of the great Carnegie mills, the Edgar Thomson Steel Works, was situated in Braddock, and was the place to which most of the young men looked for employment.

"At sixteen, young Corey left school and began his practical education in these mills. The Thomson plant was the rail mill of the Carnegie combination. While he was learning how to make steel rails by day, the young man studied bookkeeping and other commercial studies at a business school during the evenings. Later on, he took up the study of chemistry and metallurgy on his own account.

"After a few years at Braddock, he was transferred to one of the plate mills of the Homestead plant, and a little later was placed in the order department, where he had a chance to learn something of the business management.

A SUPERINTENDENT AT TWENTY-ONE.

"At twenty-one, he became superintendent of the plate mill, and the open-hearth department was put in his charge soon afterward. His next promotion was to the position of superintendent of the armor-plate department, which was regarded as one of the most difficult as well as the most important in the whole works. When

Charles M. Schwab became president of the Carnegie company, in 1895, Mr. Corey was twenty-nine years of age. He had been thirteen years in the Carnegie mills, and was selected as the best man to succeed Mr. Schwab as general superintendent of the Homestead works.

HIS TECHNICAL INVENTIVENESS.

"In this position, he made a record as notable as that of Mr. Schwab himself. He perfected a method of reforcing armor known as the Corey reforcing process which increased the ballistic resistance of armor plate so that a desired resisting power could be obtained with a thinner plate than formerly. In conjunction with Prof. R. A. Fessenden, he also devised a mechanism for regulating the process of annealing plates which has been of great economy in this important branch of steel-making.

PROMOTED FROM THE CARNEGIE COMPANY.

"Upon the organization of the United States Steel Corporation and the election of Mr. Schwab as its president, in 1901, Mr. Corey again moved up and became president of the Carnegie company. Two other important steel plants were united with the Carnegie works as they had existed independently, and Mr. Corey's position was easily the most important executive post in the great steel trust after that of the president. Now that Mr. Schwab has given up the latter office, Mr. Corey, for the third time, has succeeded him."

CHARLES F. MURPHY, TAMMANY'S NEW RULER.

MR. FRANKLIN MATTHEWS tells of the passing of Richard Croker's power in an article in the September *World's Work*, and how Charles Francis Murphy has risen to the Tammany headship. The question of good government in New York City, after this fall, depends so much on the leadership of Tammany Hall that the subject is one of national concern. Mr. Matthews says that for a man to become a recognized head of Tammany two things are necessary,—he must come up from the ranks, and he must be a silent man.

WHAT A LEADER MUST DO.

To remain leader, he must first win the local elections in New York City. The elections won, he

must parcel out the spoils offices for subordinate leaders, jobs of various kinds for more lowly workers, and contracts for the inner circle that finances and controls the organization. He must crush any rival in his own camp. If he fails in any of these, Tammany sweeps him aside. Mr. Charles Francis Murphy, for ten years leader of the "Gas House" district, and for nearly twenty years its real power, has come up from the ranks, and is uncommonly silent.

MURPHY IN CONTROL.

"There is no doubt that Murphy is in complete control of Tammany to-day. If he wins the coming municipal election, he will be entrenched in power more completely than Richard Croker was. In his brief term of leadership, he has played a better game for perpetuating his rule than Croker ever played, and, like so many rulers of Tammany, he is approaching the supreme crisis of his leadership with the lightning of municipal scandal playing about his head."

INNOVATIONS BY THE NEW LEADER.

In attacking Democratic representation in the councils of the organization, Murphy has shown himself even bolder than Richard Croker. He disapproves of Devery, and, although the latter was regularly elected to Tammany's executive committee, Murphy threw him out, and the courts have upheld him, thus far, on a technicality. Then the new leader had a resolution passed making the executive committee practically self-perpetuating. No member of a new executive committee can serve until his credentials have been approved by the retiring committee. In cases of rejection, or "non-selection," the retiring committee selects for the next committee. Next, Murphy abolished the celebrated Finance Committee, whose chairman, through his control of the money, was the leader of Tammany. The formal treasurer of the organization is a creature of Murphy's. The new leader holds the money-bags himself. No books are kept; no reports are made.

MURPHY THE MAN.

"Charles Francis Murphy is forty-four years old, tall, of athletic frame, with steel-gray eyes, and a mouth that shows, on his clean-shaven face, intense determination. He is rated,—probably correctly,—as a millionaire. He was born in the 'Gas House' district, in the neighborhood of Avenue A and Twentieth Street, on the East Side, and has had only a common-school education. Probably he is not as illiterate as Croker, but he has not yet revealed those

remarkable mental qualities that made Croker a born leader of men. Murphy is a graduated saloon-keeper. He had four saloons, got rich, gave up the business, took the only municipal office he ever had—that of dock commissioner, under Van Wyck—and was not long in getting richer. His friends say it was a legitimate increase of wealth, and his enemies have not yet dared to assert otherwise openly.

TEMPERATE, UNOBTRUSIVE, SILENT.

"He wears a dress suit comfortably, and, in his later days, has made his way repeatedly into



CHARLES F. MURPHY.

a corner of Delmonico's with Tammany politicians and leading sporting men. He cares little for social life, nor has he put on airs by buying an expensive residence uptown. He never affected attendance at the Democratic Club in Croker's prosperous days, when 'The Club' was head-

quarters for the Tammany politicians. He went there when necessary, but he preferred to stand on a corner in his district at night and receive the politicians of his district. His charities have been many, and the Rev. Dr. Rainsford has praised him openly from his pulpit. Murphy has played politics almost from the very day he became a saloon-keeper. He is temperate, unobtrusive, silent. He knows every trick of the politician's art. He has even dared to bolt Tammany, and has brought it to terms. He never shirks responsibility in a fight, and his friends say he never lacks courage. He is steadfast to his friends, he was a dutiful son to his parents, and he cared for them and his brother's children when a protector was needed.

FISTICUFFS IN POLITICS.

"Like Croker, Murphy fought his way to petty political leadership in his youth with his fists. He left school early and went to work in the Roach shipyard, near his home. The surroundings were rough, and the boys of his own age were tough. By brute strength, he won their leadership. On Sundays, he showed his athletic prowess by playing catcher on a baseball team on the 'Big Lot' running along the East River from Eighteenth to Twenty-first Street. He was the best ball-player of the gang. He was boss of the nine, and his political predilec-

tions were shown by the name selected for the team. They were called the Senators."

Mr. Matthews says that Murphy has always put his brothers and relatives in office, and has secured contracts for his friends. A select coterie has grown rich with him. Mr. Murphy's excuse for the dock scandals in Mayor Van Wyck's administration is that he (Murphy) was ill when a large part of the contracts and leases were made. "Another is that the city ought not to expect more than 5 per cent."

THE CARTER HARRISON DYNASTY IN CHICAGO.

THE two men, father and son, who have ruled the Western metropolis with almost autocratic power during seventeen of the last twenty-five years, make the subject of an interesting sketch by Willis J. Abbot in the September



THE FIRST CARTER HARRISON.
(Who died in 1883.)

Munsey's. Mr. Abbot says that this record is without a parallel in American municipalities, though if he had looked to Baltimore he would have seen almost as extraordinary a case of continuity in the mayor's office in Gen. Ferdinand C. Latrobe, who was elected seven times, and who ran again for mayor, unsuccessfully, last year.

The present mayor of Chicago, Carter H. Harrison, Jr., explains the phenomenon of his hereditary honors with the remark, "There are about one hundred and forty thousand people in this town infected with the Harrison microbe."

MADE POSSIBLE BY THE FOREIGN ELEMENT.

Mr. Abbot explains the Harrison dynasty by the presence in Chicago of a large foreign element. The European immigrants are used to the idea of a distinctly personal government, and it is in that fashion that Chicago has been governed. "So thoroughly is the son guided by the principles and convictions which animated his father that his *régime* may be regarded as the legitimate continuation of the elder Harrison's. He believes that Chicago is more akin to the cities of Continental Europe than to the Puritan towns of New England, and that a wider latitude of personal liberty is demanded by its people. Theaters, concert

halls, and saloons are open on Sunday, and until within a few weeks no effort was made to enforce the midnight closing of saloons, although an ordinance to that effect stood on the municipal records."

CARTER HARRISON HIS OWN BOSS.

In New York, the Democratic organization is stronger than the mayor and completely dominates him. But in Chicago the Harrisons dominate the organization which put them in power. The campaign of last April hinged on the question of boss rule. The Democrats were charged with being quite as much boss-ridden as the Republicans. Mayor Harrison answered the charge from the platform: "That is true enough, but the Republican candidate for mayor has the boss of his party over him. I am my own boss and the boss of my party."



CARTER H. HARRISON.
(Present mayor of Chicago.)

"While there is, of course, a Democratic organization in Chicago, by means of which nominations are made and campaigns managed, it has nothing like the coherence or continuity of the Tammany organization in New York. It is continually changing in control and even in name. The habit of party discipline has not yet become ingrained, and rebellion, which at any moment may become revolution, is the normal state of its constituent parts. The great powers of the mayor tend to make him ruler of the organization as soon as he is seated, and such a relation as that of Mayor Van Wyck to Mr. Croker is almost unthinkable in Chicago Democratic politics."

THE SECRET OF THEIR SUCCESS.

Both Harrisons were professional politicians, with all the shrewdness of the species, but Mr. Abbot does not ascribe their ascendancy wholly to the arts of the politician. "Their rule may not have been ideal, from every one's point of view, but beyond a doubt the administrations of both father and son have more nearly suited the people of Chicago than that of any other mayor."

"The elder Harrison affected somewhat the part of Haroun al Raschid, the Good Vizier, who roamed the streets of his city to see with his own eyes how his people were treated. A Kentuckian by birth, and passionately fond of riding, the veteran mayor rode about town examining

public works and familiarizing himself with the growth of the city, and the needs of its newer sections. He knew the whole town as a Tammany leader knows his district, and what was of quite equal importance, the whole town knew him. A picturesque figure on horseback, he would attract attention anywhere. Democratic and genial in manner, he made acquaintances fast, and made of each at once an informant and a friend."

THE ISSUES OF CHICAGO POLITICS.

During the elder Harrison's tenure of power, the vital problems affecting the city were largely those of police administration, public improvement, and taxation. His long popularity was due to his championship of personal liberty more than to any one other cause. His son has met an entirely new issue, and, shrewdly making it his own, has profited prodigiously by it. "It would be impossible to describe in detail the struggle over the street-railway franchises which has agitated Chicago for the whole period of the younger Harrison's *régime*. Enough to say that the approaching termination of the period for which the franchises were granted, the desperate efforts of the street-railway corporations to secure their renewal, universal disgust with the quality of the service rendered by the roads, and popular indignation against the cupidity of the financiers have given the question of public ownership in Chicago a vitality and interest paralleled in no other city.

"From the first, Mayor Harrison has stood against the renewal of the franchises, and to that extent has arrayed himself with the advocates of municipal ownership. The more radical of these will tell you that his position has been that of an obstructionist rather than a real champion of their cause. They will admit that he has done good service by stubbornly exerting every power he possesses to prevent the corporations from securing their new franchises; but they will assert that he has done nothing to advance actual municipal ownership. They may declare that his policy has been to 'nurse' the issue, so that it would appear at each election and be used for his advantage."

THE FUTURE OF CARTER HARRISON II.

The elder Harrison was elected five times to the mayoralty; the younger has been elected four times, and is now only forty-three years of age. With this record, and with a powerful organization at his command; with a domicile in a pivotal State; with the friendship of the dominant forces in the national Democratic organization, Carter Harrison II. is widely talked

of for the Presidential nomination. The elder Harrison's political genius and political success were bounded by the city limits of Chicago, and every effort to become a controlling factor in the State met with defeat. Thus far, the younger man has found his influence jealously limited to the city by hostile Illinois politicians, but Mr. Abbot sees indications that he is becoming strong enough to burst these fetters.

A VERSATILE FRENCH PUBLICIST.

ALL Americans at all familiar with international athletics, and especially old readers of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* who will recall the contributions of Baron Pierre de Coubertin on European topics, will be interested in the study of M. de Coubertin's career, by Mary Girard, which appears in the August number of the *Fortnightly Review*.

Baron de Coubertin is at present only thirty-nine years of age, but he has already accom-



BARON PIERRE DE COUBERTIN.

plished more work than ever the average active man could get through if he lived to a hundred.

First, M. de Coubertin is a publicist. He has published eleven volumes, and innumerable articles in the French, English, and German reviews. He edited in 1890 and 1891 the *Revue Athlétique*, and since 1900 has founded three other publications. He has written on education and travel, and has published in England a book on France.

AS INNOVATOR IN ATHLETICISM.

But M. de Coubertin's marvelous activity merely makes use of writing as an instrument. At the age of twenty-three he began a propaganda in favor of English methods of physical education in French *lycées* and colleges. To do so he had to raise the pupils to revolt. Both masters and parents were apathetic, so M. de Coubertin induced the pupils to form their own athletic associations. After personally studying English games, he declared for Rugby football as the best lesson in manly science. From this he proceeded to create a great *Union des Sports Athlétiques* which to-day numbers more than forty thousand members and nearly four hundred societies. As the following anecdote shows, he was daunted by no opposition or indifference:

"The head master of a certain *lycée* having refused to honor with his presence some athletic sports got up by his pupils in the Bois de Boulogne, M. de Coubertin simply went to look for the President (who frequently drove in the Bois), and induced M. Carnot to appear unexpectedly on the ground as distributor of the prizes. One can imagine the feelings of the head master when he heard what he had missed!"

Having nationalized sport in France, he proceeded to internationalize it by reviving the Olympian games. When M. Tricoupis refused support, he hastened to Athens, roped in the rich merchants, captured public opinion, and got the Prince Royal to act as president. The International Olympic Committee is now a permanent body; the games have been held twice with great success, and will be held again in 1904 at St. Louis.

AS POLITICIAN.

Unsatisfied with this record, M. de Coubertin set about internationalizing politics. He observed that while Frenchmen know nothing of foreign nations, those nations in return know nothing of France, and even conceive it to be sunk into a state of indefinite decadence. M. de Coubertin, with his pen, spread the truth about his country's enormous progress abroad, founded a *Chronique de France*, and established annual prizes in five of the principal American universities for winners in debates on subjects suggested by contemporary French policy. In 1899, on behalf of the *Indépendance Belge*, he undertook an inquiry into the future of Europe, and wrote a series of papers which were discussed in more than one parliament. He advocated Anglo-French friendship; dealt with the question of Austrian disruption, which he believes inevita-

ble, and urged that France should not blindly intervene in a Germano-Russian war.

A PERSONAL PROOF.

When people objected that athleticism takes up too much time, and that a man cannot keep in training without sacrificing other things M. de Coubertin, with characteristic energy, proceeded to prove the contrary by a personal test:

"He proved his point by a series of experiments of which the best known was made two years ago at Cannes; he there (on the spur of the moment, and without any training) gave an exhibition of six hours of various exercises in eight hours' time,—an hour's rowing, an hour's cycling, an hour's lawn tennis, an hour's boxing and fencing, an hour's riding, and an hour's motoring,—all without a sign of fatigue, as the doctors attested. His theory is that there is a 'muscular memory,' which, though very durable, ceases altogether after a certain number of months; so that if a man takes care never to go longer than from ten to eighteen months without practising (if it is only three or four times) the different forms of exercise which he has learned, he will keep for a long time in a state of semi-training which will allow of his taking a considerable amount of muscular exercise of any sort he chooses without damage or fatigue."

AS EDUCATIONIST.

As a reformer of education M. de Coubertin is no less distinguished. He has written a book in which he prophesies the speedy downfall of the encyclopedic method, and recommends what he calls the analytic instead of the synthetic method. At present we are trying to build up in the brains of our young men a synthesis of general knowledge by teaching them the elements of each science in succession, but we only give them an unconnected smattering of all sorts of knowledge. It is not in the least necessary to know chemistry and physics as so many distinct sciences. What should be taught is the science of the general physical or chemical phenomena familiar in daily life.

M. de Coubertin is an innovator even in his interpretation of French history. He regards the great Revolution as nothing better than a clumsy exaggeration of the principles of the Reformation and American Independence, and says that by its excesses it retarded the establishment of liberty in France by eighty years. And, finally, the baron is a descendant of Rubens and of Cyrano de Bergerac, which, if he cannot claim it as an achievement of his own, may perhaps be partially an explanation of his amazing talents and daring.

THE NEEDS AND AMBITIONS OF GERMANY.

HITHERTO there has been a tendency to take German expansionism as a popular ebullition with nothing but crude patriotism about it. The *Contemporary Review* for July contains a singularly well-informed, unsigned article entitled "Germany and Pan-Germany." The writer of this article sets out to show how serious and well founded is the movement, and, indeed, how Germany's very existence depends upon its success. Germany, to-day, is rapidly turning into the economic condition of England. She depends more and more for her food supply upon over-sea countries. A blockade of any length would reduce her to submission. If the increasing population is every year less and less able to feed and find work for itself, it must emigrate, and either be lost for the empire, or settle in countries under German control. For this the first necessity is a fleet. German naval policy is, therefore, the product of reason, not of enthusiasm. The most staid and approved economists are as combative as any Pan-German.

GERMANY'S GREAT ALTERNATIVE.

"Here is the gist of their opinions. If Germany cannot obtain some great territory in reserve for her growing population, from which, in the twentieth century, she can satisfy her need of products grown in temperate and tropical zones in the best possible conditions, either by commercial treaties or by political power, then she must artificially check her population and lower their standard of living, or resume her former humble place in the concert of the powers. If Germany is not powerful enough at sea to keep open the corn-trade routes, and, in given circumstances, to exercise pressure upon corn-exporting countries, her existence as a nation is threatened."

The danger to Germany lies in her small compass of home territory, from which follows the necessity of acquiring colonies. The Pan-German conception is that of an All-German European Customs Union and a Greater Germany across the seas, self-feeding, self-sufficient, and shut out from all foreign trade. A German statistician estimates that in 1980 the Slav and Anglo-Saxon races will number together 1,280,000,000, whereas Germany will have only 180,000,000. Unless her expansionist policy succeeds, she will be entirely dependent upon foreign countries.

THE STRUGGLE FOR SOUTH AMERICA.

Where, then, is Germany's gaze directed? Chiefly to the near East and to Latin America. The importance of the Bagdad Railway lies in the fact that it will open the way to German

trade and German interests, *via* Bagdad, to the Indian Ocean. But Greater Germany may spring up in South America. The government now passively supports German emigration to Brazil; and the Hanseatic Colonial Society has taken over property in Santa Catharina as large as Northumberland, with permission to settle on the land as many as six thousand emigrants yearly. Since then two former independent colonies to the north and south have been incorporated in the original property, and the whole colony is now called "The Hansa." It is a complete state within the state, German influence being everywhere paramount. In 1901, there were about 100,000 German colonists in Santa Catharina. In Parana, out of a population of 249,000, a large proportion is German, and a quarter of the 897,000 people in Rio Grande do Sol are Germans. The Disconto Bank and the Deutsche Bank have divided South America into economic spheres of interest. In South Brazil, 30 per cent. of the people are Germans. The writer says that "there is no reason why Germans should not colonize, capitalize, and eventually hold Brazil, just as we hold Egypt and Russia Manchuria."

"The future of South America, undoubtedly, will depend on the Monroe Doctrine and on the navy which is behind it. There will come a time, not so remote in the future, when the economic absorption by the Germans of Brazil and other South American States may lead to political supremacy which, if questioned, must be abandoned or contended for. If at such a juncture the German navy is strong enough confidently to engage the American fleet, then conceivably the issue will be a fighting one."

The writer concludes that in this sphere German ambitions have arisen too late to outstrip America, and that the Monroe Doctrine is destined to bar Germany's way.

GERMANY AND ENGLAND IN AFRICA.

LIEUTENANT VON LIEBERT, from whose article on the German colony of East Africa we quoted in the July number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, contributes another article on Germany and England in Africa to the *Deutsche Revue* for August. Twenty years ago, when the German flag was first unfurled in Africa, England was in possession of South Africa from the mouth of the Orange River to Tongaland, the mouth of the Niger, the Gold Coast, Sierra Leone, and the Gambia district, and had entered upon its protectorate over Egypt; the French Republic was the only rival it had to fear in Africa, for at the Congo conference Ger-

many had refused any acquisition of territory. But in 1884, Bismarck finally consented to an active campaign across the sea, and the German flag was raised in Angra Pequena, Kamerun, Togo, Wituland, and the Somali coast (Hohenzollernhafen), and Germany assumed the protectorate over Uganda. John Bull looked askance upon this progress of his Continental cousin, says Herr von Liebert; there was much friction, and it required the entire diplomacy of the system of Bismarck to gain the desired end while avoiding a conflict with England. The Arab insurrection on the Zanzibar coast prepared the way for a conference with the British Government on the division of the spheres of influence. Unfortunately, Bismarck was dismissed at this time, and his successor did not show the same interest in the matter. The result was the "notorious" Zanzibar agreement of July 1, 1890. A line from the mouth of the Umba to Lake Victoria Nyanza, and thence along the first degree, southern latitude, through the lake to the border of the Congo State, was determined as the boundary between the British and the German spheres of influence. Germany thereby lost Somaliland, Witu, Uganda (the protectorate), the Bangweolo district to the south, the country west of Lake Nyassa, and gave up its claims to Zanzibar. "The British had all the advantages and the Germans all the disadvantages. The British consul-general of Zanzibar also became agent-general for the East African protectorate, from whose port of Mombassa a railroad now leads to Lake Nyanza."

THE PORTUGUESE COLONIES OF AFRICA.

These colonies are now the object of contention between England and Germany, and Herr von Liebert thinks that his country ought to get them. To the west and the east of central Africa south of the equator, the two extensive provinces of Angola and Mozambique, respectively, have remained under the Portuguese flag, after the Congo State from the north and Great Britain from the south have seized the intermediate territory. The British especially have not dealt gently with the Portuguese. Pushing up from the south, they have raised their flag wherever gold has been found, and have had this arbitrary acquisition of land confirmed by their government. But since Germany has established itself in Africa, wedging itself in between the British and the Portuguese possessions, it has become deeply interested in the regulation of future ownership, and cannot calmly contemplate the exclusive acquisition of those provinces by another power.

"Germany is confronted with the imperative

necessity of seeking new territory for its increasing population, and Portugal's African possessions, which border upon the German colonies, may be acquired most conveniently, as opportunity offers, by peaceable means. Portugal has proved itself unworthy of its colonies by four centuries of misgovernment and cultural indolence; its impoverished exchequer may be replenished by a cash indemnity. For political and commercial reasons, Germany requires the province of Mozambique as far as the Zambesi, and the province of Mossamedes in the west."

In 1898, Germany and Great Britain arrived at an understanding regarding the eventual division of the Portuguese colonies. Then it was unexpectedly reported in the English press (but apparently never officially announced) "that a new agreement had been signed in Lisbon by which all the Portuguese colonies are placed under the protection and guarantee of Great Britain. By this apparently unimportant step, the latter immeasurably enlarges its colonial and maritime power, and especially its paramountcy in Africa. British capital, which has already selfishly exploited these colonies, without regard to their government, will now treat them as British crown lands. The barriers to the east and west of Rhodesia have been removed; it can congratulate itself on being able to extend to the coast.

"It is to be deeply regretted that the friendly relations that have so far existed between the two powers in Africa are thereby seriously endangered. The question is not a political, but a purely economic, one, and in this respect its present solution is inexcusably thoughtless on the part of England. Although the agreement of 1898 has never been made public, its main points have become known. Can the Germans, in view of these recent developments, be blamed if they speak of 'Punic faith?' Great Britain cannot afford to take such things lightly, and should beware of sticking a thorn like this into the side of a friendly power as peaceable as the Germans."

RUSSIA'S FLEET.

ALL the world is interested in Russia's naval preparations, in view of her threatened conflict with Japan, and American shipyards have furnished some of the most powerful of the new Russian men-of-war. These facts give special pertinence to Mr. Archibald S. Hurd's instructive paper on "Russia's Fleet," in the *North American Review* for August. After alluding to the fact that the recent announcement of a new Russian shipbuilding programme



THE NEW AMERICAN-BUILT RUSSIAN BATTLESHIP "RETVIZAN," THE SWIFTEST VESSEL OF HER CLASS AFLOAT.

was immediately followed by an agreement among Japanese statesmen to expend \$57,500,000 on new ships of war for their nation, this writer says :

"In the world to-day, there is no more remarkable and significant movement than the haste which is being shown in strengthening the naval forces of the Czar. Born in England, cradled by English hands, that fleet has lately received accessions from some of the chief shipyards of the world, so greatly have Russia's political dreams outrun the industrial means by which to give them substance. For five years past, the United States, England, France, and Germany have been busy building ships which, in consequence of her haste for power, the resources of Russian shipbuilding establishments could not construct. Such world-wide activity at the bidding of one single ambitious government which knows what it wants and the instruments which it needs to accomplish its purpose is unparalleled. With daring audacity, which has passed almost without comment, she has called upon the friends of the 'open door' in the far East to help forge the weapons which she, the opponent of the 'open door,' will use against them if they hinder her. By every means in her control, Russia has built up and is building up a great fleet, and the striking fact in this expansion is that her navy is not concentrated, as ten years ago was the case, in the Baltic and the Black Sea, but is massed largely at the new sea outlets of the huge dominions of the Czar, Port Arthur and Vladivostock."

RUSSIA IN THE FAR EAST.

Mr. Hurd shows how Russian naval programmes for years past have been worked out with reference to Russia's general policy in the far East :

"Every movement has been planned with

care and circumspection, and every provision that forethought could suggest has been made in advance. Assured of her impregnability in Europe against a vital blow through the navies of the world combined in arms against her, Russia foresaw, four years ago, that in the far East she would have to secure a naval supremacy if she were to carry out her policy. To overawe China with visible evidence of her power afloat was her aim ; while, by means of her strategic railway, she would be able to demonstrate her ability to pour in troops from Europe. At the same time, she needed a fleet to keep Japan, newly awakened to her future, in check. Ten years ago, as a naval power in far Eastern waters, Russia was an inconsiderable factor, and the British squadron had no serious rival. To-day, no fleet, if even the British and Japanese squadrons in the far East combined, equals hers. It is on this foundation of a great fleet that the policy of Russia rests."

After showing that Russia's naval expenditures increased from about \$17,500,000 in 1887-89 to about \$54,000,000 in 1902, a greater percentage of augmentation than has been experienced by any other European navy since 1889, Mr. Hurd adds that the true significance of this increase can be fully appreciated only if it is remembered that each new ship, as it has been completed, has been dispatched to the far East, that more than \$500,000,000 has been spent on railroad communications, and that large sums have been expended in developing and fortifying Vladivostock and Port Arthur, while the countries that have been building the ships have at the same time loaned to Russia large sums to carry out this expansion policy.

GROWTH OF THE EASTERN SQUADRON.

"In feverish haste, Russia has practically completed her great naval programme ; and

last summer she was able to send, as reinforcements for her squadron in the far East, no fewer than two of the new first-class battleships, and four cruisers. The naval force in Eastern seas has been increased year by year as the new men-of-war have been completed, with the result that Russia now has in those waters six battleships, two large armored gunboats, twelve cruisers, including four armored, a large torpedo flotilla, three sloops, three torpedo gunboats, two torpedo vessels, two mining transports, and several small special-service ships. This is the formidable force already in these far Eastern waters, ready to support the action of Russian diplomatists at every turn, and fresh reinforcements are frequently dispatched. Russia's dreams are of the East, and she has had no ships, for some years past, to spare for the increase of her fleet in the West. Her present naval expenditure amounts to a charge equal to £15 13s. 9d. on every ton of her shipping, a sufficient indication that her navy has not been built, even in part, to protect her mercantile marine.

"The policy of expansion, which has been worked out with as little commotion as possible in the past few years, is apparently nearing completion, and by the time Russia throws off all reserve she will have secured her position in the far East so well that any attempt to hinder her will only be possible at the cost of a terrible war; it cannot be doubted that, after so great a financial sacrifice, Russia will not permit herself to be deprived of her spoils. She is in China, and there she will remain, mistress of Manchuria, mistress of the neighboring waters, and the dominant military power, also, in this section of China, since her railway will enable her to pour troops into the peninsula at the shortest notice, to reinforce the huge garrison which has been quartered there for years past, housed in new, permanent barracks.

"The growth in the naval armaments of Russia can be illustrated with sufficient accuracy by taking the number of battleships ten years ago, with their displacement, and we thus get the following comparison :

	1893.		1903.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Battleships.....	15	123,000	21	230,700
Large cruisers.....	10	63,400	15	116,300"

THE LATEST PROGRAMME.

Not satisfied, even now, with its naval strength, the Russian Government has decided that, as the 1898 programme has been practically completed, another programme shall be started on at once. Six battleships are now to be built which will be

larger than any heretofore built and will have a much greater radius of action.

"As Russia's need for ships in the far East has grown, she has recognized the disabilities of the ships with which she was satisfied ten or fifteen years ago,—ships of small displacement, with little coal and small room for ammunition and stores; and every ship which is now ordered, is designed to be as self-supporting as any ship of war can be. The new battleships, consequently, are to displace 16,000 tons. All Russian ships are well designed, down to the minutest detail; they have good speed, and are more heavily armed than the vessels of most navies. Moreover, they are well kept in all details, as is evident from the most cursory glance between decks."

It is estimated that Russia's new navy has already cost her more than the South African war cost Great Britain.

RUSSIA'S WORK IN MANCHURIA.

IN the *Contemporary Review*, Mr. Alexander Ular has one of his characteristic articles. It is entitled "Russia, Manchuria, and Mongolia," and deals mostly with tortuous matters which cannot be summarized. The general effect of his article is that the Russian occupation of Manchuria is definite and irrevocable. Three years' undisturbed and gradual progress of pacific administrative policy has now brought about a marvelous work of ethnic assimilation which cannot be undone by mere diplomatic decision. Mr. Ular treats the fighting with the Boxers and Hunhuses in Manchuria as so much comedy, and declares that if protests are made to Russia a further outbreak will take place to make evacuation impossible. But even if Russia evacuated the country in earnest, she would, under the Cassini Convention, keep enough troops to make the country purely Russian. Mr. Ular, though looking at Russia's progress with a jealous eye, nevertheless cannot help confessing that she is doing well by the people. He says :

"It is certain that, under the present system, the Chinese find themselves better off than under the awful financial oppression of the mandarins. Russia, at this moment, does not want to get financial profit from this fiscal organization; she is only endeavoring to have Manchuria existing by herself and attached by public sympathy to the régime of the Czar. This she has obtained. People are delivered from Hunhuse and mandarin oppression. Taxes are equitable. Russian paper money, with a fixed rate of exchange, is legal tender. Russian county courts, applying a cheap and well-intentioned jurisdiction, are pre-

ferred everywhere to Chinese tribunals. And,—I feel obliged to say, although I am not at all a friend of Russian expansion,—this wonderful policy has succeeded so well that at this moment, I am firmly convinced, a sincere Manchurian plebiscite would decide plainly, by an immense majority, against the Manchu dynasty and for the Czar."

SIDELIGHTS ON THE EMPRESS-DOWAGER OF CHINA.

THE account of the return of the imperial Chinese court to Peking has become an old story, but every new version brings out interesting particulars. In *Cornhill* for August, Mrs. Archibald Little tells some new anecdotes of the Emperor and Dowager-Empress.

The appearance of the Emperor caused an English engineer to exclaim, "Who can that bright, happy-looking boy be?" to the horror of all the Chinese present. He was a "slight young man, stepping buoyantly out of the carriage, with the happy smile of so many an English young man as he comes to his journey's end."

"Before one had time to realize it was he, he had got swiftly into the vast golden-yellow sedan chair waiting for him and been silently carried away, only his curiously projecting chin noticeable in profile as he sat, still looking back at the train he had left. A deep hush always falls upon the crowd in China whenever a mandarin stirs abroad; how much more when the Son of Heaven moves, and a few years ago surely that foreign engineer would have been beheaded for his outspokenness. But this year none ever knelt; whereas, of old it was on both knees, and with faces earthward-bent, that Chinese subjects would have received their Emperor.

TSE-HSI, THE EMPRESS-DOWAGER.

"Tse-hsi, Empress-Dowager, was the next to appear, standing for some time on the railway platform, with its *voyant* embroidery, a eunuch supporting her under either arm. On this occasion she certainly looked her age, sixty-eight, with her very broad face and many double chins. Her eyes, the longest probably ever seen, remained cast down, and though there was a great appearance of graciousness, the smile, whose coldness even chills foreign ministers, was absent. Yet, even as she stood still and silent, with her eyes cast down, one felt the magnetic power of the woman. There was no appearance of powder or paint about her, no indication of either eyes or eyebrows being artificially lengthened. If done at all, it must have been well

done. But the thing that was most striking about her was her stillness.

"Just as the Empress regnant but not ruling appeared at the carriage door the train began to back away, and I saw nothing but her eyes and brow, above which the locks were wide dispersed. So far it seemed a good face. But it was impossible to discern whether the will power was there, so visible in the Empress-Dowager's pleasantly flattering face, with falsity written large over every line of the apparently good-humored surface.

THE EMPRESS EXPRESSED IN ENGLISH TERMS.

"The Dowager is of the type so well known in every land where society exists. Were she an English mother she would, one feels at once, marry all her daughters to eldest sons, irrespective of whether they were lunatics or confirmed dipsomaniacs. She would smile and say pleasant things, as she pressed forward over her enemy's dead body, without even a thrill of pleasure in the doing so; it would be so absolutely indifferent to her how she got there provided that she got to the front. People who have seen her eyes raised talk of their marvelous quickness, people who have seen her smile talk of the smile's coldness, ladies who have conversed with her speak of the furious anger of her expression as she reprimands an attendant, succeeded instantaneously by the utmost urbanity as she addresses a guest."

An Englishman of business, who saw her at the same time, said afterward: "I always thought, as likely as not, the Empress had nothing to do with all those Boxer troubles, but that woman never was imposed upon or put upon. I know now she did it all."

THE CLEVERNESS OF THE EMPRESS.

It is said that this wonderful old lady, who began life as the poor and soon fatherless daughter of a small military official, is suffering from a mortal malady, and has only two or three years to live. In the opinion of Mrs. Little, "the Empress-Dowager has no difficulties about Manchuria. She knows quite clearly what she wants; so long as she gets that, how she does so does not matter to her, and therefore she always gets her way. She is sixty-eight now."

An interesting anecdote is given of the way in which she settled the question of how one of the daughters of the Chinese minister to Paris, who married a portly American wife, should be dressed when she came to court. The Empress decided that "the wife of the late minister to Paris, being half American, can come in American clothes, but the daughter of a Manchu

official must come in Manchu dress ; but as the young lady has no practice in high Manchu clogs (with the high heel in the middle, an indispensable part of a Manchu lady's court dress), and would therefore infallibly trip herself up and fall prostrate, let her therefore come dressed as a Manchu boy, only without the high official boots. And thus the question is settled by that mind that, like one of the great dockyard hammers, can either straighten a pin or mold a cannon."

THE ALLIES IN CHINA.

TO the first July number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, General Frey contributes an interesting article, which is to form part of a forthcoming book, on the coöperation of the forces of the Allied Powers in Pechili in 1900 and 1901. The general evidently thinks that such striking coöperation between forces widely differing in language, traditions, and efficiency will become more frequent in the future now that the Great Powers have each of them a world policy. Naturally, he begins by describing the terms of affectionate comradeship which subsisted between the French and the Russian forces. He formed a high opinion of the efficiency of the Russian troops, their powers of endurance, their bravery, and their perfect discipline.

THE ENGLISH SOLDIERS—GALLANT GENTLEMEN.

With regard to the English and Indian forces, he evidently does not consider that the marines, who formed so large a portion of Admiral Seymour's column, were very well fitted for marches and other land operations. Nevertheless, he pays a warm tribute to their bravery. As for the officers and the noncommissioned officers, he was much struck by the truly British phlegm which characterized them even in the most critical moments, and he declares that they always conducted themselves like gallant gentlemen.

On the general question of the relations between the British forces and the other contingents, General Frey gives an amusing description of the British reserve which characterized the officers, which was, of course, imitated by the rank and file. He thinks that this was due, to some extent, to the subordinate rôle played by the British force in the operations, and also to the depressing effect of the news from South Africa,—the affair of Fashoda, also, was too recent not to find a certain reflection in the relations between the French and English.

THE INDIAN TROOPS.

About the native Indian troops General Frey is very frank. Some of the European contin-

gents, who had only heard travelers' tales about the Sikhs, Gurkhas, Punjabis, and other Indian races, were very angry at being asked to receive them as brethren in arms. This prejudice remained even to the end of the campaign, but not at all, says General Frey, among those of the allies who saw these troops at work. The coolie camp-followers who attended the British contingent did not behave well, and their misdeeds were commonly, but unjustly, attributed to the Sikhs. He considers that the native Indian troops need not fear comparison with the native troops of any other power. He particularly admires the Bengal Lancers, whom he calls magnificent troops. The particular defect of the Indian forces, he notes, was that they were insufficiently strengthened by white officers.

PRAISE FOR THE JAPANESE.

General Frey has nothing but praise for the Japanese troops, whose training, discipline, and efficiency were remarkable. They exhibited a kind of mystical exaltation ; they went into battle with that sort of hypnotic fervor which produces heroes and martyrs. For the American contingent, too, small as it was, he has a great admiration, and he declares that they showed military qualities, both individually and in the mass, of the very first order. With regard to the German force, General Frey commends its excellent organization, but condemns the excessive discipline, amounting almost to brutality, enforced even when the troops were off duty.

THE AMERICAN TROOPS.

"The American troops on the march," says General Frey, "produced, on the whole, a favorable impression by their good order and discipline, due in no small measure to the light equipment of the soldiers." The most striking qualities of this contingent were the decision, energy, and initiative displayed by the men. Their initiative and independence, indeed, General Frey criticises as being "little in keeping with the obligations of all kinds imposed upon the different contingents by their collaboration in joint and concerted actions." On the march, or in camp, the allies would often be startled by sudden shots among them, fired off indiscriminately by American patrols or privates, "who, in default of the enemy, aimed pitilessly at all the dogs, swine, and other animals they met, losing no occasion of burning their powder. Nor did they violate thereby the orders of their superiors, for it is one of the characteristic traits of American military customs that the officers give their men entire freedom of action when off duty."

This independence had more serious consequences in some engagements in the beginning of the campaign, where the unconcerted movements of small American detachments occasionally interfered with the movements of the allies; and once, on August 6, on storming the intrenchments of Yang-tsun, the Americans lost thereby thirty men of the Fourteenth infantry regiment, which got in the way of the Russian and English batteries.

As an offset to these restrictions, General Frey gives high praise to some divisions of the service, the efficient transportation of the baggage, the rapidity with which telegraphic communication was established, the ingenious cooking apparatus, and the solid tents, enabling the Americans, alone of all the allies, to withstand comfortably the rigorous climate of Pe-chi-li.

It may be said in general that although, from the point of view of general discipline and in performing their various duties they acted ostentatiously, by their great independence in the field, the familiar tone between superiors and subordinates on and off duty, their manner of paying the outward marks of respect, often contrary to the principles on which the military rules of the various European powers are based, and showing thereby their desire to preserve their individuality in conformity with their national temperament, yet the soldiers of the American contingent gave proof before the enemy at Tien-tsin, Yong-tsoun, Peking, and under all circumstances in general, of their intrepidity, endurance, and other military qualities of the first order.

WHAT BECOMES OF OUR TRADE BALANCES?

WALL STREET conditions of the past summer have only made more pertinent the question, occasionally asked of late, Why are we still in debt to foreign countries? We have had five years of exceptionally heavy foreign trade; why, then, should we not receive cash in settlement of our balances, instead of being compelled to borrow, as we have done and are now doing, from Europe? In the current number of the *Sewanee Review*, Mr. W. H. Allen considers the answer commonly made to these questions,—i.e., that one part of the balances in question goes to offset our annual foreign debts for interest dues, tourists' expenses, freights, etc., and that the remainder is used to finance American enterprises abroad, and to repurchase securities returned by foreign investors.

Owing to its supposed importance as a factor in the situation, Mr. Allen devotes most of his attention to the foreign liquidation of American

securities. After stating that the prevalent belief in this liquidation originated among leading bankers and stock operators, and that evidence is lacking to substantiate the claim, he proceeds to show that the reports of foreign dealings in our securities on the New York Stock Exchange and elsewhere, as given in the newspapers, indicate a condition exactly opposite,—namely, a vast increase of foreign investments here, instead of a liquidation. During the four years, 1898–1901, inclusive, Mr. Allen finds that the purchases of our stocks for foreign account exceeded the sales by some 3,743,000 shares. In other words, foreigners made purchases to the value of about \$250,000,000 over and above the value of the stocks that they sold back to us. The records on which this estimate is based were chiefly taken from the *New York Evening Post*, verified by reference to other newspapers. They apply only to the New York Stock Exchange.

FOREIGNERS BUYING OUR STOCKS.

Continuing his investigation, Mr. Allen estimates that in the single year 1902 about \$380,000,000 worth of American properties passed over to foreign control. In reply to the objection that his figures prove too much,—or, as one critic puts it, “they increase the difficulty of accounting for our missing balances,”—Mr. Allen says:

“The plain answer to this objection is that no problem can be made more difficult of solution by stating the facts as we find them. The foregoing reports of foreign dealings on and off the Stock Exchange were copied from leading New York newspapers; and as they are not at all partial to my view of this matter, I have no reason to assume that they would deliberately magnify the reports of foreign investments here, and suppress any information as to reports of foreign liquidation. These reports, taken in connection with the condition of our money market, and the greater prominence of foreign bankers here, prove to a certainty that the whole theory of this immense foreign liquidation is one of the most brazen falsehoods that have ever been imposed on the American public. Instead of a liquidation of over one billion dollars in the past five years, these reports show that there has been an increase of foreign investments here of nearly that amount. Furthermore, my investigation of the character of foreign dealings here in 1893 convinces me that this theory is equally false in regard to the five years before 1898.

AMERICAN INVESTMENTS ABROAD.

“Still the question remains to be answered, What becomes of our trade balances? If they

have not gone to repurchase securities, where have they gone? So much space has been devoted to the consideration of this liquidation theory that only a brief statement of what seems to me the true answer to this question can be given here.

"Within the last two years, it has been claimed that a good part of our balances has gone to finance American enterprises. The most popular estimate places this outlay at about \$150,000,000 yearly. But, as usual, it is guesswork. There is no real proof that one-quarter of that sum goes on this account. Many of the so-called American undertakings, like those in England, Canada, and Mexico, are being financed by foreign bankers in this country. Moreover, the monetary conditions which have prevailed here during this period conclusively prove that we have no such immense sums to spare for investments abroad. But even if this estimate were correct, the amount is more than offset by our foreign borrowings and the new investments of foreigners in our properties.

NO SURPLUS, BUT A BIG DEFICIT.

"Under these circumstances, I am led to conclude that our balances have gone to offset our annual foreign debts for earnings of foreign capital, hoardings of immigrants, expenses of Americans abroad, cost of ocean freights, and for military expenses outside of the United States. One of these items, immigrants' hoardings, is usually overlooked, but I am convinced that it amounts to more than any other item except, possibly, the earnings of foreign capital. Furthermore, the fact that during the past three years foreigners have purchased all these properties, in excess of what they sold, and also loaned us these immense sums without having to send us any gold, proves that our balances are not even big enough to offset these annual debts; hence, instead of having a big surplus to repurchase securities, etc., we are rolling up a big deficit every year, which has to be met by further borrowings or by selling more of our properties to avert gold exports.

"That is the plain meaning of these foreign borrowings, or sterling loans, as they are sometimes called; they represent a deficit, and nothing else. But this is not all. There is good reason to believe that the monetary stringency which has manifested itself so frequently since the beginning of 1899 is mainly due to the diversion of our currency in the vaults of the foreign banks here in part settlement of this deficit. Some facts which tend to corroborate this view are the otherwise unaccountable prosperity of these institutions, and the disappearance of our gold

currency. Within the past three years, these banks have been making extensive loans in Wall Street; and frequently they appear to have been the only parties that had any money to lend. Where did they get this money? Since 1896, three-fourths of the increase in our currency has been gold coin, and yet it is well known that there is actually less of this kind of money in general circulation,—that is, passing from hand to hand,—than there was eight years ago. As our own banks do not appear to have this gold, it seems quite reasonable to assume that the foreign banks must have it, and are lending it out in Wall Street and elsewhere."

THE CHAMBERLAIN TARIFF SCHEME AND AMERICAN TRADE.

THE proposed imperial zollverein of Mr. Chamberlain has been discussed in the British reviews from every conceivable point of view save the American. It remained for Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson to set forth, in the *North American Review* for August, the probable effect of the adoption of such an imperial tariff plan on the trade relations between the United States and Canada.

After showing that the Dominion market is a growing one, and that while the population of the United States is thirteen times greater than that of Canada, our imports are less than five times and our exports less than eight times as valuable as hers, Mr. Nelson asks us to consider what our future relations should be with the second most important country in America, our largest American customer.

"Not only, indeed, is Canada this, but, in some respects, it is our most valuable customer in the world. It has been the fashion, for more than twenty years, to dream and to talk much of our future trade relations with the American countries south of us, but the trade between this country and Canada is the most important to us on the continent, and is now, in many important articles, more valuable than our trade with the whole of the continent of South America, combined with that of Mexico and with that of the West Indies.

"Mr. Chamberlain's proposal, if adopted, would probably build up the agricultural interests of Canada and make our northern neighbor a more important rival than it has yet been in the largest foreign market which our own farmers possess. It is estimated that the 20 per cent. which Canada furnished of the total amount of food-supplies imported by Great Britain in 1902 can be increased to 80 per cent., and this is quite within the range of probability, as we will

see when we consider that Canada has actually more unoccupied agricultural lands than we possess.

AMERICAN FARMER AND BRITISH CONSUMER TO PAY THE PIPER.

"If the food-supplies which we export to Great Britain were to be made dearer to the importer or to the consumer than the food-supplies sent from Canada, our exports would naturally decrease, provided that the supply from Canada proportionately increased. This, however, would not be wholly the effect of Mr. Chamberlain's device. If importers paid for breadstuffs produced in the United States the price paid for Canadian products minus the English tariff tax, the American farmer would suffer directly in pocket. He would then pay the tariff tax, or part of it, out of his own pocket. In view, however, of the present English demand for foreign food products, the price of United States breadstuffs would be increased to the consumer. This increase would carry up the price of the Canadian products, in which event the British citizen would find his food more expensive than it has been.

ENRICHMENT OF THE CANADIAN FARMER.

"The chances of the British corn factor for profits would be greatly increased by a tariff tax imposed on wheat from the United States, Russia, the Argentine, and other foreign countries, and the bread of England would cost more. The prospects for the Canadian farmer would, however, be brightened, for the simple reason that the demand for his products would be increased if he could keep up the supply. The British consumer would, of course, be obliged to put his hand in his pocket in aid of Mr. Chamberlain's political design, but what is more important to us is, that the gains of the Canadian farmer would be at our expense, and at the expense of that class of our population upon which the burdens of our tariff now weigh most heavily. There is no reason to oppose the enrichment of the Canadian farmer. On the contrary, the richer he grows, the better for us, provided we change our trade relations with him and make them more natural,—make them, for example, like our own interstate relations. We ought, however, to do everything in our power to prevent the growing prosperity of Canada from operating to our injury, and we can accomplish this only by aiding that prosperity through exchanging free markets with her.

"In this way, we would not only help Canada, but we would help ourselves as well in a variety

of ways, not only industrially and commercially, but by the promotion of a neighborly feeling which has been sadly lacking for many years.

AMERICAN MANUFACTURES IN THE CANADIAN MARKET.

"If we insist upon shutting Canada out of our markets,—and the statistics of our imports from the Dominion show our success in this respect,—we invite the trade war with which Mr. Chamberlain threatens us. As matters stand, the Canadian is to be prospered, and whether this is to be at the expense of the British consumer as well as of the farmer of the United States is not in point. By leaving our tariff as it is, so far as Canada is concerned, we would make it possible for the Chamberlain policy to increase the riches of the Canadian farmer, to make of Canada a better market, and then to give the primacy in that market to the British manufacturer.

"Mr. Chamberlain proposes to increase the ability of the Canadian to buy, and to offer him for his money English-made goods at prices lower than those which he would pay for United States goods. This result he expects to accomplish by imposing a tariff tax upon goods going from this country to Canada higher than the tax imposed upon English goods. If the United States manufacturer meets this effort by underselling his English competitor in Canadian markets, he will strike a serious blow at the whole fabric of protection. He will increase the hostile feeling against him due to the fact that he has long undersold the foreigner in his own market, thereby making United States protected products cheaper to the foreign consumer than they are to the home consumer."

Mr. Nelson points to the fact that already, notwithstanding our comparatively small purchases from her, Canada is the largest buyer in the world of our agricultural implements, as well as of our books and other publications, while she ranks with the United Kingdom as a buyer of American cottons. "It is thoroughly well known that if we should enter into reciprocal tariff relations with her, Canada would depend upon the United States for most of her imports of manufactured articles."

Mr. Nelson contends that Mr. Chamberlain's purpose is to take advantage of the artificial trade condition which we have built up, and that this advantage is likely to be at the expense of the English consumer and of the United States farmer and manufacturer.

"The power rests with us to protect the American farmer from artificial and injurious competition in England, to enlarge the market

for American manufactures, and at the same time to promote those friendly international relations which make directly for the increase of civilization, and which would do more for the welfare of humanity than could possibly be accomplished by Mr. Chamberlain's proposed employment of a tariff war against the outside world for the purchase of fighting loyalty for the British Empire."

THE "UNION" VERSUS THE "OPEN" SHOP.

A STANCH friend of American labor unions, the editor of *Guntton's Magazine*, speaks out unreservedly, in the August number of that publication, against the policy of "unionizing" shops and industries as now carried out. He asks:

"Is 'unionizing a shop' consistent with the rights of the employer to conduct that part of his business which directly relates to him, and for which he alone is responsible? In theory, it is. Theoretically, the union says to the employer: 'You can employ and discharge whomsoever you choose; you can use such tools and machinery as you choose. All we contend for is that the laborers shall belong to unions.' To be a member of a trade-union should, and presumably does, guarantee that the man is a competent workman. But in fact is this the case? When a shop is unionized, does the employer have the rights that belong to him as the investor of capital and the responsible director of the industry? The fact is that the effect of unionizing a shop, in most cases, is that the management, as well as the laborers, is under a system of coercion."

Again, speaking of the long-drawn-out contest between the employers and the unions in the New York building trades, he says:

"Laborers have no more right to persecute employers or trifle with their interests and with the public convenience than capitalists have to persecute laborers, and until the unions resolutely set their faces against this kind of thing they are not fit to be intrusted with the unionization of employment. Despots should not be intrusted with absolute authority, in politics, industry, or ethics. It is this very conduct of abusing power (and not in the interest of labor or to better conditions, but in the mere destruction of property and wantonly or carelessly inconveniencing the public) that has led to the present revolt among employers."

THE TRUE FUNCTION OF LABOR UNIONS.

The editor proceeds to state what, in his opinion, should be the positive programme of the unions:

"In order thoroughly to unionize industry, the unions should make themselves of real service both to the employer and the community. In the first place, membership in a union should be a guarantee of the workmanship and character of the mechanic, so that it would be to the economic interest of employers to turn to the unions for laborers rather than to the street corners. Next, the unions should represent the honor of the craft in fidelity to work and the carrying out of contracts, as well as in the economic use of material. The union should be the power that stands between the employer and the individual workman, to insist that the employer shall not be injured or swindled, but that he shall have faithful service, and, on the other hand, that the interests of the laborer shall be protected. If the unions would make this their policy, they would become strong without coercion. The employers would prefer them, the public would encourage them, and the non-union men would lose by being on the outside. It would then be a discredit, not only in the eyes of laborers, but in the eyes of employers and the community, not to belong to the union. But so long as unions use their power to injure employers, waste material, and make intolerable demands, they will remain under the ban, and will tend to put non-union men at a premium."

"Until unions fill their function as economic organizations which not only make bargains but assume the responsibility for honorably carrying out contracts, the open shop will be a necessity in the community. The non-union laborer (not the 'scab') does, indeed, hinder the growth of exclusive power in the union; but this is a wholesome function. Unions are doing much good, but they are far from fit to be trusted with the monopoly of the labor market and conditions. So long as it is necessary to use coercion and physical methods to build up unions, it is safe to say that unions are not fit to be intrusted with exclusive power."

WHY THE OPEN SHOP IS PREFERABLE.

"The open shop is the place of natural selection; it is the free field for the play of economic forces. If employers generally will in good faith adopt the open shop,—that is to say, employ either union or non-union labor, and treat with the union men through their representative if they so elect, and the non-union men through their committees, or individually, as they elect,—then the union can grow on its merits. If by furnishing benefits to members, or being able to furnish them employment (because employers prefer union to non-union men), or by furnishing any other advantages, the unions grow, their

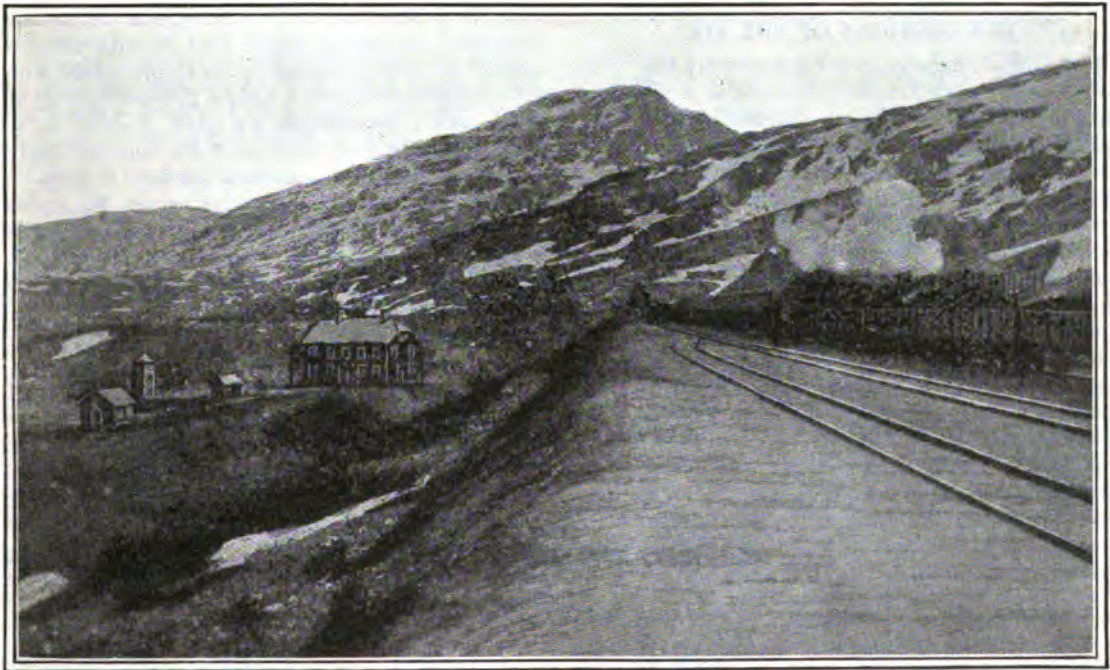
strength will be useful to laborers, employers, and the public ; but so long as they can build up only by coercion they are sure to rule by despotism, and the despotism of unions is as sure to be overthrown as is despotism in any other sphere of human experience. Progress will not tolerate despotism, especially the despotism of wanton arrogance, and if the unions do not eliminate this from their practice, as well as from their theory, they are sure to be compelled to encounter non-union laborers, antagonism of employers, and the lack of confidence of the public.

.. The time has gone when despotic employers can systematically persecute and coerce laborers.

THE NORTHERNMOST RAILROAD IN THE WORLD.

THE Lapland Express, which is noteworthy for being the northernmost railroad in the world, is described and illustrated in a recent issue of *Die Woche* by Viktor Ottman. During the short summer season trains run once a week between Stockholm and Narvik, on the Atlantic.

"The Lapland Express provides the quickest and most convenient connection with the Land of the Midnight Sun, for while the Norwegian coastwise steamers take four days to reach Narvik, the ordinary mail train covers the distance



SCENE ON THE NEW LAPLAND RAILWAY.

The standard of industrial morality in the community will not tolerate it. So, likewise, the coercion of unions will not be tolerated. So long as they live on coercion they will have to fight for their lives. Until they rise entirely above the spirit of persecution, they can not, and ought not, to receive the recognition of employers or the confidence and support of the public. This is a matter of education and experience. The standard of economic fairness in unions will be evolved only through struggle and repeated defeats. Until this is accomplished, the open shop is an economic necessity, as a part of the evolution of the real economic trade-union."

between Stockholm and Narvik in sixty-six hours, and the luxuriously fitted up new express train takes only forty-eight hours. The following round trip is the best way of traversing the Scandinavian countries : by train through Sweden, by way of Stockholm, to Narvik ; thence by steamer to Trondhjem ; through the mountains of Norway to Christiania, and by train back to Gothenburg. This route leads through the most beautiful part of Sweden, and is much preferable to the rather monotonous trip along the Norwegian coast."

It has, furthermore, the advantage of allowing a stop-over at Ange, to visit the interesting timber lands of Sundsvall and Jämtland, but

the tourist must wait here a whole week for the next train.

The Polar Circle is crossed at Station Polcirkeln, where the train enters the region of the midnight sun, which hangs in the sky for thirty-seven days and nights, from June 5 to July 11. The road was extended to Narvik, on the Ofoten fjord, a few years ago, on account of the untold mineral wealth hidden in the mountains of Luossavara and Kirunavara. The scenery becomes more grand the farther north one goes, and on the border stations between Sweden and Norway the curious Laplanders are an additional object of interest to the traveler.

THE CONQUEST OF THE AIR.

TO the average reader undoubtedly the most interesting article in the *Revue de Paris* is that by Baron de Mauni, entitled "The Conquest of the Air." The baron is convinced that the world is on the eve of a tremendous revolution in everything that regards the transport, both of human beings and of merchandise; in other words, he considers that any day some painstaking Napoleon of science may conquer the air, as man has finally conquered the earth, annihilating distances both on land and sea. The writer gives a careful account of all that has been done in the past, but, of course, the most interesting portion of his article is that which deals with the present problem. The cigar-shaped balloon, or airship, which has taken the place of the round globes with which the brothers Mongolfier and their immediate disciples tried to conquer the air was, apparently, first thought of some thirty years ago.

ELECTRICITY AND THE SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEM.

The birth of the electric motor brought the solution of the problem perceptibly nearer. In 1883, two Frenchmen made some successful experiments; and, in 1884, Captain Renard proved to his own and to his friends' triumphant satisfaction that he had gone yet a step further, for he proved that an airship could be steered to a given point and then brought back. The experiment was tried over a six-mile course, and the journey took twenty-three minutes. At that time,—that is, nineteen years ago,—all those interested in aerial navigation believed that the problem was finally solved, and that soon the civilized world would have a new means of transport at its command. As we all know, nothing of the kind took place. The French Government, which had seemed willing to put its immense resources at the disposal of Captain Renard and his partner, M. Krebs, drew back;

on the other hand, the steady progress made as regards electric motors seemed to indicate that the practical conquest of the air was only a matter of time.

THE NEED FOR PUBLIC NOT PRIVATE AUTHORITY.

Unfortunately, according to Baron de Mauni, there has been no central authority; each inventor has, and who can blame him, his own axe to grind, and it is evident that the baron would like to see so important a question placed under government control, or, at any rate, directly encouraged and aided by the government. If there is no chance of this being done, then he considers that the only chance of practical success lies in the hands of certain great capitalists interested in the question, and he addresses a serious word of warning to those inventors who are experimenting with only a slender capital at their back. Supposing, he says, one of these men does discover or invent the one probably trifling addition to existent airship motors,—or what, for want of a better word, he styles anchors,—which would suddenly simplify the problem, unless he has pluck, money, and business brains, he is sure to see the result of his labor benefiting others.

THE INTEREST IN AIRSHIPS.

During the last hundred years a hundred thousand patents have been registered in Europe and America by balloon and airship inventors, and as most of them are obviously of comparatively recent date, it is certain that a very much greater number of individuals than those uninterested in the subject are at all aware of are eagerly looking out for an opportunity of making fame and fortune beyond the dreams of avarice.

ARE AMERICAN RAILROADS MORE CARELESS THAN EUROPEAN?

IT is generally believed, and widely discussed, that American railroads are conducted with vastly less care in the matter of safeguarding life than the English and Continental roads, and that a comparison of the fatalities in this country with those in Europe would be very odious to us.

Mr. Slason Thompson examines into the matter in the *World's Work* for September, and shows facts that tend to modify the prevailing opinion.

THE NUMBER KILLED BY THE RAILWAYS.

"Let us begin by presenting, from official sources, the bald figures of fatalities by railway accidents in the United States and the principal

countries of Europe, which, without explanation as to conditions and so on, afford such an easy text for the arraignment of American railways.

"NUMBER OF KILLED BY RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.

	Year.	Passengers.	Employees.	Other persons.
United States.....	1901	282	2,675	5,498
United Kingdom.....	1901	158	565	554
(a) Germany.....	1901	92	498	295
(a) France.....	1900	94	314	270
Russia.....	1899	64	367	765

(a) Exclusive of suicides, of which in Germany, in 1901, there were 268 fatal and fourteen unsuccessful."

THE FACTOR OF MILEAGE.

The table above quoted looks bad for American methods, but, in the first place, there is the enormously greater mileage of American railways, as shown in the following table :

RAILROAD MILEAGE IN 1901.

United States.....	195,561
United Kingdom.....	22,078
Germany.....	34,167
France.....	23,701
Russia in Europe.....	26,696
All Europe.....	176,174

* Including 1,276 miles of narrow gauge.

"Probably the first impression gained from this table is that there are almost twice as many miles of railroad in the United States as in the four other countries combined. This confronts us with the reassuring fact that, with almost twice the mileage, the number of passengers killed in America, in 1901, was only 282 to 408 in the United Kingdom, Germany, France, and Russia."

NUMBER OF PASSENGERS CARRIED.

When the comparison is made on the passengers carried alone, the showing, on its face, is not so favorable to American railways.

NUMBER OF PASSENGERS CARRIED TO ONE KILLED.

United States.....	2,153,469
United Kingdom.....	7,420,000
Germany.....	9,778,000
France.....	4,821,000
Russia.....	1,444,000

"But here again the adverse story of the figures almost disappears, except as to Germany, when the distance passengers are carried is taken into the computation. In the United States, the distance of the average railway journey is almost thirty miles (28.58); in England, it is scarcely ten miles, while in Germany it is fifteen miles, in France twenty-one miles, and Russia sixty-five miles.

FATALITIES AMONG EMPLOYEES.

Even in the matter of the fatalities among employees, where on the surface the United States seems to show such an odious disproportion, there are qualifying facts to be considered. Per mile, as we have already seen, it is not as great as in any of the other countries except France. There are two other tests by which it should be judged,—the number of employees and the task they perform. These are shown in the following table :

"THE NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, AND TONS OF FREIGHT MOVED.

United States.....	1,071,169	1,089,226,440
United Kingdom.....	440,347	416,053,441
Germany.....	322,060	359,348,290
France.....	251,971	126,829,728
Russia.....	414,152	120,300,000

"As the average haul, per ton, in the United States is 251 miles, against only 60 in Great Britain, the ratio of fatalities accompanying the moving of America's enormous freight business is actually less per ton-mile than under the highly organized and denser conditions of transportation prevailing in Europe, outside of Russia."

Mr. Thompson analyzes all the American railway accidents, and shows that a tremendous proportion of them happened at points other than stations and railway crossings, which indicates "the indifference of the average American to the danger of being where he has no legal right or necessity to be." He believes that these facts show railway employment to be no more dangerous in the United States than elsewhere, when all the circumstances of the vast territory, the enormous traffic, the great distances, and the nervous temperament of our people are taken into consideration. The official statistics show a marked decrease in the proportional fatalities as compared with a decade ago.

ARE THE CUP CONTESTS PROFITABLE?

MANY sentimental advantages have been attributed to international yacht-racing during the half-century that has elapsed since the *America's Cup* was won, and for many years it was thought that the material gains compensated for the trouble ; but a writer in the *Rudder* for August, Mr. Winfield M. Thompson, representing amateur yachtsmen, takes quite a different point of view.

"The triumphs of international yachting," he says, "are a fillip to patriotism and a stimulus to the imagination of a people, increasing their faith in themselves and their own achievements. Thus its importance is what we make it. Study of its

material side might lead to the conviction that the lessons it teaches in building and design are not so valuable to the victors when viewed without sentiment as when seen through the eye of the enthusiastic patriot."

Are our boats to-day better or worse, he asks, than in the schooner days of the late sixties and early seventies, when men laid their racing courses across the Atlantic? Have we progressed or retrograded in seamanship?

"At the risk of being considered a pessimist, the lover of a good vessel must acknowledge he cannot find much that is gratifying in the present conditions in cup racing. The contestants in cup matches to-day represent an extreme type of single-masted vessel, fit only for the one purpose for which, at enormous cost, they are built; ungainly to handle, and dangerous to all who must sail on them. With 90 to 100 tons of ballast slung in a deep, thin fin beneath a shallow hull, a mast 170 feet long from heel to truck, 15,000 square feet of sail, and plating the thickness of a dinner plate, the up-to-date cup racer is not an inviting craft on which to sail. So rare an exotic is she among vessels that her sails must not be wet, she is never taken out in a hard blow unless such a thing cannot be avoided, and she never is out over night. She costs so much that only the very rich may pay for her, and she is so big that her owner, no matter how keen an amateur, cannot hope to sail her successfully in a race. She is followed about by tugs, tenders, and launches, a veritable flotilla of attendants, and the cost of running her and these a season exceeds the annual revenues of a duchy. When her brief racing season is over, she is put aside, and another season is supplanted by another of her kind, on which another fortune is spent, with the result of more size, more lead, more sail, more danger, more unwieldiness, and perhaps a few seconds a mile more speed. This all may be as it should be. In these times, the original purpose of yachting is lost sight of in cup racing. We no longer look for health and pleasure through the exercise of Corinthian seamanship and a touch of simple life afloat. We seek elusive speed, and must gain it with all the means of our present 'higher' civilization.

"What boots it if our boats be monstrous machines which no one wants? Have they not speed, and does not speed keep the cup? On every hand is heard the wish that cup races might be sailed with more rational vessels, but yet we hold to our lust for speed and affect not the view of Pyrrhus, who, after overcoming the Romans at great cost to his army, declared, 'Another such victory, we are undone.'"

AN ENGLISH OUT-OF-DOOR SCHOOL.

SIGNIFICANT of the trend to natural methods in English school management is the account of the Ruskin school-home in Norfolk, written by Mr. Blathwayt for *Cassell's Magazine*. Mr. Harry Lowerison, familiarly known to his pupils as "Pater," adopts as far as possible the Socratic method of teaching by questions, drawing out of the children what they know; the thought process they can trace for themselves. He is opposed to the enormous quantity of unnecessary "knowledge" foisted upon children. To quote his own words:

"It is far better to take the child straight to nature. He will detest an algebraic symbol; but take a flower, and how he will delight when he is shown the symbol of its delicate petals! Let botany take the place, as far as possible, of dry mathematics, and see, in the end, if the child's mind is not as well disciplined and exercised, and if, indeed, it is not actually twice as intelligent as it would be if brought up in the deadly old routine which all are now beginning to regard as a failure—for the child-mind, at all events. Later on, Euclid will help to develop the reasoning powers of a boy's mind. But first cultivate the imagination. Children are very fond of geography and history, properly taught.

"I always try to teach history and geography together. Indeed, the two are so interlaced that you cannot separate them. They melt into one another imperceptibly. And I never trouble them with dates."

In reply to a doubt as to the practical nature of the teaching, Mr. Lowerison replied:

"Nothing can be more practical than reading, writing, arithmetic, Euclid, history, geography, French, and German. Only I try to dovetail the subjects one with another as well as I can. Geography leads to commerce, and commerce to arithmetic, which shall also deal with concrete problems from the first—concrete as the only form in which the adult knows them, and problems as developing the reasoning faculty rather than the merely imitative and memorizing powers.

"Again, I take a large class of boys out into the country for practical work in surveying and mensuration, and every rabbit-hutch or chair or table made in our workshop is a combined exercise first of geometry and careful computation of material and cost. But botany is perhaps our chief subject. People wonder why I lay so much stress on botany. I will tell you.

"First, because it trains the mind in habits of keen observation, careful recording, and close reasoning."

And, secondly, because through botany it is possible to teach the deepest secrets of human life. "Throughout my whole course, I strive to combine with a certain rough practical common sense high ethical teaching."

A CATHOLIC DEFENSE OF VIVISECTION.

"**C**RUELTY to Animals and Theology" is the title of a striking paper by the Right Rev. Mgr. J. S. Vaughan in the *Humane Review* for July. It is a definite pronouncement against the position of the Humane Society, that "animals have rights." He asserts himself, and quotes Cardinals Newman and Manning to the same effect, that we have no duties toward the brutes. He modifies this by stating that we owe a duty to God to imitate his mercy and to avoid cruelty. He goes on to show where "the ordinary anti-vivisectionist parts company with the Church and her theologians." He says:

"Observe, firstly. We cannot do away with pain. We can only diminish it. And this we are most anxious to do. Secondly, where circumstances are such that pain *must* fall either upon man or beast,—that is to say, where there is no third course open to us,—we prefer it to fall on the beast, and not on the man. The anti-vivisectionist, on the contrary, prefers it to fall on the man, and in this he seems to us to be guilty of cruelty.

"Here is, let us say, an ordinary good-natured and able physician, whom we will call Dr. X. His whole aim and object is to diminish pain and to allay suffering. It is not in his power to destroy it; therefore, he directs his efforts to alleviate it. He knows that men are by far the most sensitive of sufferers. He knows that they are subject to certain painful diseases. He has good reasons to think that a certain treatment would bring great relief, and perhaps even produce a cure. But his reasoning *may* be defective, and he cannot ascertain, with any degree of certainty, whether his opinion be well founded, unless and until he can test his theories by actual experiment. That is to say, he must actually apply the remedies. It is essential that he should make the experiment on a living organization of some kind. But upon whom?

SICK CHILD OR RABBIT?

"Well, there are but two classes of creatures to choose from. He must make it either upon a human being or else upon a beast; either, let us say, upon a sick child or upon a rabbit. The anti-vivisectionist objects to all experiments on animals, and, in effect, answers, 'The experiment must be made on the sick child, not on the

rabbit.' And this is why we call the anti-vivisectionist cruel. We, on the contrary, hold that the experiment should be made on the rabbit or other beast, and not upon the poor unfortunate child. Yet, on that account, we are called cruel! Our reason for maintaining this view is: First, because the beast is less sensitive to pain. Secondly, because its loss of life, should the experiment prove abortive, is of far less consequence. Thirdly, because the child is our very own flesh and blood, and a member of our great human family, and has immeasurably greater claims upon our pity. 'Ye are of more value than many sparrows' (Matt. x. 31). Fourthly, because God has given man dominion over the beasts of the field and the birds of the air (Genesis ix.). For these and other reasons, we consider that far more real mercy and tenderness and commiseration are shown in allowing necessary experiments to be made upon beasts rather than upon men. 'Experimentum fit in corpore vili.'"

Monsignor Vaughan goes on to argue that the whole object and purpose of vivisection is, not to cause pain, but to cure pain, and on these merciful grounds he defends its use, but certainly not its abuse. He adds:

"Indeed, we feel more than ever persuaded that the really merciful and humane are those who advocate a properly supervised and well-conducted system of experiments on animals. It is such persons whom we recognize as the real benefactors of the race."

THE PLANKTON OF LAKE LUCERNE.

PLANKTON is a general term applied to all the smaller organisms living in the water, and has assumed an economic importance because it is the material on which fishes feed, its abundance or scarcity producing immediate effects in the fisheries.

The last number of the *Vierteljahrsschrift der Naturforschenden Gesellschaft in Zurich* contains a report of investigations made by M. Henri Lozeron upon the vertical distribution of the plankton of Lake Lucerne which is an interesting contribution to a subject that is exciting considerable interest on account of its relation to the problem of fish culture.

The writer makes a distinction between phytoplankton, or plant forms, and zoöplankton, or animal forms, although among these simple organisms plants and animals are so much alike that it is difficult to distinguish them. The plant forms cannot resist currents in the water, although many of them have organs of motion and can swim about in still water. Zoöplankton, on the contrary, comprising small animals

provided with swimming organs, is but little influenced by feeble currents, and consequently, the animals go where they choose, searching for whatever they may need. They collect wherever conditions are most favorable to them, and their distribution indicates the action of forces different from those affecting the more passive plant forms, which are distributed chiefly by means of currents caused by the inflow of rivers, or by differences in the density of the water at different levels due to unequal heating, the surface becoming warmer, and therefore lighter, than the deeper layers, so that they displace each other.

The distribution of phytoplankton varies, not only from season to season, but from month to month, and often within intervals of only a few days. The various water plants are found at various depths, each one apparently being best adapted to life at some special distance from the surface. *Oscillatoria*, a thread-like water plant that can swim slowly in still water, was found in July at depths varying from twenty to sixty feet, the greatest growth being found at a depth of forty feet. The most reasonable explanation for the vertical distribution of plants is that each kind is kept within certain limits on account of its specific gravity, except as it is carried beyond these limits by currents or wind.

The flora may be very different in two lakes communicating with each other, one lake having a much larger amount of plant life, as well as a greater variety of forms, and some kinds may be abundant in one lake but entirely lacking in the other.

There are two periods at which the phytoplankton reaches its maximum development,—one just at the end of winter and the beginning of spring, the other at the end of summer; and there are two minimum periods of development,—one at the beginning of winter, the other at the end of spring and the beginning of summer.

During the winter, quantities of plankton are found at great depths, living, and as brightly colored as when growing at the surface in summer, but they die in the spring if the currents do not raise them to a more favorable level.

The most striking characteristic of the animal forms making up the zoöplankton is their daily vertical migrations, which are independent of the currents and are due to their own activities, probably on account of their sensitiveness to the action of the light, which causes them to go down to deeper water when the sun shines, in order to reach a depth that is only partially lighted.

In Lake Lucerne, the zoöplankton never went below a depth of forty-two feet, while in other lakes near they migrated to a depth of seventy

or one hundred feet, showing that the water of those lakes was more transparent.

The zoöplankton rise to the surface during the night, often collecting in a layer about one foot thick. It has been observed that when there is bright moonlight the organisms rise nearer to the surface; but when it is cloudy, they distribute themselves more regularly through a depth of about seven feet.

The depth to which the organisms descend depends upon the intensity of the light which penetrates the water, and this varies with the transparency of the water, due to its color and the amount of matter in suspension.

All animal forms of plankton do not have the same degree of aversion for light, certain small shellfish being most sensitive to it, while the microscopic, transparent wheel animalcules are least affected by it.

THE LEPER DISTRICT OF NORTHERN NIGERIA.

DR. TONKIN, medical officer of the Hausa Association's Central Sudan Expedition, contributes to the *Empire Review* a most interesting paper on a leper field, some five hundred miles wide, crossing the British dependency of northern Nigeria, in which he himself covered some fifteen hundred miles, all leper-stricken country. Dr. Tonkin spent twelve months in the Sudan, examining hundreds of these lepers. He first induced them to come to him for treatment,—when he did all he could to alleviate their sufferings, so that these lepers went and told other lepers, and the doctor's entrance porch was soon crowded with sufferers. The half-million square miles of country between the western shores of Lake Chad and the Middle Niger River, of which Dr. Tonkin thinks he has seen enough to speak definitely, have recently been taken over by the government from the Royal Niger Company. It is for the subjugation of this territory that General Lugard is pressing,—a territory where the lowest races are naked and cannibal savages.

ABSOLUTE FREEDOM FOR LEPEES.

Kano, the chief commercial center of northern Nigeria, is a leper hive. Of the leper colonies within its fifteen miles of earthworks, Dr. Tonkin says:

"In the dark tomb-like huts, which the heat and glare from the sun and the persistent impertinence of the fly tribe render necessary in these parts of the Sudan, the smell emanating from the neglected ulcers of scores of leprous occupants hangs like an oily, fetid fog upon the air. The disease is so common that, in spite of

the repulsive appearance of the sufferers, the general public of the country have got used to it, regarding it as one of the stable things of the world, and the chance of catching it as one of the ills to which flesh is inevitably heir. They do nothing to limit that chance. Lepers are permitted to mingle freely with the healthy population, engage in business, and marry when they can."

They are subject to no disabilities on account of their disease; indeed, it seems as if leprosy were rather encouraged than otherwise. What still further spreads the disease is the habit of the rich, whether leprous or not, of never washing their clothes, but, when soiled, passing them on to those in the next social grade below; these, in turn, wear them till still dirtier, and then pass them on, so that the same clothes may accumulate the dirt and disease of fifty different individuals.

WATER THEATRICALS.

IN the first half of the last century, not a few of the newly settled towns and cities along American waterways depended for dramatic entertainments on floating theaters. These enterprises first attracted notice in connection with the growth of commerce along the Erie Canal, in New York State, but the idea soon spread to the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. The development of the business is thus described by "A Veteran Manager" in the August number of the *Theatre* (New York):

"About 1836, Henry Butler, an old theatrical manager, saw no reason why the Erie Canal could not be utilized for the amusement business as well as carrying passengers and freight. He had previously been up and down the Mohawk Valley with his theater company, and had found difficulty in finding rooms to play in, so he conceived the idea of fitting up a canal boat for a traveling theater, and in the same year he started from Troy, N. Y., with his floating theater and museum, stopping from one day to a week in a place, according to its size. In the daytime, he exhibited only the museum part of his 'show,' which contained all the usual concomitants,—stuffed birds, lions, tigers, Washington, Napoleon, Captain Kidd, the twelve apostles in wax, etc. In the evening, his small company of Thespians gave performances on the little stage erected at the end of the boat.

"He had among his actors Jack Turner, who had a reputation for playing sailor parts, and the company would present such plays as 'Black-eyed Susan,' 'Long Tom Coffin,' and other dramas of the sea. Butler sailed up and down the raging canal with his playship in this manner for a number of years, till he went blind; but he stuck to his old boat, which he finally turned entirely into a museum. Although blind, he could be found at all exhibition hours in his little box-office dispensing tickets to adults for one shilling, and to children under a certain age for sixpence. He had no way of telling a child's age except by ascertaining the height. This he



CHAPMAN'S FLOATING THEATER MOORED TO A WHARF, WITH DOORS OPEN FOR THE PERFORMANCE.

would do by feeling for their heads. If that useful appendage came under his conception of the six-cent line, the owner got in at children's prices. The boys used to fool him by stooping, consequently he often touched and passed judgment on heads out of their proper sphere.

"Another floating theater, famous in its day, was that built and managed for a number of years by William Chapman, Sr., who was born in England in 1764. When quite a young man, he joined Richardson's Traveling Theater, which at that time was one of the principal exhibitions of its kind, visiting the fairs throughout England, traveling, exhibiting and lodging in their own vans. In 1803, he made his first appearance on the London stage as *Sir Bertram*, in 'The Jew.' In 1827, he came to America, and on September 14 of the same year he appeared at the Bowery Theater, New York, as *Billy Lackaday* in 'Sweethearts and Wives.' The next year he brought over to this country his family,—wife, sons, and daughters,—who had all followed in the footsteps of their father, and had adopted the same profession. Shortly after, Chapman formed a company of Thespians, consisting of his folks and others, which he called the Chapman Family, and started for the Southwest. At Pittsburg, Pa., they made a long stop, and for the want of a hall or suitable room, they played in the dining-room of the Old Red Lion Hotel. While in Pittsburg one Captain Brown built for them a floating theater, which was the first of the kind of any pretensions that played up and down the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. Chapman adopted the old English way of exhibition and living on his boat, and for many years he traveled with his ark up and down the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, visiting all the principal towns. He died on his boat in 1839, and was buried at Manchester, Miss. Mrs. Chapman then undertook the management, and conducted it very successfully for a number of years.

"In 1847, Mrs. Chapman, who was getting old, retired from the business with ample means, and sold her floating theater, which had been rebuilt for her a few years before, to Sol Smith, another well-known Western theatrical manager and actor of those days. But Sol Smith was not long in the possession of the boat. The first season he was out with it, when winding his way down the Ohio, he came in collision with a steamboat, which split his craft into halves. Sol Smith and his company managed to escape with their lives, and after a hard struggle up the precipitous and clay bank of the stream, succeeded in finding a firm footing at the top, but they were obliged to walk until daylight before they reached shelter.

"Sol Smith's forte was low comedy. In these river towns old people may be found to-day who, on hearing his name, will recall their younger days, when they saw him in those characters for which he was so deservedly celebrated, and these same persons will declare that they saw better acting in the old boat performances than they see in the luxurious theaters of to-day. Many long to see again those old Thespians on the little stage built upon one end of the boat, the muslin curtain, and tallow candles for footlights. They would like to sit once more on the hard board seats, stretched from one side of the boat to the other. The only undesirable seats on the boat were under the blazing tallow-dropping chandelier, which consisted of a circular hoop, with tallow dips, hanging over the audience from the ceiling of the old boat."

SOME TRIBUTES TO LEO XIII.

IN the *Quarterly Review* there is a good article on the late Pope, which pays high tribute to his personal character, but criticises somewhat severely his political career.

AS A STATESMAN.

The reviewer says :

"As a statesman and diplomatist, Leo XIII. has scarcely merited the ecomiums which the press has so lavishly bestowed upon him during many years. His policy has been rather that of the opportunist, at once bold and clever, than that of the far-seeing statesman. It might almost be said to embody the subtle but radical difference existing between statecraft and statesmanship. In no single instance in which Leo XIII. pitted himself against European diplomacy has his action gained for the Holy See more than a temporary victory, while the price paid to gain the friendship of the various governments which might one day bring pressure to bear upon Italy in order to compel the latter to restore the temporal power was occasionally so high as to endanger the spiritual interests of Roman Catholicism itself.

"The insatiable political ambition of the Pope, and of those who shaped his policy, robbed his diplomatic triumph of any solid after-effects. In his struggle with the Prussian Government, as afterward in his more insidious policy toward France, Leo XIII. overrated the strength of the weapons he condescended to employ, and neither in Germany nor in France does it appear that Roman Catholicism will reap any lasting benefits from the temporary triumphs obtained by Vaticanism during the late pontificate."

AS A SOCIALIST.

The reviewer thinks that the Pope aspired to be a great social reformer, and might have succeeded,—if he had stood to his guns.

"His personal conception of the duties of the Church toward the laboring classes was Catholic in the broadest and best sense of the term. It was such a conception as befitted the chief pastor of Christendom. His aim was nothing less than the reconstruction of social order among the masses, and the placing of the relations between capital and labor, between employer and employed, on a common basis of mutual responsibility, the foundation of this common basis being the Word of God as interpreted by his church. It is possible,—nay, even probable,—that had Leo XIII. been a strong enough Pope to shake himself free from the retrograde influences surrounding him, and a strong enough man to overcome his own latent dread of Socialism as an irreligious movement, he would have succeeded in so dividing the Socialist forces that everything in those forces making for the prosperity of humanity would have ultimately been at the service and disposal of Latin Christianity,—at least, in such countries as number a large Roman Catholic population."

The publication of his famous encyclical on labor was followed by the formation of a powerful Christian Socialist party in Italy.

"The movement soon aroused the suspicion and enmity of the Jesuits and the Ultramontane party at the Vatican, with the result that, on January 18, 1901, the Pope issued an encyclical, 'Graves de communi re,' by which the more liberal concessions made in the 'Rerum Novarum' were practically annulled. The new encyclical inhibited the Christian Democrats from political action, and placed them under the direct ecclesiastical guidance of the 'Opera dei Congressi Cattolici.' This was followed by a note addressed by Cardinal Rampolla, the Papal secretary of state, and, as many believe, the evil genius of Leo XIII., to the Italian bishops. In this document, Christian Democrats and all Catholic writers and individuals occupying themselves with Catholic matters are ordered 'always to keep the people mindful of the intolerable position of the Holy See since the usurpation of its civil principality.' It further gives the bishops entire control of the Christian Democratic movement."

As a Conservative.

Mr. Wilfrid Ward contributes to the *Fortnightly Review* a long article on Pope Leo XIII. It is a summary rather than an appreciation,

and is somewhat scrappy and disjointed. He regards the late Pope as distinctly a conservative. He never had the belief in liberty which led Pius IX., in 1846, so nearly to accept the alliance of Mazzini. He believed merely in recognizing and making use of the modern spirit.

"We must use the modern liberties,—our ultimate ideal being largely to get rid of them. Pius IX. began with a certain sanguine trust in the more generous features of modern liberalism. Disappointment led to reaction, and made him the intransigent opponent of all that savored of liberalism. Leo never idealized liberalism; and, consequently, he was kinder to it. There never appeared in his utterances any enthusiasm for the sacred rights of liberty, or even much appreciation of the value of liberty in the search for truth. His frequent deprecation of free discussion was not tempered by an express recognition of its indispensable necessity in certain fields of inquiry. Truth was regarded by him as the possession of the Church."

His intellectual conservatism made some thinkers tremble lest a veritably medieval standard should be insisted on in philosophy and biblical studies.

"Dreams or prejudices may have existed, but they never practically and permanently misled him. His dreams of reunion with the East and with England have been smiled at, but his critics cannot point to any rash act to which they led him. His ideal of a universal reign of Thomistic philosophy alarmed some of our best thinkers, but it was not, in the long run, pressed to practical excess. His sympathy with Christian Democracy was in his public utterances carefully safeguarded. In the matter of biblical criticism, if he did not fully appreciate the situation intellectually, his practical action was, in course of time, guided by the real needs of the hour."

Most of Mr. Ward's article deals with the historical aspect of the Pope's work. Among the features of the reign which he mentions are the numerous creations of new hierarchies, the movement toward centralization, the multiplication of ecclesiastical colleges in Rome, his encouragement of historical studies, and his liberality in throwing open the Vatican library even to non-Catholics.

A Young Soul Embalmed.

The *Contemporary Review* opens with a very interesting article, signed "Emilio Elbano," on the late Pope. The writer paints a very clear picture of the Pope's character, which seems to have been dominated by the Ultramontane doctrine of absolutism. The Pope, he says, never changed. The Pecci of nineteen speaks, writes,

and doubtless thinks as did Leo XIII. on the throne of St. Peter. Original research, independent thought, fair criticism, philosophic doubt, were always regarded as ways that lead to perdition. "One feels tempted to speak of an embalming of the young soul, of its preservation in theological spirits, rather than of a natural growth."

LEO'S AMBITIONS.

The writer remarks that Pope Leo was by no means the ultra-spiritual, selfless being that is generally made out. From the beginning of his career he showed a great deal of worldly ambition. It would be a grave mistake to accept the estimate of those enthusiastic and uncritical biographers who stamp the Holy Father's every act, intention, and word as that of a canonized saint, with the hall-mark of absolute selflessness and entire resignation to God's will. He had a good eye for the main chance, and as long ago as 1837 was writing :

Thanks to the favor of his Holiness, I am now on a new road, on which I will strive with all my might to meet the wishes of the family and contribute in every way to what may increase its honor and glory. Since I entered upon my present career I have pursued only one aim : I endeavored to do my very utmost to render my conduct praiseworthy in order to advance in hierarchical posts, and thereby at the same time to raise the well-merited consideration which our family enjoys in the country. As I am still young, I shall doubtless win such a career as will redound to the family honor, always provided that my conduct remains blameless, and that I do not lack interest,—two indispensable conditions in Rome, as you know, in order to rise surely and swiftly.

He was a brilliant and solid administrator. When severity seemed essential he employed it, and no supplication could turn him from his course ; but the moment he was able to dispense with it he was mild, indulgent, paternal. Security of life and property were the first fruits of his rule ; he then bettered the conditions of social life, had good roads constructed, furthered trade and industry, lightened the burden of taxation, and left nothing undone to win the people.

RULER AND BENEFACTOR.

"As a bishop he regulated the finances of his diocese with extreme care and perfect success, he made serious financial sacrifices in order to raise the status of his clergy, paid out of his own slender purse the salaries of some of the professors of his seminary, founded a fund for old and invalided ecclesiastics, came generously to the aid of the famine-stricken population (1853), opened a school for the education of girls of the working classes, to whom, when their conduct was satisfactory, he had dowries given on their

marriage day, and last, but not least, he had homes founded for fallen women desirous of leading clean lives and regaining their position in society. In a word, his purse was ever open to succor the poor and suffering."

THE POPE AS PRESS CENSOR.

But the knowledge of how to use worldly instruments for worldly ends never forsook him, and he was as acute in his old age as in his youth.

"As a diplomatist, it is no exaggeration to say that he had not his equal in Europe or the world. To find another statesman worthy to rank with Leo XIII. as a clever mover of human pawns on the chessboard of the world one must hark back to the Italy of the Middle Age. From the press, too, he hoped much, and realized not a little. In Rome alone he had for a considerable time no less than five journals in his service, the editors of which were absolutely dependent on his nod. Above all things, he required that they should display prudence, foresight, and moderation in form. A blunder he never pardoned. The French editor of one of those journals, having attacked with excessive bitterness and unpapal brutality the Italian Government, was accused by the government press of abusing the law of hospitality, and threatened with expulsion. He replied by saying that Rome being the patrimony of the Pope, he, as a Catholic, had a better right to be there than the supporters of a dynasty which had entered its gates by force. The Pope, on reading that article, dismissed the editor on the spot, and silenced the journal forever. The Pontiff, who may without any exaggeration be described as the most modern of the cardinals of Rome, possessed a very clear notion of the value of money as a means of influence, and he was not chary of using it. Indeed, it was on his own initiative that a vast politico-financial enterprise was called into being many years ago, the aim and object of which was to supply motive power to the Holy See."

An Anglican Estimate.

The *Church Quarterly Review* contains a sympathetic survey of the career of Leo XIII. His pastoral charges of 1877 and 1878 are summed up by the reviewer in two names,—“for the philosophy of religion, Gioberti ; for politics, Lammenais.” He had then “already pronounced the name of Christian Economics.” Of his recognition of the French Republic, in February, 1890, it is recalled that Signor Castelar exclaimed, “I know few political manifestoes in history to be compared with this of Leo XIII.”

And "in high circles it was rumored that when Emperor Alexander had read this epoch-making document he observed, 'I see now that the French Republic is neither a dream nor a danger.'" His encyclical on the condition of the working classes (in 1891) the reviewer describes as "probably the greatest event of his reign," and quotes with approval M. de Vogüé, that "the Holy Father has not indeed solved the social problem, but he has stated it more precisely than ever was done before." The result has been a "movement so vast on the surface that we dare not attempt a map of it."

"If an extreme form of Socialist propaganda should ever frighten governments, and the day dawn when it is said, 'La Commune, voilà l'ennemi!' a coalition between the Roman Church, the constitutional states abroad, and a large section of the working class may be anticipated with confidence. For such a union, the encyclical, just because it is in theory somewhat of a compromise, would be admirably suited. Its moderation may prove to be its strength. But meanwhile it has done much to prevent an early crisis, and to smooth over transitions, should they turn out to be inevitable."

The constitution for the Eastern Churches, published in 1894, will, says the reviewer, remain as a draft or protocol on which, at some future day, the union of the churches may be attempted. His appeals to England did, indeed, acknowledge that religion in Great Britain rested on the Bible, "and this was a fresh note in Papal encyclicals." The reviewer thus summarizes the late Pope's distinctive achievement:

"By his action as well as his teaching, Leo shook off the incubus which for a hundred years and more had been fastened on the Church; he broke the entangling alliance of 'altar and king,' he disowned the Bourbons, and he blessed democracy altogether. If the Roman Pontiff could not be reconciled with 'progress, liberalism, and modern civilization,' taken in a bad sense, he could show that they were capable of a better, and, as it was boldly said, he might baptize 1789 after receiving its abjuration. No later Pope can undo these things. With Pius IX., the old order came at last to an end; with Leo XIII., the new has started on its way."

The Conclave.

Dr. Dillon, in the *Contemporary Review*, writes at length on the Conclave. Dr. Dillon says he is convinced that the right of veto possessed by the great Catholic powers will never again be employed in any Conclave. He thinks that neither Italian citizens nor Vatican officials desire a reconciliation with the Quirinal. A Papacy which would live in friendship with the Italian Government would be, *ipso facto*, shorn of half its splendor and deprived of much of its liberty of action.

"The crown of martyrdom and the belief that it encircles the brow of the Sovereign Pontiff contributes more efficaciously to win for him the hearts of millions of his spiritual children than the most brilliant diplomatic successes."

Ceremonies of the Conclave.

There is a very useful article in the *Monthly Review*, by Mr. F. W. Rolfe, explaining the various ceremonies connected with the Pope's death, and the ritual of the Conclave. In theory, as the election of the Pope is a manifestation of the Holy Spirit, not only cardinals, but all the baptized males, are eligible for the Papacy. There have been several cases of Popes who were not first cardinals. The ceremony of the adoration which takes place after the new Pope's election is rendered to God, whose vicegerent on earth is the Pope, and not to the Pope himself.

"The insignia of the apostolate are the Fisherman's Ring, the Keys of Heaven and Hell, the Triple Cross, the Triple Crown, Tiara, or Tririegno. The Pope receives the ring at his election. A few days later, he is crowned by the cardinal-archdeacon in the basilica of St. Peter-by-the-Vatican. On the morning of his incoronation, he is awakened by a procession of curial prelates, who gravely ostend the bronze figure of a crowing cock in remembrance of the fall of his first predecessor, St. Peter. In the Sistine Chapel he is vested for mass in red, with precious mitre of gold and gems. Preceded by seven acolytes with seven candles and the triple cross, he descends to St. Peter's. At the Holy Door he receives the homage of the Chapter. At the Gregorian Chapel he receives cardinalitial and prelatial homage."



THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

AN interesting scientific article appears in the September *Harper's*, from Dr. Allan Macfadyen, on the "Effects of Low Temperatures Upon Organic Life." Plant life is much more tolerant than animal life of extremes of temperature, growth having been observed, in some instances, as low as zero, and in other instances as high as 72° Centigrade. It is perfectly true that a freezing process does not destroy life. A fish or frog will be frozen solid, and on rethawing become quite lively again. The seeds of plants can actually undergo for hours a temperature of liquid hydrogen and yet retain their germinative power. Professor Dewar has recently submitted living bacteria to the temperature of liquid hydrogen, about -250° Centigrade, and about as near absolute zero as we can get, and after an immersion for ten hours there was no appreciable effect on the vitality of the organisms. Again, these organisms were immersed directly in liquid air and were kept at a temperature of -190° Centigrade for six months without impairing their vitality. "It is difficult to form a conception of living matter under this novel condition, which is neither life nor death; or, to select a term which will adequately describe it, it represents living matter in a new and hitherto unobtained third condition, and constitutes perhaps the most ultimate realization of the laws of suspended animation."

A STANDARD OF PRONUNCIATION.

In a second essay on "The Standard of Pronunciation in English," Prof. T. R. Lounsbury argues that no work of the many existing can be accepted as a final authority on pronunciation, and that an English-speaking person is justified in picking out any good authority and sticking to it. However, he remarks, "The pronouncing dictionary which a man uses exists for his own guidance; it does not enable him to criticise the practice of those who dissent from its teachings." Professor Lounsbury considers that there is a perfect ignorance among many men of letters on this subject, and he does not sympathize with the determined opposition to any change from their pronunciation. "It requires a far more enlightened opinion than prevails yet among the large majority of these before we can look for the success of any effort to cause our tongue to approach even remotely to the phonetic excellence of Italian or Spanish or German."

CHARLES LAMB'S ROMANCE.

John Hollingshead recalls "Charles Lamb's One Romance," the affair of Elia with the versatile and sympathetic actress, Frances M. Kelly. Charles Lamb dreamed of a household in which his sister and his wife and he could live together, joined by a link of congenial literary taste. He made Miss Kelly a written offer of marriage, which is printed in this reminiscent article, together with the frank declination of the object of his affections.

Stoddard Dewey describes "A Paris School Colony," which is illustrated by Boutet de Monvel; Dr. A. J. Grout has a pleasant botanical article, "Some Successful Plants;" and Natalie Curtis writes on the music of the Hopi Indians of the Arizona wilderness.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

MR. RAY STANNARD BAKER'S opening article in the September *Century*, "The Day of the Run," gives a graphic description of the rush over the boundary to the newly opened lands of an Indian reservation. Where there are unusually choice pieces of land there are pretty sure to be men who do not make a fair start, who slip over the line in the dark, and are hastening to the coveted territory while honest settlers are still waiting beyond the boundary. There are guards to prevent this dishonesty, but thirty-five Indian police, protecting four hundred and eighteen thousand acres (six hundred and fifty square miles), leave plenty of room for fraud. Such a body of land would have a hundred miles of boundary. "Yet the United States Government is conducting this game, seeing that it is honestly played!"

OUR POPULATION AND MANUFACTURES.

Among the points made by the Hon. W. R. Merriam in "Noteworthy Results of the Twelfth Census" is the rapidity of our population growth. In 1890, the United States had a population of 62,979,766; in 1900, the population, including the 7,000,000 people of the Philippines, the 1,000,000 of Porto Rico, and the 15,000 of Guam and Samoa, had increased to 84,233,069. The only countries surpassing the United States in number of inhabitants are the Chinese Empire, the British Empire, the Russian Empire, and probably France, if its African possessions are included. Mr. Merriam thinks one of the most remarkable results of the census is the showing made by manufactures. The products of the factory and shop in the United States now exceed in value those of the farm. Simply the value added to the raw materials by the manufacturing processes amounts to \$5,678,286,148, exceeding by almost \$2,000,000,000 the reported net value of agricultural products. Prior to 1890, manufactures, as measured by the value of products reported at each census, were secondary in importance to agriculture.

CARDINAL GIBBONS ON THE LATE PONTIFF.

An appreciation of "The Character of Leo XIII." is contributed by Cardinal Gibbons, who considers it certain that Leo XIII. will rank among the few Pontiffs who were great theologians and philosophers, like Innocent III. and Benedict XIV. Leo's love of Latin letters would have made him, the cardinal says, a great Mæcenas to the scholars that surrounded the Papal throne if he had lived in the time of the Renaissance. His lack of means did not permit of vast literary enterprises, but many excellent works were carried on at his expense, or furthered by his subsidies.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

MR. FREDERIC IRLAND gives an interesting account, in the September *Scribner's*, with many valuable photographs, of the deer and other large animals in "The Wyoming Game Stronghold." He says that the elk, antelope, and deer of the great valley between the Shoshone and Wind River mountains on the east and the Tetons on the west are still in plenty,

and reproduce with quite sufficient rapidity to keep up their numbers. But there are two dangers to their continued existence. In the first place, the sheep-herders are threatening the devastation of the grass, and it takes six years for grass to grow up again where sheep have pulled it up and trampled it down. In the second place, Mr. Irland thinks the game is in danger from "the mistaken enthusiasm of a collection of gentlemen who wish to drive the ranchmen and settlers entirely out of western Wyoming and to make the country a vast preserve." The settlers are uneasy, and say that if the elk will cause their being driven out the elk will not last long.

There is a very readable chapter of reminiscences of "Some Famous Judges," by Senator George F. Hoar, who give a number of excellent anecdotes of Chief Justice Lemuel Shaw and other legal lights of Massachusetts. Capt. T. B. Mott describes the "Work and Play of the Military Attachés," especially at the grand maneuvers of the French army, consisting of the evolutions, practically on a war footing, of from forty-five thousand to one hundred and forty thousand men. The balance of this number consists of fiction and verse.

M'CLURE'S MAGAZINE.

UNDER the title of "Capital and Labor Hunt Together," Mr. Ray Stannard Baker tells, in the September *McClure's*, how Chicago has become the victim of "the new industrial conspiracy." Mr. Baker is chiefly occupied in describing how the two organizations, the Coal Teamsters' Union and the Coal Team Owners' Association, came together and formed a close compact, offensive and defensive,—a sort of monopoly new to our American life. "Instead of fighting each other, to the profit and peace of the onlooking public, they now turned, united, and attacked that public. The teamster salved his sores with a large increase in wages, the coal dealer and the team-owner fattened their bank accounts with a large increase in profits, and the defenseless, unorganized public paid the bill." After a very specific recital of just how this thing was done, Mr. Baker remarks: "We have been sighing for capital and labor to get together; we have been telling them that they are brothers, that the interest of one is the interest of the other; here they are together; are we any better off?"

THE TRIUMPHS OF THE PASTEUR INSTITUTES.

In "The Conquest of Five Great Ills," Mr. Cleveland Moffett outlines the great work of the Pasteur institutes throughout the world. Within twenty years, five great foes of the human race have been shorn of their worst terrors by the processes of Pasteur. These five ills are hydrophobia, diphtheria, lockjaw, snake poison, and the bubonic plague. In the case of hydrophobia, the Pasteur treatment now removes all chance of harm,—or, to be exact, all but one-fifth of one chance in a hundred. In diphtheria, the average mortality has been reduced from 45 or 50 per cent. to 12 or 14 per cent. In lockjaw, the antitoxin serum is, to be sure, only preventive, and not curative; but this is usually sufficient, since the danger is plainly indicated in advance. The proudest victory of the Pasteur school is in the treatment of bubonic plague, which in times of great epidemics used to carry off 85 per cent. of all who contracted it. Dr. Calmette has succeeded in reducing the mortality of those treated by him and his assistants to

less than 15 per cent., as against a mortality of over 63 per cent., in the same epidemic, of those not treated.

There is a pleasant sketch of Alessandro Salvini by Clara Morris, and stories by Mary Moss, Henry Harland, George Barr McCutcheon, H. W. Wallis, and Norman Duncan.

THE COSMOPOLITAN MAGAZINE.

A NEW series in the *Cosmopolitan*, to succeed the sketches of "Captains of Industry," is begun in the September number under the title "Men of Honor and Stamina Who Make the Real Successes in Life." The first "man of honor" chosen is Joseph W. Folk, the young circuit attorney of St. Louis, who has done such notable work in cleaning up the political "boodle gang" of that city. Missourians are thinking seriously of making this quiet young man, only thirty-three years old, the governor of the State. Mr. Folk was born in Brownsville, Tenn., took an academic and legal course at Vanderbilt University, in Nashville, and became a citizen of St. Louis in 1892. In 1900, he aided in the settlement of the riotous street-car strike, and a committee of business men asked Mr. Folk to become candidate for circuit attorney.

On assuming the duties of his office, January 1, 1901, Mr. Folk began his campaign against criminals, the later and more important aspects of which have been made so well known through the newspapers. He is described as an undemonstrative man, with a smilingly determined countenance. He is even-tempered, quiet-voiced, and tries his cases without excitement, declamation, or resentment. There is no word of condemnation for the man, but unsparing denunciation of the crime. This writer, Mr. Frederic C. Howe, thinks there is a strong probability Mr. Folk will get the gubernatorial nomination, in spite of the opposition of the "machine."

SIR THOMAS LIPTON'S CREW.

Sir Thomas Lipton himself tells of his yacht-racing ambitions in "My Efforts to Win the *America's Cup*." Describing the organization of his invading force, he says that everything is under the control of Mr. William Fife, the designer. He is confident that Capt. Robert Wringe, the skipper of *Shamrock III.*, and Capt. Charles Bevis, master of *Shamrock I.*, are the two best skippers in Great Britain. In the crew of the challenger there are numerous men who were racing skippers in England, men of rare intelligence and attainment, who have been willing to ship under Sir Thomas as mere members of his crew. In short, the baronet can say with confidence that *Shamrock III.* is being sailed by the best crew ever gathered together in the United Kingdom.

THE ARCHITECT'S LONG APPRENTICESHIP.

In treating of "Architecture," in the series on "Making a Choice of a Profession," Mr. John M. Carrère shows what a long, tedious road the young architect must travel. He must possess a good general education before touching architecture especially, and will then probably enter a school of architecture and after graduating spend a number of years in study and practice in an architect's office, eventually drifting to Paris, and ending his education by a period of travel. Altogether, an architect is supposed to devote eight or ten years of his life to study and preparation before he can think of entering upon the independent practice of his profession with justice to himself or to his work.

THE WORLD'S WORK.

MR. JOHN ALBERT MACY explains, in the September *World's Work*, the perfection of modern teaching of the deaf, the recitations in gesture, and the simplicity of the modern manual alphabet. He shows what the parents of deaf children may do, and says a proper beginning is to write to the superintendent of one of the State schools. "He may help her, or he may not be able to do anything. His power to assist depends on how liberally the Legislature has provided him with means and equipment to look after the deaf children of the State." But the mother can do something else, too. "Learn the manual alphabet and let every member of the family learn it, and as many of the child's playmates as can be induced to try this interesting play of the fingers. Talk to it at table, and the child is almost sure to pick up a word or two at a time and make them on its fingers, just as the hearing child begins to babble."

AMERICAN INVESTMENTS IN MEXICO.

Mr. E. P. Lyle, Jr., makes a good article out of his subject of "The American Influence in Mexico." He shows how a nation is suddenly awakening to modern life beyond the Rio Grande, and how Americans have chiefly caused the awakening. "In Mexico, there still exists a form of serfdom called peonage, and in Mexico, also, there are invested five hundred million American dollars. Now, between the serfdom and the dollars a connection exists that makes clear a most curious spectacle,—the spectacle of a people leaping from the tenth century into the twentieth." In the past five years, two hundred and fifty million dollars have gone from the United States into the development of Mexico, and are building and operating railroads and smelters, exploiting mines, and playing the farmer over vast acres.

MAKING BIG GUNS AT WASHINGTON.

Under the title "Making Big Guns," Lieutenant-Commander Albert Gleaves sketches the great advance in naval equipment and describes how the great twelve-inch guns are made, and especially the work at the government factory at Washington. Here, twelve hundred and ten big guns of various calibers have been completed since 1887, and two hundred and eighty-one are now in process of manufacture. Nearly four thousand men are employed, the annual expenditure for labor having increased tenfold in less than twenty years. In discussing the life of a great gun, this writer says that whereas the very heaviest guns, such as the twelve-inch, have a maximum limit of about three hundred firings, six-inch guns have been fired upward of two thousand times without injury.

WHISTLER'S METHOD.

An excellent piece of critical writing by F. J. Mather, Jr., deals with "The Art of Mr. Whistler": "His manner of painting is best described by one of his distinguished sitters, Count Robert de Montesquiou. The full-length figure was brushed hurriedly in at a single short sitting. Then followed sixteen agonizing sittings. It would be long, anxious minutes before the poised brush descended and the stroke was made. So by some fifty strokes a sitting the portrait advanced. Nothing was done until the artist had concentrated hand and eye upon the stroke, and the finished work consisted of some hundred accents, of which none was corrected or painted out. At the end the slender figure of a nobleman stood as if seen in the dusk, and yet absolutely crisp. The innu-

merable distinct strokes had fused into an apparently simple whole—a simplicity laboriously attained, and only a certain aggressive firmness of pose, sober harmony of color, and aristocratic aloofness of expression told that it was a Whistler."

Mr. Israel Zangwill writes a characteristic essay on "Zionism and the Future of the Jews;" Henry H. Lewis describes the various "Feats of Modern Railroad Engineering;" Edward Lowry sums up the reform results of Mayor Low's administration in New York, and there is an interesting essay on the question "Are Riches Demoralizing American Life?" We have quoted in another department from "Railroad Accidents in America and Europe," by Slason Thompson, and from the sketch of "Charles Francis Murphy—Tammany's New Ruler," by Franklin Matthews.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

DR. LYMAN ABBOTT begins the September *Atlantic Monthly* with a discussion of "Why Women Do Not Wish the Suffrage." A negative reason Dr. Abbott finds in the fact that woman suffrage divides the functions of government. He does not believe that we can have the women make the laws and have the men enforce them. But he finds a stronger and more positive reason in the distraction of feminine energies from her real work. Woman, he says, must choose. "She may give her time and thought and energy in building a state and engaging in that warfare of wills which politics involves; or she may give her time and thought to the building of men on whose education and training church, state, industry, society, all depend. She has made her choice and made it wisely."

IS BIBLE STUDY DECLINING?

Prof. Herbert W. Horwill, writing on "The Bible in State Schools," thinks that the prevailing impression as to a general indifference to the Bible is somewhat exaggerated. "The very novels of the circulating library can give evidence that a certain familiarity with the Bible is still a point of contact between author and reader. Glancing at random through a catalogue of fiction, we come across such titles as 'Unleavened Bread,' 'In Kedar's Tents,' 'The Mantle of Elijah,' 'A Book of Remembrance,' 'When the Gates Lift up Their Heads,' 'The Hosts of the Lord,' 'By the Waters of Babylon,' 'A Damsel or Two,' 'Vengeance Is Mine,' 'They That Took the Sword,' 'They That Walk in Darkness.' And how, on the theory of hopeless decadence, are we to account for the large and constant sale, not only of Bibles, but of Bible dictionaries, commentaries, and other works of exegesis? There never was a time when the issue of scholarly books of this class, whether at high prices or low, was so good a commercial investment for a publisher."

OTHER ARTICLES.

M. A. DeWolfe Howe, writing on "The Literary Center," reviews the luxuriant period of Boston literary history which made the town so worthy of that phrase. The whole list of American writers, says this essayist, whose work has stood the test of half a century with a few notable exceptions belong to Boston and its neighborhood. There is an essay on Christopher North, by William A. Bradley, and an account of the experience of "An Educated Wage-Earner," by Jocelyn Lewis; there is an attractive treatise "Of Girls in a Canadian College," by Archibald MacMechan, and the usual complement of fiction, verse, and capable book reviews.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

IN the August number of the *North American Review*, Mr. Archibald R. Colquhoun and Sir John Gorst, M.P., present the current arguments for and against Mr. Chamberlain's zollverein policy, as brought before the readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, during recent months, in the department of "Leading Articles of the Month." Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson's discussion of the probable effect of the zollverein scheme on American trade is outlined in this number of the REVIEW.

THE BRITISH TRADE-UNIONS IN POLITICS.

Mr. J. Keir Hardie gives an interesting account of the rise of a federated labor party in England which seems likely to supplant the present Independent labor party,—a Socialist organization that has grown up within the past ten years. The new movement described by Mr. Hardie is a federation the basis of which is that each affiliated organization shall finance its own candidates and become responsible for their maintenance if returned to Parliament, each, however, combining with the others to secure the return of their respective nominees. In England and Wales, nine hundred thousand trade-unionists are now affiliated. By the contribution of one shilling per member each year to a labor representation fund, an annual income of \$250,000 has been secured. It is believed that not less than fifty candidates will run for Parliament at the next general election, and some of these are pretty certain to be elected.

WOMAN AND THE REPUBLIC.

Mrs. Kate T. Woolsey, writing on "Woman's Inferior Position in a Republic," compares woman's status in the United States with her status in Russia—greatly to the disadvantage of Uncle Sam's government. For example, in America millions of wives have no individual control over their property. In Russia, on the other hand, for about two centuries, every wife has been the legal mistress of her own fortune. Again, millions of women in the United States are still without the right to vote on municipal matters; every woman householder in Russia has had that right for several centuries. Where nine thousand wives are deserted by husbands in America, five hundred such desertions occur in Russia. No little girls can be employed in Russian factories; thousands are so employed in this country. Finally, more women work in the fields in the United States than in Russia.

THE NATIONAL GUARD.

In this number there are two excellent articles on our national militia system by Lieut.-Col. James Parker, U.S.A., and Representative John J. Esch, respectively. Both writers are thoroughly informed on the subject. Colonel Parker summarizes the advantages to the national government that may be gained from the militia law passed by Congress at the last session as follows:

"First.—A great improvement in the efficiency of the National Guard, which will result as a consequence of governmental supervision and aid, better arms and equipment, and more thorough training;

"Second.—The placing of the National Guard, in an emergency, at the disposal of the general government, whereby the President, in time of war, will be able to muster the whole of that force into the United States service, at twenty-four hours' notice, if necessary, to serve until the volunteers are ready to take the field;

"Third.—The formation of a corps of reserve officers, derived from sources outside of the regular army, but tested by examinations prescribed by the War Department, whose function in time of war will be to command our volunteers."

Representative Esch estimates the annual cost of the National Guard, to State and national governments, at thirty-three dollars per man, as against one thousand dollars per man in our regular army, and about four hundred and fifty dollars per man for the German standing army.

ITALY'S COMMERCIAL RELATIONS WITH US.

Deputy Luzzatti, of the Italian Chamber, formulates some of the desires of the Italian people for a readjustment of economic relations with the United States, as follows:

"Italy asks of the United States the favored treatment stipulated in the conventions with France and with England for Jamaica; she asks that, for the products indicated in those conventions, any further reduction of duties upon the American tariff should be also extended to Italy; lastly, she asks for the reduction of 20 per cent., if no more is to be obtained, upon the duties registered in the fourth section of the Dingley tariff upon marbles, cheeses, and certain other of her special products already mentioned above. Upon the other hand, Italy is disposed to make just concessions in her duties upon bacon, sago, agricultural machinery, and the writer of this article would not hesitate to make it also upon American petroleum, with important reductions upon the Italian duty, which now stands at forty-eight lire the quintal, in proportion to the corresponding compensations which Italian goods would obtain in the American market."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Gen. W. H. Carter, U.S.A., writes on "Anglo-American Friendship," Mr. James P. Kimball on "Aggressive Forest Reservation," and Mr. Wolf von Schierbrand on "Results of the German Elections." We have quoted in another department from Mr. Archibald S. Hurd's article on "Russia's Fleet."

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

FROM the August number of *Guntton's*, we have selected the article on "The Union *versus* the Open Shop" for review and quotation in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month." The policy of extending and broadening the range of the magazine, to include literary and descriptive articles of general interest, is even more in evidence in this than in the preceding number.

Miss Anna McClure Sholl, in framing an answer to the question "Is an American Aristocracy Possible?" declares that such an aristocracy, if it shall arise, will not be one of wealth, although we must look to the wealthy, and to those in high station generally, to enforce the traditions of the true American aristocracy.

Mrs. Julia R. Tutwiler, writing on "The American Boy in Fiction," inclines strongly to the American and English boy of actual life as the true presentation of boyhood in story, as opposed to the stiff and impossible boy of the earlier writers.

Mr. Robert Shackleton, the author of "Many Waters," describes "A Feast Day in Old St. Cloud"—an ancient institution of the French gardeners.

RUSSIAN EXPANSION.

"The Shadow of Russia in the Far East" is the title of an article in which "An American in China" sets forth some of the dangers to American interests threatened by the continued expansion of Russia in the far East. The two grounds on which this writer urges objection to that expansion are—(1) that Russian policy is exclusive in so far as it relates to other countries, and (2) that the Russian type of government is opposed to general education and enlightenment. He says:

"Japan has forty millions of people, and her standard of living for her working classes is below ours; yet, instead of being a menace, under the wisdom of her statesmanship her advancement is a profit to us, and she is buying more and more of the things we have to sell as her civilization advances. Under similar conditions, China would increase her trade with us and add to her own and our wealth. Under the illiberal and dominating militarism of Russia, however, we should lose whatever markets we now have in China, and our future prospects would be blighted. We should also see erected, across the Pacific, an industrial and political system that would menace our own splendid civilization."

SUFFRAGE AND REPRESENTATION.

The editor declares unreservedly for an educational qualification for voting throughout the country, with representation in Congress based on the number of citizens who voted, or who were entitled to vote, at the last preceding Presidential or Congressional election.

"That would solve the question, not only for the South, but for all sections. Any State that neglected the education of its citizens would reduce the number of its voters and cut down its representation in the national government. This is as it should be. A State that neglects the education of its citizens should not exercise so much influence in the law-making institutions of the country as the State that educates its citizens and raises the social standard of its people. Poverty and ignorance should lessen the political power of a State. If an educational test were general in all the States, and representation in Congress were based on the number of qualified voters, the standard of political representation would be raised throughout the country, and the State that does the best for its people would have the greatest proportionate influence in the Government."

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for August contains only nine articles. We have elsewhere reviewed those treating of the Papacy, Pan-Germanism, and Russia in Manchuria.

THE FRENCH IBSEN.

Mlle. de Pratz writes on François de Curel, "the French Ibsen," whose dramas she describes in detail.

"With all his potentialities and force, he has come into the world at the wrong moment. Throughout his works one feels a constant diversity between his instinct and his intellect, which explains his long fruitless efforts at the beginning of his career, and his delight in living far away from the haunts of men, in the midst of nature. He is entirely devoted to his own inspiration, and is very little influenced by outside opinion. The result is that we owe to him a series of plays, the inspiration of which is entirely out of the

ordinary, and far above the commonplaces of the dramatic writing of the day. One feels that he is a free man, writing neither for money nor for cheap glory. Here and there in his writings one finds passages which carry one far beyond the pettinesses of smaller and more finite conceptions of modern art, and produce in us that thrill of emotion which only the great geniuses of the world, from time to time, have been able to give to humanity."

THE ROYAL ACADEMY AND THE CHANTREY BEQUEST.

Mr. Harry Quilter writes a strong article on the subject of the abuse of the Chantrey bequest. The accusations which he brings against the trustees of the fund are summed up by himself as follows:

"That its administrators have perverted money left to them for a specific purpose for the benefit of their friends; that they have practically restricted the rewards of the fund to the members of one institution—*i.e.*, the Royal Academy—and have ignored the claims of all other artistic associations, and all artists outside the circle of academic favor; that they have not only done this, which was entirely *ultra vires*, and morally, if not legally, an abuse of the bequest, but that even within the limits of their action they have not succeeded in securing, nor even attempted to secure, in the artists whose works have been purchased, the best specimens procurable; but have rather proceeded on the principle of buying large and practically unsalable works, these being in many cases of distinctly inferior merit. Lastly, that they have paid for pictures of this kind extravagant sums, from £2,000 downward, and that in every case, without a single exception, such sum has been paid to a member of the Royal Academy, the public being induced to overlook this fact by the purchase, generally at an insignificant price, of a few popular pictures by outsiders more or less in touch with the Royal Academy, which have been exhibited at Burlington House, and by the fact that the prices given for the various purchases have never been publicly announced."

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is an article on the Carlyle question by Mr. Ronald McNeill, who returns to the charge against Sir J. Crichton-Browne, whom he routs as effectually as Sir J. Crichton-Browne has just routed him; a paper by the Rev. J. Verschoyle on "The Liberal Movement in the Church of England," which turns largely on the problem whether the Gospel account of the Virgin birth may or may not be doubted by a churchman.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

FROM the *Fortnightly* for August we have selected the paper on the late Pope, and the character sketch of Baron de Coubertin for review and quotation in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," elsewhere in this number.

THE LATE W. E. HENLEY.

Mr. Vernon Blackburn contributes an appreciative paper on the late Mr. Henley, of whom he says:

"Those who never worked with Henley can never even remotely appreciate that potent subtle influence of his by which he was able from each man to steal the best work of which such a one was capable. Henley was a master-miner of the gold-fields of the brain; you struck a vein, as it were, part alloy, part precious metal;

and with a keenness and an inspiration that were like fire in their instant and unassailable conquest of that which is inflammable, he was at your side with words of acceptance, encouragement, rejection possibly, warning, counsel, and again, perhaps, of the keenest contempt. . . . When his place has been assigned in the great roll-call of England's literature, it will be said of him, that though he hardened his heart to men that pleased him not, though he valued as nothing the abuse of the unintelligent, though he endured the taunts of the foolish by reason of a polity in life which he courted with an adamant fixity of principle, though he had equal words of just disfavor for friend or foe, he still was true, under all stress, under all storm, to the ideals which he worshiped to the end with the ardor of a novice, no less than with the sane beliefs of a man convinced by faith. His was, indeed, that gift of faith; he was forever preaching upon the blindness of mankind, well knowing that all faith is blind."

THE COMING IRELAND.

Mr. Justin McCarthy, writing on "The Coming Ireland," speculates on what would happen if American capitalists were to take in hand the creation of a new Ireland, converting it into a smiling and happy pleasure ground, reviving its industries, protecting its ruins, and reestablishing its peasantry.

"I have been assured in all seriousness that many American capitalists are already engaged in reasonable and laudable schemes for the development of Ireland's industrial and commercial life, and that if the British Government does not look to itself, it will soon find American influence much stronger than that of Britain over the Irish people."

STATE OWNERSHIP OF SLAVES.

The Rev. C. Usher Wilson, in an article on the South African labor question, after lamenting that individual slavery, to which he pays a dithyrambic tribute, is no longer possible, suggests that the South African natives should in future be enslaved by the state.

"All males of native origin might be made subject to labor conscription between the ages of sixteen and twenty-two years. Thus for six years a native lad would be under the control and discipline of the state. His life for that period may easily be sketched. He will be sent, first of all, to a labor depot. Here, for the first time, perhaps, the red-ochred blanket will be dropped (alas, for that! The classic folds of that old blanket, worn with the grace and consequence of a Roman toga, have often charmed the artistic eye). After donning the suitable uniform that will be adopted, he will be detained in barracks at the depot until drafted into a company under orders to proceed to some center of governmental work. Through all his five senses the tenets of civilization will be absorbed. For the first time, he will live in a comfortable, well-ventilated room, where a clean bed and blankets will be his own property. Receiving wages from the first day of his enlistment, payment for his kit will be made by means of monthly stoppages. The fact that all the outfit is his own will arouse in him the pride of possession, and insure careful regard for everything. The casual habit of the savage will be supplanted by methodism."

OXFORD POETRY TO ORDER.

There is an interesting article by Ogier Rysden on the history of the Newdigate prize poem. The follow-

ing are some specimens of the product. The first deals with "The Beneficial Effects of Inoculation," the second with "The Sandwich Islands," and the third with "Gibraltar." Two are really quoted from competing poems, the third is a parody. Which is which?

Of as the swain beneath the citron shade
Pour'd his soft passion to the list'ning maid,
Infection's poison hung on every breath,
And each persuasive sigh was charged with death.

They brought to him slices of ham and of tongue,
With bread which from the trees spontaneous hung,
The hero takes the gift and kindly smiles,
And aptly christens them the Sandwich Isles.

Here rocks protrude extraordinary shapes
While furry monkeys walk along the capes.

AGAINST NAVAL DISPERSION.

Mr. Archibald Hurd, in a paper entitled "The Navy that We Need," makes a vigorous protest against the present system of widely dispersing the British navy throughout the seven seas. Germany concentrates her fleet in the North Sea, France in the Channel and Mediterranean, and Russia in the far East. They mass their ships where they have interests to defend, while England distributes her ships to defend interests which are not threatened to the extent indicated by the measures taken for safety.

"The present policy is opposed to all wisdom, a frittering away of many thousand pounds a year, and a weakening of the striking power of the fleet. The sea is all one, and the navy is all one, but the navy ceases to be all one if so many of its personnel are exiled in areas outside the probable, or even possible, arena of hostilities. In these days of steam, Great Britain has no call to continue these distant practically non-fighting squadrons in seas where there is no opposing force to be met,—squadrons which, on the other hand, are too weak to offer effective resistance to a strong flying squadron of an enemy, presuming that such a force escaped from Europe or Port Arthur, and, in the absence of coaling stations, would attempt to attack on Canada or Australasia."

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is an article by M. Joseph Chailley-Bert on "The Colonial Policy of France;" a statistical paper by Mr. Holt Schooling on the growth of cancer, which he shows is contemporaneous with the increase of meat-eating; and a short poem of merit by Mr. Laurence Hope.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

IN the *Nineteenth Century* for August, Mr. J. W. Cross has a paper on "The Bane of Borrowing." He says that the recent depreciation of values on the London and New York markets, amounting to hundreds of millions sterling, is due mainly to over-borrowing. No one can doubt the existing resources and future material prosperity of the British Empire and the United States. A few years hence they will, probably, both have increased enormously in wealth; but for the last few years they have been engaged in too rapid development, with consequent strain on capital. There is a danger for the British colonies from too rapid development by borrowing from the mother country, and a danger to the mother country from being obliged to borrow from the Continent to help this colonial development, and at the same time to maintain an extravagant home expenditure.

CANADA.

Mr. Robert Machray, writing on "The Granary of the Empire," says that at present the Americans are more keen-eyed than the English in recognizing the greatness of Canada. The American immigrants are, however, to be welcomed, as they are first-class, practical farmers, with capital, experience, and enterprise.

"Having sold their farms in the States for from £10 to £20 an acre, they have gone into the Canadian West with the money thus realized, and purchased farms for from £2 to £5 an acre, in the sure and certain hope of rapidly improving their position. The movement is a natural movement; it has nothing to do with politics; it is solely concerned with what may be described as economic betterment. These Americans make good settlers, and readily fall in with the laws, habits, and ways of the country; they cease to be Americans, they become Canadians; the transition is not violent, but easy, so there is no need for them to boggle at it,—and there is no boggling."

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

THE *National Review* for August contains an article in French of considerable length from Madame Réjane's pen. It is entitled "The Dramatic Art," and ascribes the defects of English acting to the fact that there is no school of dramatic art.

THE JEWISH QUESTION IN RUSSIA.

Mr. Arnold White writes on "Kishineff and After," attributing the anti-Jewish feeling of the Russian people to the alleged economic exploitation practised by the Jews. He proposes a conference at which Russia, Great Britain, and the United States would be represented, arguing that it is a matter for international agreement.

THE GERMAN ELECTIONS.

Mr. Norton Gibside, in an article on the German elections, makes the following comparison between the late and present Reichstag:

	Strength in old Reichs- tag.	Strength in new Reichs- tag.	Votes obtained in 1898. (In round numbers.)	Votes obtained in 1903.
Conservatives.....	52	52	859,000	908,000
Free Conservatives...	20	20	343,000	282,000
Clerical Center.....	105	102	1,445,000	1,853,000
National Liberals....	51	50	984,000	1,243,000
Moderate Radicals...	14	9	208,000	241,000
Radical Left.....	28	21	558,000	532,000
Social Democrats.....	58	81	2,107,000	3,025,000

FRENCH NATIONALISM.

Mr. G. Syveton, a French Deputy and treasurer of the Ligue de la Patrie Française, contributes a defense of French nationalism, which, he says, has been slandered, owing mainly to the fact that the French press is under the power of its enemies. He says that the Nationalists are sincere Republicans. Their anti-Dreyfusism arose from the fact that the Dreyfusard movement had become converted into a campaign against the military institutions of the country. Their policy in regard to Fashoda was not inspired by Anglophobia, but by what they regarded as a grave dereliction of duty on the part of the French Government. The Nationalists, he says, are not Clericals, but are merely anti-Clericals in the ministerial sense.

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

THE *Westminster Review* for August opens with one of Mr. W. J. Corbet's familiar papers, entitled "The Irish Avatar." It is followed by Mr. Walter Sweetman's discourse on "The Irish Land Bill and Home Rule." Mr. Sweetman's point is that all parties had better agree to leave the Irish one hundred and three members in the imperial Parliament. Mr. Sweetman is a landlord, but he accepts the land bill, and is disposed to hope for the best as to the future.

There is a very curious paper, by Mr. Andrew Allen, entitled "The False Prophet." Commentators have often quarreled over the interpretation of the Book of Revelation. Mr. Allen follows many of his predecessors when he identifies Britain as the little Horn, but he ventures upon an altogether new theory when he declares that the first beast personifies War, and the second beast Trade. The second beast is identical with the False Prophet, and the dragon is the reptile press. Mr. Allen prophesies that a clash of interests, either in China or Africa, will precipitate the general European war. The British Empire will be divided into three parts; her ironclads will be sunk, and the boundaries of all kingdoms changed. The False Prophet, Trade, will be cast alive into the lake of fire, by which Mr. Allen sees prophetically the advent of a Socialist millennium!

A lady who prefers to disguise her identity under the name "Ixion" indulges in an imaginative rhapsody over the ethics of wheels. She concludes by declaring that "man by his wit and wisdom has never invented anything that can compare with the wheel for its ethical value to humanity." Mr. Charles Ford writes a dissertation upon the importance of putting practice before theory in all our ideas and enterprise. The longest paper in the review is one on "The Romans in Greece," by Mr. William Miller, followed by a paper on "The Claims of Francis Bacon on the Homage of Posterity." There is an interesting article upon "Maxime Gorky."

THE EDINBURGH REVIEW.

THE *Edinburgh Review* for July has the inevitable article on the protectionist issue. Otherwise the number, though of fair general interest, contains nothing requiring separate notice. It opens with a paper on "London and its People in the Eighteenth Century," in which the good old times do not appear at all to advantage. The Londoner of a hundred and fifty years ago was sensible and unemotional, honest and rather coarse-minded, clear-headed and persevering, and he was practical and independent in his religion and politics. He had no ideals, and his creed was summed up in the phrase that he tried to do his duty in the station in which he had been placed. He was more of a Londoner even than the modern Cockney, and seldom went outside the city, being absolutely ignorant of country life. Dr. Johnson, who was a typical Londoner, regarded the Hawkstone Hills, in Shropshire, much as a city clerk might to-day look upon the high Alps, and his journey to the Hebrides was then an astonishing feat of travel.

THE NEW ASTRONOMY.

There is a very interesting article under this heading. The new astronomy deals more with the physical state than with the distances and motions of the stars, and de-

pends almost wholly for its discoveries upon spectrum-analysis. - Even the velocities of stars in the line of sight can now be determined by the changes in their spectra. The writer declares that the sun, though still in a gaseous state, is probably subjected to such great pressure that it may possess the rigidity of a solid. The sun is probably now in its hottest stage. It is a remarkable fact that observation goes to show that large stars go through their phases of development more rapidly than small stars. The dead stars, says the writer, probably outnumber the living stars by many, it may be, millions to one. Dark stars, although invisible to the eye, may yet be brought within the range of human observation, as many of them, though no longer luminous, must emit heat, and may be photographed on plates sensitized to the infra-red rays of the spectrum. The great thing needed for further stellar discoveries is gigantic telescopes in good situations, which, of course, means vast expense.

THE QUARTERLY REVIEW.

CANON HENSON, reviewing, in the current *Quarterly*, Mr. Booth's book on the religious influences in London, maintains that, in spite of failure, delusion, blunder, and even scandal, the picture set before us offers an impressive demonstration of the moral power of Christianity. Denominational self-conceit, indeed, ought to have received its death-blow in these volumes. Whatever else may be doubtful, this at least is clear,—that in the process of Christianizing the population of London, all denominations are equally helpless, as such. The continued existence of separate churches and chapels all working on the same lines has behind it no justification in public utility. The multiplication of ecclesiastical organizations is practically absurd as well as religiously harmful.

THE IDENTITY OF MAN AFTER DEATH.

Reviewing Mr. Myers' book, Sir Oliver Lodge says: "It is no easy matter to decide beforehand on what would be a crucial proof of survival of personality; it turns out an exceedingly hard thing to demonstrate. Messages purporting to come from a deceased person, containing facts known to some survivor, and superficially conclusive of surviving intelligence and memory, are not really sufficient; for they can subsequently be supposed to have been derived either by hunting up records, or, if that is out of the question, then by telepathy from the survivor. If they are known to no one, they can hardly be verified; if it should happen that, by subsequent discovery, say, of hidden objects, they are verified, and if telepathy is excluded—no easy matter—their abnormal perception can then be set down to a sort of general clairvoyance, access, as it were, to a universal world-soul, or some other vague phrase of that kind. A crucial test of survival against such hypotheses as these seems impossible."

SUBMARINES.

There is an interesting unsigned article on "The Submarine." The writer thinks that the new British boats embody the best designs which the lessons of a few early successes and many failures have yielded. He gives the following list of conditions which a submarine must fulfill:

"She must be capable of submergence to variable

depths, and also of flotation at will. She must be steady on her keel, both when sinking and rising, when moving at her highest speed under water, and when discharging a torpedo. It is practically essential that objects on the surface of the sea and within a considerable radius shall be visible from the boat when submerged to a depth sufficient to render her almost invisible from above. Having taken a sight, she must be capable of moving in a straight course without divergence therefrom, in either a vertical or a lateral direction. Finally, a fairly high speed must be attained; but the machinery for propulsion must be in a small space."

One of the most difficult things to attain is steadiness of keel, while the problems of vision and of movement without divergence are not yet satisfactorily solved. The reviewer urges that England should have a fleet of submarines at least equal in number to that of France.

ASIA IN TRANSFORMATION.

There is an important article under this heading signed by Mr. A. R. Colquhoun. Mr. Colquhoun expresses the belief that there is not the slightest chance of China reforming herself from within, but he thinks that Japanese influence and teaching will have some effect. Of England's position, he says:

"As far as British interests in China are concerned, the tale is even less encouraging. The Anglo-German agreement of 1900, which was to 'maintain undiminished' the territorial condition of the Chinese Empire, resulted merely in a declaration on the part of Germany that Manchuria was not included, being 'of no interest' to her; while she obtained indirectly interests in the Yangtse valley which had hitherto been practically a British preserve. Again, the Anglo-Japanese treaty, ostensibly directed to the preservation of Manchuria and Korea, has proved entirely futile as regards the former object. The territorial integrity of China has, in fact, become a mere *façon de parler*; and, as British interests were strongly concerned with keeping that empire intact and opening it to our trade, we cannot congratulate ourselves on the success of our diplomacy."

HOW TO REFORM THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

An article entitled "The Royal Academy and Reform" makes some revolutionary suggestions. One is that the limitation of the number of Academicians should be done away with, and that the Academy should comprise all artists of merit, irrespective of numbers. Moreover, all branches of the arts should be represented, and not merely painting, sculpture, and architecture. Instead of a single annual exhibition, there should be two, the first confined to painting and to such forms of statuary as are meant to stand by themselves, and the second to the decorative arts. The Academy should relinquish all attempt at the direct teaching of students, and turn its attention toward the advancement of the independent schools by means of inspection, scholarships, loans of artistic objects, and money grants. The Academy would thus become a university of the arts.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The number opens with an unsigned paper on "The Sagas and Songs of the Gael," dealing with Irish vernacular literature. There is a very interesting paper on Siena.

THE SPIRIT OF THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

THE two most important topics of current history treated in the French reviews for July are the Servian assassinations and the German elections. The *Revue des Deux Mondes* also takes account of M. Loubet's visit to England, the news feature of the month, while the directors of the *Nouvelle Revue* are, apparently, beginning to realize the interest taken by their readers in historical subjects, for among the July contents are papers concerning the siege of Strasbourg, the ancestors of La Harpe, a long account of Lamartine's views on labor, a biographical account of Louis XIII.'s famous ambassador, Charnacé, and last, not least, a curious essay on the part played by Switzerland in 1798. Of more immediate value is the vivid description of the late Scientific Congress held at Berlin.

THE NEW SERVIAN KING.

The most interesting article in the *Nouvelle Revue* to most readers is that which gives a glimpse of the new King of Servia. As the writer of the article was at one time thrown much with him, his views concerning the personality of the newest European sovereign are not without significance. The Frenchman at the time was at the head of the French legation in Montenegro while Prince Peter Karageorgevitch was on the eve of wedding the eldest of the Montenegrin princesses, the marriage having been arranged by the then Emperor of Russia. An accident caused the diplomatist and the bridegroom elect to go a long and somewhat perilous journey together, and throughout the whole of it the future King showed great resource and good humor. The marriage, which began so auspiciously, was not of long duration, for the Princess Zorka died after a few years, leaving two children, sons, and the King has never cared to marry again.

THE GERMAN ELECTIONS.

The shrewd "Citizen of Berlin," who gives his views concerning the recent elections to the Reichstag in the *Revue de Paris*, points out that the Agrarians have been badly beaten, to their friends' and their enemies' equal astonishment. The Social Democrats, on the other hand, have scored a signal victory, and this in spite of the fact that at Essen, in Krupp's country, the Emperor, in last November, made a personal appeal to the workmen to break with the Socialist party. According to this observer of the German political situation, not since the year 1848 has the authority of the throne and the principle of monarchy been so shaken as by last month's events. The Social Democrats were most triumphant in those very towns where William II. had tried all the magic of his imperial eloquence on the electors. Further, in these same towns,—that is, in the great centers of German industry,—the Emperor's speeches dealing with this very subject were distributed in pamphlet form by the hundred thousand. The disagreeable surprise which awaited the court party could not have been foreseen, for, owing to the medieval laws concerning any act of *lèse-majesté*, no German man or woman dare state what his or her views are, unless, of course, they are known to be entirely imperial in complexion.

In the *Revue Socialiste* for July, Etienne Buisson, in discussing the elections to the Reichstag, says that these elections become more and more important in the

social and political development of Germany, as is indicated by the number of registered voters who have this time cast their ballots. At Berlin, there were on an average 75 per cent., and in some districts more than 80 per cent. Special precautions had been taken to assure the secrecy of the ballot and the independence of the voters. Triumphant German socialism is now debating whether it were best to abandon its revolutionary attitude in order to become the rallying-point for the different factions of the Left, and thus form an organized resistance to the empire.

THE CONGO DISCUSSION.

In the *Revue Générale* (Brussels) for July, the Baron Léon de Béthune ardently defends the Belgian Government in his paper "The Discussion of the Congo in England." The problem of the protection of the natives arouses nowhere greater interest than in Belgium, and the principal result of the campaign conducted by the English will be to deprive England of Belgium's good-will, in spite of the gratitude Belgium owes to England for services rendered in 1830 and 1870.

THE NEW LAPLAND RAILWAY.

We in this country have paid but slight attention to the opening of the Lapland Railway in July, and yet, if a writer in the *Revue de Paris* says truly, it has opened up regions rich in minerals, including gold; given access to virgin forests of such size as to affect, for a while at least, the price of timber and of paper; and last, not least, afforded Russia an outlet toward Norway which might prove of capital strategic importance. The Lapland Railway has already had the effect of raising up, in the American fashion, many flourishing townships where before was bare desert; in this case, at least, trade has followed the train. (See also page 355.)

CIVILIZATION AND WAR.

In the *Deutsche Revue* for August, Sir Hiram Maxim contributes an article upon civilization and war. He begins by asking what is the highest civilization, and thinks that when the civilization of the United States and England equals that of China, before the invasion of the opium traffic and the missionaries, war will cease. But this happy consummation is far off,—in fact, it is invisible even through the most powerful political telescope. Sir Hiram throughout compares Western nations unfavorably with the Chinese. According to Western ideas, different people should be fought in different ways; and illustrating this, Sir Hiram recalls a description of an ancient machine-gun which was made to use round or spherical bullets against Christians and triangular or square bits of metal against Turks. He points out, however, that in the days of black powder and flintlocks the Boers would have been crushed almost directly, and that smokeless powder, machine-guns, and quick-firing rifles tend to make this attacking of small states by powerful ones more and more impossible. Successful attacks on countries like France, Austria, Germany, England, or the United States are now quite out of the question. Formerly, it was considered sufficient if the attacking party outnumbered their opponents by two or three to one. In South Africa, it was demonstrated that the proportion must be more than ten to one.

THE TUBERCULOSIS PROBLEM.

M. Robin contributes to the *Revue de Paris* a thoughtful paper on the tuberculosis problem. He makes a violent attack on the present belief in sanatoriums, and is evidently alarmed at the number which are now being built all over France. He would substitute, firstly, far stricter laws regarding general sanitation; and, secondly, the careful feeding of consumptive patients at home. He declares that in tuberculosis prevention is not only better, but more easily achieved, than cure, and he gives one striking instance of a certain trade where altered (longer) hours suddenly increased the number of consumptive workers. Instead of those affected being sent off to a sanatorium, the conditions of their labor were lightened, and at once the percentage of tubercular cases fell to normal.

THE MARRIAGE CONTRACT IN EUROPE.

In the Dutch magazine *Onze Eeuw*, the contribution which attracts us most is that on the breaking of the marriage tie, whether it be called divorce or by any other name. The article is based on a long-published book by Mr. van Houten, a name to conjure with in the Netherlands. The relative positions of man and woman, the comparative positions of the women of former days and the present time, the result of this easy dissolution of the marriage tie as it affects the children and the morality of society,—all these points are dealt with, and the writer arrives at the conclusion that the remedy (as it is sometimes called) is worse than the disease. In Great Britain, divorce is not so easy, and may not come under the same category, yet it lends itself to fraudulent dissolutions. A peculiar incident is mentioned as having occurred in Paris a long time ago. A man was charged with bigamy, but he pleaded that marriages were such trivial contracts in the light of what was allowed by law that he ought not to be punished, and the judge agreed with him.

THE THEATER OF THE PEOPLE.

M. Pottecher describes in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* the little village of Bussang, in Alsace, which has preserved, in spite of the tourists and others who come to take the waters, its rustic and mountainous character. What makes it so interesting is that it has possessed now for eight years an open-air theater, which is called "The Theater of the People." The natural beauty of the trees and of the fields forms the scenery of this playhouse. The players are none of them professionals; they are amateurs in the same way that the actors in the Passion Play at Oberammergau are amateurs, and they include not only peasants, but some members of professions and others who may be considered to belong to the middle class. No social distinctions, however, disturb the good relations between the players. The eight pieces already played at Bussang include comedy, tragedy, and musical pieces. Last year, a version of "Macbeth" was tried with considerable success.

THE FRENCH CONSERVATORY OF MUSIC.

In the *Revue Musicale* of July 15, Constant Pierre examines the regimen to which budding French artists are subjected in the Conservatoire de Musique. The budget amounts to 256,700 francs, 198,200 of which de-

frays the expenses of administration. The curriculum allows the greatest latitude to the professors. There is this difference between academic instruction in France and elsewhere, that the Conservatoire ranks as a higher institution of learning, and that music is not otherwise represented in such institutions in France, while elsewhere, and especially in Germany, all the conservatories of music are private institutions, and in nearly all the universities there are chairs of harmony, history of music, and liturgy.

THE ORIGIN OF SPECIES.

M. Dastre contributes an interesting, though highly technical, paper to the first July number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the theory of that eminent Dutch savant, Hugo de Vries, regarding the origin of species. It has for some time been recognized as one of the great difficulties in accepting the hypotheses of Darwin that the amount of time demanded by them for the production of new species is so great. It is the opinion of Lord Kelvin, in particular, that the Darwinians have attributed too great an age to our globe. Now comes M. de Vries with a theory of sudden changes in living forms,—a theory which is particularly interesting because it is analogous to the speculations of Suess in geology.

THOMAS HARDY, THE NOVELIST,—A FRENCH CRITICISM.

Very rarely does an English writer obtain the honor of a serious article written by a leading French critic. M. Aynard consecrates the most careful and painstaking paper in the *Revue de Paris* for July to the art of Thomas Hardy. He gives many extracts from the work of the novelist of Wessex, and is at pains to defend him from the accusation of immorality which he declares has been brought against him by English readers; he points out that, on the contrary, the whole tendency of Hardy's work is moral in the extreme, and that he has scarcely written even a short story which does not go to emphasize the ultimate folly of wrongdoing in either great or small matters.

RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS OF DUTCH CIVIL SERVANTS.

An interesting account of the agitation of civil servants in the Netherlands for a legal regulation of their rights and obligations is given in *Vragen des Tijds*; it has been growing for the last four years, since the Amsterdam municipal authorities ordered all their servants to submit to the visit of an examiner when they were ill. They objected to this examining official; they did not like to be treated like schoolboys suspected of playing truant; hence the agitation, which has now assumed large proportions.

POSITIVISM.

In the *Revue Occidentale*, July 1, Constantin Billberg shows that one of the distinctive characteristics of positive philosophy is objective synthesis. M. Grimanelli explains how positivism will put an end to the moral crisis which is destroying us; the various moral forces must not remain in a state of dispersion, but must be associated with one great, unified moral force. J. H. Bridges maintains that Comte recognized the mystery that lurks behind the world of phenomena, but as he could not penetrate it, he deemed it best to direct his activities where they could bear fruit.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHICAL STUDIES.

THE "Life of Leo XIII.," by the Right Rev. Bernard O'Reilly (Philadelphia: John C. Winston & Co.), has been revised and made to cover the last year of the venerable Pontiff's life, and in its present form is a convenient volume for reference, treating, as it does, of many of the most important developments in the ecclesiastical and political history of the last quarter-



MGR. BERNARD O'REILLY.

century. Monsignor O'Reilly, who is recognized as one of the most scholarly writers in the Catholic Church, is known as the biographer of Pope Leo's predecessor, Pius IX., as well as of other standard works of like character. In his biography of Leo is incorporated a memoir furnished by the late Pontiff himself, and the entire work is based upon manuscripts in the Vatican Library, to which Monsignor O'Reilly had unimpeded access for several years. This volume is, therefore, an authentic biography in the fullest sense, and in that sense will not be supplanted even by the authorized life which, it has been announced at Rome, will appear some time in the near future.

A most difficult and delicate task was undertaken by the Rev. John Kelman in preparing a volume on "The Faith of Robert Louis Stevenson" (Revell). Mr. Kelman is recognized in Scotland as the successor of the late Professor Drummond, especially in the gift of success-

ful preaching to students. He is the minister of the Free New North Church of Edinburgh, near the university. Through his magnetic personality he has exercised a remarkable influence upon university students. Believing, as he says, that Stevenson has been more or less misunderstood, and that his religious faith is to be taken seriously, Mr. Kelman has made up this volume very largely from Stevenson's own sayings. He asks his readers to form their own conceptions of Stevenson's faith as set forth in his words. He believes that "Its unconventionality, its freedom from dogmatic expression, and the inseparable weaving of it into the warp and woof of his life's various activities must appeal to many who have found themselves out of sympathy with the external forms of Christianity, though in heart they have remained true to its spirit." Mr. Kelman has certainly made a striking and significant contribution to the rapidly growing literature of Stevenson's character and career.

A little book entitled "Letters to M. G. and H. G.," by John Ruskin (Harpers), illustrates a phase of Ruskin's character that has not been much dwelt upon in biographies. The letters included in this volume were written to the daughters of Mr. Gladstone, and, taken with the extracts from journals which accompany them, reveal the intimate relationship which Ruskin sustained with the various members of the Gladstone family. The serious differences between Gladstone and Ruskin on political and social subjects are lost sight of in the amiable and playful phrasing of these familiar letters.

One day, when the late Frederick W. Holls was calling on Herman Grimm, at his home in Germany, the latter spoke of certain letters of Emerson to him, then lying in the Goethe-Schiller Archives in Weimar, and he expressed a wish for their publication. He wrote credentials by which Mr. Holls might obtain these letters; but when Mr. Holls presented his letters at Weimar, he was shocked by the news that Grimm himself had been found dead in his bed the previous day. It was fortunate, indeed, that Grimm was led to speak to Mr. Holls of the matter at that particular time, and equally fortunate that the Emerson centenary occasioned the publication of the letters in the current year, before Mr. Holls himself had passed away. The letters appear, as translated by Mr. Holls, with a brief introduction, in a tiny volume issued from the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A half-forgotten episode in the life of an American literary woman of the past generation is brought to light in the volume entitled "Love Letters of Margaret Fuller, 1845-1846" (Appleton). Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, who furnishes an introduction to the book, seems to differ with the publishers as to the nature of the letters in question, and considers them "inspired by their fervent friendship." But whatever the nature of the sentiments that dictated the letters, there is much in them that suggests the enthusiasms of the writer, as well as her yearnings for sympathy. The letters were written to James Nathan, who changed his name to Gotendorf,

and at the period of their writing Miss Fuller was a member of Horace Greeley's family, in New York City, doing a daily task on the *Tribune*. In the present volume, the letters are supplemented by editorial notes,



MARGARET FULLER.

and by reminiscences of Emerson, Greeley, and Charles T. Congdon, all of whom were intimate friends and associates of Miss Fuller.

In "Memories of Yale Life and Men" (Dodd, Mead & Co.), ex-President Timothy Dwight has brought together his personal recollections of two generations of Yale teachers and students, infusing the whole with the warmth of his genial

personality. Few living Americans can boast so wide an acquaintance with leaders of American scholarship of the last fifty years, and probably no living graduate of Yale can supply personal details in the lives of Yale men in so great a range. President Dwight entered college in 1845, and from that year to 1899 his connection with the institution was unbroken. In his time he has been associated with so many men of national reputation that his recollections cannot fail to interest even a wider circle than that of Yale's great body of alumni.

Mr. T. Edgar Pemberton, who has written the "Life of Bret Harte" (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is an English playwright and author who was closely associated with Bret Harte in the later years of his life. Mr. Pemberton's acquaintance with his subject did not reach back to the California mining days, and on some accounts the American admirers of Bret Harte will



BRET HARTE.

prefer American biographers. The Englishman cannot understand the frontier conditions under which Bret Harte made his start in literature, but in the present case the deficiency is, to a great extent, atoned for by the numerous extracts from letters and other contemporary documents.

The story of Sir William Johnson is retold in a volume of Appletons' "Historic Lives Series" by Mr. Au-

gustus C. Buell. The dramatic features of Johnson's career have been exploited by historians and novelists to the neglect of the prosaic and practical side of Johnson's achievements. Mr. Buell does well to direct our

attention to Johnson's practical services in the management of Indian tribes, particularly in the French and Indian War and in the Pontiac War. The great mystery of the later years of Sir William's life,—whether he sided with the crown or with the colonies,—remains as much a mystery as ever. Mr. Buell draws no deductions on this subject, but finds that to the day of his death Sir William held aloof from the debates and animosities of both sides, taking no part whatever in the agitation of the patriots.

The forty-two-volume edition of Voltaire's works (Chicago: E. R. DuMont) is supplemented by an alphabetic "Index to His Works, Genius, and Character," with an appreciation of Voltaire by Oliver H. G. Leigh, together with a portrait of the great Frenchman in photogravure.

In the series of "The World's Epoch-Makers," imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, Prof. James Orr, of the United Free Church and Glasgow College, has written a volume on "David Hume and His Influence on Philosophy and Theology."

A FEW VOLUMES OF HISTORY.

The seventh volume of that great work, "The Cambridge Modern History" (Macmillan), the plan of which has already been fully described in these pages, is wholly devoted to the United States. It includes chapters on "The English Colonies in the Revolution," by John E. Doyle; on "The Industrial and Political Growth of the Nation," by Professor McMaster; on "The State Rights Controversy,"

by President Woodrow Wilson; on "The Civil War," by John G. Nicolay; and on "The United States as a World Power, 1885-1902," by Prof. John B. Moore. Other periods and topics in the story of our national development are treated on the monographic plan by distinguished students. The advantages of this plan, from the point of view of the scholar, probably greatly outweigh the disadvantages, and in the absence of any other authoritative one-volume history covering the entire ground it is probable that this volume will long remain the standard history of the United States. The excellent print and paper make the book highly



SIR WILLIAM JOHNSON.



EX-PRESIDENT TIMOTHY DWIGHT.



VOLTAIRE.

desirable as an acquisition to the average American home or school library.

Not satisfied with the late John Codman's account of Arnold's expedition to Canada, Prof. Justin H. Smith has written a five-hundred-page history of "Arnold's March from Cambridge to Quebec" (Putnams). This is a critical study of the whole campaign, and is accompanied by sketch maps and plans, together with an appendix containing Arnold's journal of his expedition. It is significant that so much attention should be paid in these later years to a military achievement which would long ago have received merited recognition at the hands of American historians but for the cloud that overhung the subsequent portion of Arnold's military career.

A book that was published just in the nick of time, considering the interest invoked by the Servian assassination and other developments in the southeast of Europe, is the volume by Mr. William Eleroy Curtis entitled "The Turk and His Lost Provinces" (Revell). Mr. Curtis' work summarizes the history of Greece, Bulgaria, Servia, and Bosnia. As correspondent of the *Chicago Record-Herald*, Mr. Curtis made a journey through the Balkan Peninsula and obtained facts about the several "buffer" states, so called, which he has incorporated in the present volume. Quite apart from his story of the late king and queen of Servia, Mr. Curtis has performed a distinct service in furnishing much timely information about those imperfectly known countries which the great German soldier, von Moltke, predicted would be the theater of universal war.



MR. WILLIAM ELEROY CURTIS.

Another timely publication is Justin McCarthy's "Ireland and Her Story" (Funk & Wagnalls). Even Mr. McCarthy's well-won reputation as a writer of brief histories would hardly prepare one to expect that he could, within the compass of less than two hundred small pages, tell the whole bitter story of Ireland's long-endured wrongs. Yet he has succeeded to a remarkable degree in including in this brief narrative the chief issues that have gone into the making of Irish history. The qualities of style that have contributed so greatly to the popularity of Mr. McCarthy's earlier works are present in this little volume to a marked degree. In clearness and in grace of expression, certainly no contemporary English writer can be said to surpass the author of the "History of Our Own Times."

In the second volume of his "A History of Scotland" (Dodd, Mead & Co.), Mr. Andrew Lang continues the narrative from the death of Cardinal Beaton, in 1546, to the last years of James VI., 1603-24. The element of personal character has a large place in Mr. Lang's work, and in the history of Scotland there is surely no lack of human interest.

In "Stories in Stone from the Roman Forum" (Macmillan), Isabel Lovell endeavors to answer the questions that intelligent travelers as well as historical students frequently ask regarding the center of Roman national life, and to provide this information in a con-

venient and attractive form. Thus, in succession, the Forum itself, the temple of Saturn, the temple of Vesta, the temple of Castor and Pollux, the temple of Concord, Julius Cæsar's Basilica and his temple, and the streets of the Forum are described, and all that is definitely known as to the history of these monumental buildings is clearly set forth.

In "The Library of Literary History" (Scribners), Prof. Edward G. Browne contributes "A Literary History of Persia." In this work, the author has attempted to give what he terms the intellectual history of the Persians rather than the history of the poets and others who expressed their thoughts through the medium of the Persian language. In this volume, therefore, more is said about movements than books, and less about books written in Persian than about those written in Arabic and some other languages.

In "The Territorial Growth of the United States" (New York: Silver, Burdett & Co.), Dr. William A. Mowry treats consecutively the various territorial acquisitions of the United States, from the acquiring of the Northwest Territory to the annexation of the Philippine Islands. In his search for the causes leading to the acquisition of each portion of territory, Dr. Mowry has gone back to original sources, state papers, and official documents. Special attention has been given to the history of the Louisiana Purchase and the acquisition of the Oregon country, topics with which Dr. Mowry is especially familiar. Excellent maps accompany the text.

BOOKS ABOUT ANIMAL LIFE.

"Birds in Their Relations to Men" is the title of a new work in the field of economic ornithology by Prof. Clarence M. Weed and Dr. Ned Dearborn (Lippincott). Some of the chapter headings will give an indication of the topics treated by these writers. For example: "The Methods of Studying the Food of Birds," "The Vegetable Food of Birds," "The Animal Food of Birds," "The Amount of Food Consumed by Birds," "Birds as Regulators of Outbreaks or Injurious Animals," "The Relations of Birds to Predaceous and Parasitic Insects," "The Conservation of Birds," "Preventing the Depredations of Birds," and "Encouraging the Presence of Birds." There are also specific chapters on many of the most common members of the American bird family which are full of suggestions as to the economic value to mankind of the various species treated. The book opens up a new and profitable field of investigation.

The Rev. William J. Long, whose controversy with John Burroughs on the subject of nature-study has occupied considerable space in the magazines for the last six months, is the author of a little volume entitled "Following the Deer" (Boston: Ginn & Co.). In this book, Mr. Long tells in an entertaining way the story of a young lad's experience in following the deer when he had only his eyes and wits to depend on for his knowledge of woodcraft. Mr. Long, it should be remarked, always acts upon the conviction that "an animal's life is vastly more interesting than his death, and that of all the joys of the chase, the least is the mere killing."

Mr. Frank C. Bostock, who has spent his life with wild animals, and who probably knows as well as a mere human can know their ways and their whims, has written an interesting book on "The Training of Wild Animals" (Century Company). The results that Mr.

Bostock has achieved in his chosen calling have all been gained without the infliction of any form of cruelty on the dumb beasts that are chiefly concerned. This fact in itself adds interest to Mr. Bostock's narrative, and makes all the more impressive the stories that he tells of the habits and characteristics of the various animals.

WORKS OF REFERENCE.

Mr. Robert Brent Mosher, of the State Department of Washington, is the compiler and publisher of an "Executive Register of the United States, 1789-1902" (Washington, D. C., P. O. Box 70). In the preparation of this work, Mr. Mosher set out simply to compile a complete list of the heads of executive departments from the beginning of the Government to the present time, since he found that no such list existed even in the departments themselves; but as his work progressed, Mr. Mosher decided to incorporate the constitutional provisions and the acts of Congress governing their election, qualification, and term of office, and the filling of vacancies in the Presidency and the cabinet. Subsequently, he included the electoral and popular vote of each election, the first acts providing for the several executive departments, and, as an appendix, literal copies of the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution, made from the originals in the archives of the Department of State. The volume as completed is a unique and valuable record of the executive departments of the Government. There is nothing like it anywhere in print, and the labor required to procure this information by personal search in the departments would be far too arduous for the average investigator or student to think of undertaking. To students and writers in American history especially, Mr. Mosher has rendered a service of unique value.

For the work of the joint commission which is to sit this month in judgment upon the Alaska boundary dispute, the government of the United States has, it is understood, prepared some remarkably interesting reproductions of old maps and various data which will doubtless in due time be made accessible to the public. Meanwhile, however, our government authorities must have found their work very much aided by an extremely valuable monograph entitled "The Alaska Frontier," prepared by Mr. Thomas Willing Balch, of the Philadelphia bar, in 1902, and now brought out in a new edition (Philadelphia: Allen, Lane & Scott). Mr. Balch's book is illustrated by the reproduction of various charts and maps, and its citations of authorities seem to be well-nigh exhaustive. This study of the subject shows that the long-received interpretation of the treaty of 1825 is correct beyond all possible doubt, and that the recent Canadian pretenses are fanciful afterthoughts.

"The International Year Book, 1902" (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is one of the best volumes in the series of these ad-

mirable publications. Of the special topics covered in this number, one of the most interesting is the anthracite coal strike, while the articles on "Strikes," the "Shipping Merger," and "Socialism" all have current interest. In timely maps and illustrations, this volume will be found superior to those that have preceded it.

"The Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs, 1902," by J. Castell Hopkins (Toronto: William Briggs), combines with a record of important events in politics and Parliament many statements and tabulated statistics of trade, commerce, industry, and finance. Canadian trade relations with the British Empire as well as with the United States, now much discussed in connection with the proposed British "zollverein," are set forth in this volume with great fullness. Another feature of the work which will interest American readers in general is the attention devoted to the progress of agriculture, and especially of grain-production in the Northwest provinces, where there are so many prosperous American farmers who have emigrated within the past two or three years.

The eleventh volume of "The New International Encyclopædia" (Dodd, Mead & Co.) exemplifies many of the recognized principles of encyclopædia-making. It is well supplied with maps and portraits. Special articles seem to have been carefully prepared and brought well down to date. This is especially true of the articles on the "Locomotive," on "Light," on "Libraries," and on "Martinique." Of the biographical sketches in this volume, those on Abraham Lincoln and Robert E. Lee are, perhaps, the most noteworthy.

Volume IV. of "The Jewish Encyclopedia" (Funk & Wagnalls) is chiefly remarkable, perhaps, for its article on the Dreyfus case, written by a French publicist residing in Paris. This article occupies nearly thirty pages of the encyclopædia, and comprises an exhaustive review of the whole case.

Another abridgment of the Standard Dictionary (Funk & Wagnalls) has been issued, under the title of "The Concise Standard Dictionary." It gives the orthography, pronunciation, and meaning of about 28,000 words and phrases, contains 500 pictorial illustrations, and in an appendix treats the most important prefixes and suffixes, besides giving a set of simple rules for spellings, a list of proper names,—historical and geographical,—foreign words and phrases current in literature, with their English meanings, tables of weights and measures, tables of current coinage, symbolic flowers and gems with characteristic sentiments, and an explanatory list of common abbreviations. The editor states that the basis of selection of words has been the inclusion of all words that are sure to be used by the average person in his speaking and writing, with the addition of such words and phrases as are sure to be found in the books, papers, and magazines which are most likely to be read.



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- Currency, A credit, C. N. Fowler, BankNY.
- Danish West India, Notes on the, A. G. Keller, Annals.
- Declaration of Independence, Defense of the, S. C. Parks, Arena.
- Declaration of Independence, Signing of the, E. C. Moses, AMonM.
- Deer parks, English, Edin, July.
- Delbrück, Rudolf, Reminiscences of, DeutR, July.
- Denmark, Spoilation of, R. Blennerhassett, NatR.
- Domestic servants, A newly formed union among, Marian West, Ev.
- Dogmatism, Perils of unauthorized, C. M. Westcott, Cath.
- Doyle, Arthur Conan, J. E. H. Williams, Bkman.
- Doyle, Arthur Conan; a day at his home, D. A. Willey, NatM.
- Dramatic Art, The, Mme. Réjane, NatR.
- Dramatic criticism, K. West, Era, July.
- Dramatic schools, D. Belasco, Cos.
- Dry-docks, floating, Development in, J. J. Shultz, Eng.
- Duellist, A seventeenth-century, Eveline C. Godley, Long.
- Eastern waters, A year's cruising in, Count de Marsay, July 15 and August 1.
- Education:
- Business colleges; why they succeed, P. D. McIntosh, Can.
- Cultivated man, New definition of the, C. W. Elliot, WW.
- Dependent, delinquent, and truant children in Illinois, Schools for, T. H. MacQueary, AJS, July.
- Educational progress of the year, W. DeW. Hyde, WW.
- Farmer children need farmer studies, C. H. Poe, WW.
- Grading pupils, Successful revolution in, W. J. Shearer, WW.
- Negro, Successful training of the, B. T. Washington, WW.
- Physical start in education, Right, M. V. O'Shea, WW.
- School out of doors, R. Blathwayt, Cass.
- School-houses and beauty, I. Remsen, Out.
- University education, Modern, R. Jebb, Mac.
- Vacation school; its history and aim, Frances G. Ford, SocS.
- West, middle, Democratic education of the, F. J. Turner, WW.
- Woman, Educated, of to-morrow, Heloise E. Hersey, Out.
- Women, Education of, J. M. Taylor, WW.
- Edward VII., King, Reminiscences of, Hélène Vacaresco, Str.
- Egyptian excavations of the University of California, J. L. Dobbins, Over.
- Electric power from Mount Rainier, AMRR.
- Electric power in the mines of Europe, E. Guarini, Eng.
- Electric railways, Storage batteries on, H. S. Knowlton, Eng.
- Emerson, Ralph Waldo; poet or philosopher? Lillienne A. Hornor, Mind.
- Emerson, Ralph Waldo; what bearing upon his poems have their titles? PL, April-June.
- Energy, Natural sources of, L. Bell, CusM.
- England, Coaching in, Margaret W. Higginson, Out.
- England; see Great Britain.
- English speech, Foreign words in, B. Matthews, Harp.
- Equipage of the millionaire, F. S. Arnett, Mun.
- Evangelical Social Congress in Germany, M. Maurenbrecher, AJS, July.
- Factory children of Georgia, Leonora B. Ellis, Era, July.
- Fair, The county, N. Lloyd, Scrib.
- Farm machinery, The revolution by, W. B. Thornton, WW.
- Fiction, The boy in, Julia R. Tutwiler, Gunt.
- Fiction, The young man in, G. K. Chesterton, Crit; YM.
- Fielding, William Stevens, H. F. Gadsby, Can.
- Fillbustering, Strenuous art of, R. D. Paine, O.
- Finland, Russia's policy in, W. T. Stead, RRL.
- Fishermen of Gloucester, V. J. Slocum, O.
- Flags, Historic, R. I. Geare, NewE.
- Flaubert, Gustave, F. T. Marzials, Crit.
- Flowers, Northern gamopetalous, J. H. Lovell, A Nat, June.
- Fly-fishing in New Zealand, G. Gathorne-Hardy, Bad.
- Forest reservation, Aggressive, J. P. Kimball, NAR.
- Forestry, British, Improvement of, J. Nisbet, QR, July.
- Forestry, What women have done for, Mary E. Mumford, Chaut.
- Fox terrier, The, J. Watson, CLA.
- France:
- Birthrate, Decrease of the, C. P. de Thozée, RGen.
- Church and State, Separation of, H. Valleroux, Refs, July 16.
- Colonial policy of France, J. Chailley-Bert, Fort.
- Communes, Some French, in the light of their charters, E. W. Dow, AHR, July.
- Dreyfus affair, J. Jaures, RSoc, July.
- Family and French expansion, M. Le M. de Vilars, Refs, July 1.
- Feast day in old St. Cloud, R. Shackleton, Gunt.
- France under Thiers, 1871-1873, Edin, July.
- French Revolution, New light on the, P. F. Willert, QR, July.
- Jaures, the present leader of socialism, O. Guerlac, AMRR.
- Nationalist party, G. Syveton, NatR.
- Religious congregations, French expansion and, A. Leroy-Beaulieu, Refs, July 1.
- Religious situation, Present, P. Topinard, OC.
- French language in the year 2003, L. Bollack, Revue, July 15.
- Fries rebellion, W. W. H. Davis, Era.
- Friesland meres, On—II., G. N. Bankes, Bad.
- Froude, The real, R. McNeill, Contem.
- Fuel, Liquid, for power purposes, A. L. Williston, Eng.
- Fuller, Margaret, The real, Annie N. Meyer, Bkman.
- Future life, Science and, A. B. O. Flower, Arena.
- Gael, Sagas and songs of the, QR, July.
- Garibaldi's Englishman, Frances M. Peard, Corn.
- Gas, Natural, in England, I. Watts, CasM.
- Gassiot bequest to the city of London, A. G. Temple, MA.
- Game-park, An English, J. M. Gleeson, and C. R. Knight, Cent.
- Garden, How to make a: Water-lilies and other aquatic plants, W. Tricker, CLA.
- Geneva, Lake of, Literary geography of—II., W. Sharp, PM.
- Gen-nu-de-wah, Legend of, J. M. Clarke, NewE.
- Germany:
- Catholic Germany, 1800-1848, G. Goyau, RDM, July 15.
- Colonial policy from the French point of view, M. von Brandt, DeutR.
- Fiscal policy of Germany, O. Eltzbacher, NineC.
- German elections, N. Gilsde, NatR; W. von Schierbrand, NAR; RPar, July 1; E. Buisson, RSoc, July.
- German elections and the Socialist party, W. von Schierbrand, AMRR.
- Germany and Pan-Germany, Contem.
- Goats, Angora, as a source of profit, a Symposium, CLA.
- Gods, heroes, dwarfs and giants—II., A. Roeder, Mind.
- Gorky, Maxim, J. Burns, West.
- Great Britain:
- Army, Plea for an imperial, P. A. Silburn, USM.
- Australia, Suggestions for a commercial treaty with, A. Grainger, NineC.
- Chamberlain, Joseph, Fiscal policy of, L. Courtney, Contem; L. Brentano, Fort; MonR; G. Peel, NatR; QR, July.
- Cobdenism and the colonies, Fort.
- Cobdenism, Revolt against, H. W. Wilson, NatR.
- Colonies and imperial defense, A. J. A. Pollock, Mac.
- Education, English, Story of—II., J. E. G. de Montmorency, PopS.
- Fiscal policies in 1903, Black.
- Free trade and home, E. Dicey, Fort.
- Free trade and protection from the workman's point of view, M. M. Barrie, NineC.
- Free traders at bay, E. E. Williams, NatR.
- Government's newspaper, A. Hill, Str.
- Headmasters and efficiency of schools, West.
- Imperialists of yesterday and to-morrow, Can.
- Irish avatar, W. J. Corbet, West.
- Irish land bill and home rule, W. Sweetman, West.
- Labor, Federated, as a new factor in British politics, J. K. Hardie, NAR.
- Latter-day British empire, P. Leroy-Beaulieu, RDM, July 15.
- Navy and the nation, G. S. Clarke, RRM, June.
- Navy needed by England, A. S. Hull, Fort.
- Prophet, The false, A. Allan, West.
- Protection, Back to, Edin, July.
- Protection or free trade? P. F. Rowland, Mac.
- Trade and tariffs, Imperial, H. Bell, MonR.
- Unionist free traders, Position of, H. Hobhouse, MonR.
- Workingman, Plight of the, F. Fayant, AMRR.
- Zollverein, Proposed, J. E. Gorst, A. R. Colquhoun, and H. L. Nelson, NAR.
- Greece, The Romans in, W. Miller, West.
- Guggenheim, Meyer, and his seven sons, E. Lefèvre, Cos.
- Gunfire, the fleet-footed queen of the turf, C. E. Trevathan, Ev.
- Hardy, Thomas, J. Aynard, RPar, July 1.
- Hauptmann, Gerhart, The place of, Edin, July.
- Health authorities, State and national, W. Wyman, San.

- Heaters, Feed-water, W. W. Christie, CasM.
 Henley, William Ernest, V. Blackburn, Fort.
 Hervieu, Paul, Dramas of, J. P. White, PL, April-June.
 Hewlett, Maurice, as a poet, M. Bronner, Crit.
 Hewlett, Maurice, Style of, A. E. Hancock, Era, July.
 Hexateuch, Father de Hummelauer and the, J. A. Howlett, Dub, July.
 Historical sciences, Second international congress of, R. Altamira, EM, July.
 History of mankind, G. P. Gooch, QR, July.
 Hoaxes, Famous, W. S. Bridgman, Mun.
 Holy Land, First Italian national pilgrimage to the, L. Guerrieri, RasN, July 16.
 Hop-picking in the Pleasanton Valley, O. Willi, OutW.
 Housekeeping in America, Annie G. Porritt, LeisH.
 Hudson River, Water-power development on the, T. C. Martin, AMRR.
 Hunley, The heroes of the, W. A. Alexander, Mun.
 Hunting in North Queensland, C. Ingram, Bad.
 Idealism in America, M. Wilhelm, DeutR.
 Illinois, Modern muses of, P. Bigelow, NatM.
 Indian dance, Passing of the, W. E. Rollins, Over.
 Indians: Fourth of July at Klamath Reservation, Julia F. A. Frather, Over.
 Indians, Quaker, Bullying the—III., C. F. Lummis, OutW.
 Indians, Warner Ranch, F. D. Lewis, Over.
 Industrial efficiency, Promotion of—III., J. B. C. Kershaw, Eng.
 Industrialism, The new, Mary R. Cranston, Chaut.
 Industries of the United States, O. P. Austin, Nat GM.
 Insects; midsummer musicians, L. W. Brownell, O.
 Ireland, Social revolution in, Edin, July.
 Ireland, The coming, J. McCarthy, Fort.
 Ireland, Western, for the tourist, T. Hopkins, Cass.
 Isis and Osiris, Mysteries of—III., H. R. Evans, OC.
 Italian military expenditure, L. Cordano, RasN, July 16.
 Italy, Economic relations of the United States with, L. Luzzatti, NAR.
 Italy, Nomadic musicians of, Paulucci di Calboli, Revue, July 15.
 Japan, National exposition in, W. E. Griffiths, Out.
 Japan, War of the United States with one gun against, in 1864, W. E. Griffiths, NewE.
 Japan's Asiatic relations, O. Franke, DeutR.
 Japan's position in the far East, A. Stead, Fort.
 Japanese civil code regarding the law of the family, R. Masujima, ALR.
 Jaurès, Jean, the present leader of French socialism, O. Guerlac, AMRR.
 Java, Conquest of, R. G. Burton, USM.
 Jefferson, Thomas, Observance of the birthday of, Kate A. Tuttle, A MonM.
 Jesus, Beatitudes of, Bib.
 Jeremiah, A study of, A. R. Gordon, Bib.
 Jewish courts, Criminal procedure in, J. H. Greenstone, GBag.
 Jewish question, A. White, NatR.
 Jews in Palestine, Occupations of the, E. W. G. Masterman, Bib.
 Jowett, Benjamin—some recollections, Cornelia Sorabji, NineC.
 Judicature, federal, Century of—VII., Van V. Veeder, GBag, July.
 Jurisprudence, American, Quarter century in, F. N. Judson, ALR.
 Jury system: Can it be improved? T. Jenks, Mun.
 Jury, The early Norman, C. H. Haskins, AHR, July.
 Kineo, Mount, H. Packard, NewE.
 Klondike, Romance of the, S. E. Moffett, Cos.
 Kneipp, Father, and his cure, Maud Howe, Lipp.
 Kyoto, the ancient capital of Japan, D. Sladen, LeisH.
 Kyrle, John: A good citizen, Mary E. Mitchell, NewE.
 Labor court of appeals, A permanent, Gunt.
 Labor: Factory children of Georgia, Leonora B. Ellis, Era, July.
 Labor movement, Present status of the American, J. R. Commons, AMRR.
 Labor: Plight of the English worker, F. Fayant, AMRR.
 Labor: The building trades and the unions, W. E. Walling, WW.
 Labor: The union versus the open shop, Gunt.
 Lamartine and the right of work, H. de Jouvenel, Nou, July 15.
 Lamb, Charles and Mary, W. Archer, Crit.
 Lapland railway, C. Rabot, RPar, July 15.
 Latin America and the Mexican Conference, W. I. Buchanan, Annals, July.
 Latin America, Some of the causes of conflict between Europe and, G. W. Scott, Annals, July.
 Latin-American countries, Relation of the, with each other: A symposium, Annals, July.
 Law and human progress, W. Clark, ALR.
 Lawn tennis, A. S. Pier, Atlan.
 Lawn tennis comparisons, International, J. P. Paret, O.
 Lawn tennis, How to improve your game of, Pear.
 Leepinasse, Mademoiselle de, Edin, July; Camilla Jebb, NineC.
 Levant, Retrogression of the, Cham.
 Lhassa, the forbidden city, J. Deniker, Cent.
 Liberty of the individual, G. Picot, RDM, July 15.
 Libraries and art education, Katharine L. Smith, Mun.
 Library, public, Educational force of a, Mary E. Ahern, Chaut.
 Literature, A year of Continental, Dial, August 1.
 Lobby, The great American, FrL.
 London and its people in the eighteenth century, Edin, July.
 London clubs, Leading, H. Wyndham, LeisH.
 London: Cosmopolitan Club, A. West, Corn.
 London, Religion in, J. S. Lidgett, LQ, July.
 London: The women of Downing Street, A. Mee, YW.
 Louis XVIII. in exile, A. de Maricourt, RPar, July 15.
 Louisville summer playgrounds, M. Eleanor Tarrant, Chaut.
 Madagascar, In the south of, J. Charles-Roux, RDM, August 1.
 Mango, Introduction of the, NatGM.
 Mankind in the making—IX., H. G. Wells, Cos; Fort.
 Marine auxiliary machinery—II., J. E. Cooper, CasM.
 Marriage, Restraints on, W. C. Sullivan, GBag, July.
 Marriage with deceased wife's sister, W. Lisle, West.
 Matter, Modern views on, O. Lodge, PopS.
 Meat, Production of, J. P. Grabfield, Cos.
 Medical officer of the United States navy, G. T. McMaster, San.
 Medicine and colonization, C. Roux, RefS, July 16.
 Memphis priest, Philosophy of a, J. H. Breasted, OC.
 Methodism, Dr. Loofs' appreciation of, J. G. Tasker, LQ, July.
 Mexico's progress and prosperity, J. J. Davies, BankNY, July.
 Meyer, Conrad Ferdinand, Betsy Meyer, DeutR.
 Middlesex County, Massachusetts, Turnpike roads of, F. H. Kendall, NewE.
 Militia act of 1903, J. Parker, NAR.
 Milkshop, A municipal, W. Robertson, San.
 Mirabeau, The youth of, F. M. Fling, AHR, July; R. Doumic, RDM, August 1.
 Missions:
 Apologetic, The best, G. Jackson, MisR.
 Armenia, Peasant of, and his inheritance, H. M. Allen, MisH.
 Central Africa, Missionary problems in, DeW. C. Snyder, MisR.
 Evangelization, Missionaries' part in, MisH.
 France, Preaching the gospel in, L. D. de S. André, MisR.
 India, A revival in, J. McLaurin, MisR.
 Japan, Missionary work in, D. Scudder, MisH.
 McAll Mission in France, Mrs. Louise S. Houghton, MisR.
 Mexico, Missionary work in, L. B. Salmans, MisR.
 Missionary plans, Two eighteenth century, B. C. Steiner, SR, July.
 Missionary training in the home, Belle M. Brain, MisR.
 Moslems, Difficulties in educating, MisR.
 Murray, Andrew, and "The key to the missionary problem," A. T. Pierson, MisR.
 South Africa, A remarkable crisis in, L. Hofmeyr, MisR.
 South Africa, Two missionary institutions in, E. E. Strong, MisH.
 Syria, A word from, H. H. Jessup, MisR.
 Missouri and St. Louis, Corrupt lobbies in, FrL.
 Mistral, Frédéric, H. Morf, DeutR, July.
 Möller, Lars, an Eskimo journalist, A. E. Gibson, Arena.
 Money, Simmel's philosophy of, S. P. Altmann, AJS, July.
 Monroe Doctrine, Some phases of the, F. B. Loomis, Annals, July.
 Moon, Photographing the, G. W. Ritchey, Harm.
 Moravians and their festival, E. H. Abbott, Out.
 Morocco, Coast towns of, H. Ince, AJ.
 Mosquito, Sociological aspects of the war against the, C. B. Davenport, Chaut.
 Mothers', Little, training school, Anna M. Reed, Over.
 Motors, American launch, W. P. Stephens, CasM.
 Municipal art movement, American, W. T. Larned, Chaut.
 Municipal betterment movement, Philosophy of the, O. L. Triggs, Chaut.
 Music, Our public education in, L. C. Elson, Atlan.
 National Guard, our second line, J. J. Esh, NAR.
 Nature, Tyrant, S. S. Maxwell, Harp.
 Navy, The new American; gallant deeds in the war with Spain, J. D. Long, Out.
 Negro, Successful training of the, B. T. Washington, WW, New York City.
 Children's school farm, Fannie G. Parsons, SocS.
 Legal Aid Society, Work of the, W. Catchings, GBag, July.
 Literary landmarks of New York—XI., C. Hemstreet, Crit.
 Milk, Campaign for pure, Alice K. Fallows, Cent.
 Policy-gambling, Work of the society for the suppression of, F. Moss, Cos.
 New Zealand, Women's votes in, M. Dumoret, Nou, July 1.
 North, Lord, the prime minister—II., Lord North, NAR.
 North Pole, Nearest to the, W. Rice, Dial, July 16.
 Oath, The passing of the, B. P. Moore, ALR.
 Old Testament, Archaeology and the, G. S. Duncan, Bib.
 Old, Why one grows—II., H. de Varigny, BU.

- Onion, Romance of the, W. C. Russell, Era.
 Orpheus, P. Carus, OC.
 Pacific coast, Early English voyages to the—VIII., OutW.
 Panama Canal, Building of the, N. O. Messenger, Pear.
 Papacy never dies, Cath.
 Paris, How a rich man may live in, M. Guillemot, Arch.
 Park system of New Jersey, A. Church, Chaut.
 Paul and the Roman law, F. M. Burdick, Hom.
 Pauline doctrine of sin and redemption, S. McComb, LQ, July.
 Peace, Present Outlook for, S. F. Scovel, Hom.
 Personality, Survival of, O. Lodge, QR, July.
 Peru: her position in South American affairs, M. A. Calderon, Annals, July.
 Phelps, Austin, of Andover, J. E. Rankin, Hom.
 Philippines, Affairs in the, A. S. Riggs, Atlan.
 Philippines, Military engineering and civil opportunities in the, W. W. Harts, Eng.
 Philo, Judeus, W. B. Pitkin, Hart.
 Photography:
 Clouds, Photographing of, J. H. McFarland, CLA.
 Diffusion as against sharpness and fuzziness, F. Radford, PhoT, July.
 Exhibition pictures—II., C. E. Fairman, CDR.
 Exposure, Determining the, C. Jones, CDR.
 Eyes in portraiture, S. C. Johnson, PhoT, July.
 Fading of bromide enlargements, W. E. Wood, WPM, July.
 Gaslight papers, M. Toch, PhoT, July.
 Mirror, Use of a, J. Epps, WPM, July.
 Moon, Photographing the, G. W. Ritchey, Harp.
 Negative-making, Hot weather troubles of, A. J. Jarman, CDR.
 Negatives, Control of color in, W. E. A. Drinkwater, WPM, July.
 Prints, large, cheaply made, E. W. Newcomb, CDR.
 Ripples, invisible, Photographing, H. C. Fyfe, Pear.
 Stains and scratches, F. Voltier, CDR.
 Underexposure, WPM, July.
 Wilson, Edward L., J. A. Tennant, WPM, July.
 Physician, Training of a, D. S. Jordan, PopS.
 Piece-work system, A. remodeled, J. H. Van York, Jr., Eng.
 Pike, pickerel, and muskellunge, Can.
 Pinjhi Rhino, G. Maxwell, Black.
 Pinkney, William, J. P. Hill, GBag, July.
 Pitt, Tomline's estimate of, Earl of Rosebery, MonR.
 Plains, The peopling of the, R. W. McAdam, Over.
 Play, An old English, in California, R. M. Alden, OutW.
 Play, The clerk and the, R. de Cordova, Cass.
 Poetry, Japanese, Elizabeth Balch, PL, April-June.
 Pope Leo XIII., W. T. Stead, AMRR; A. P. Doyle, Cath; E. Elbano, Contem; W. Ward, Fort; D. Story, Mun; D. Zanichelli, NA, August 1; QR, July; A. Conti, RasN, August 1; Mgr. de T'Serclaes, RGen; RDM, August 1; H. D. Sedgwick, Jr., WW.
 Pope Leo XIII., A portrait of, Out.
 Pope Leo XIII. and his pontificate, T. Lamy, RGen.
 Pope Leo XIII., Passing of, A. I. du P. Coleman, Crit.
 Pope Leo XIII., Successor of, F. M. Crawford, Ev.
 Pope? Who will be the next, Maud Howe, Out.
 Pope's life in the Vatican, R. Simboli, Crit.
 Poultry culture for profit, C. G. Brainard, CLA.
 Power-development in South California, L. R. Freeman, AMRR.
 Prayer in the Orient, J. T. Gracey, Hom.
 Prayer, Public, E. J. Wolf, Hom.
 Prayers, new and old, L. Johnston, Cath.
 Preacher, Greatest, of the nineteenth century, G. L. White, Hom.
 Preachers, Hints to, by Gregory the Great, C. Geikie, Hom.
 Pre-historic rock paintings, N. H. Chittenden, Over.
 Press gallery at the national capitol, C. Marriott, Era.
 Prometheus drama, A modern, J. L. Borgerhoff, SR, July.
 Psalm 22, A. Hovey, Bib.
 Quebec, Siege of, Edin, July.
 Racing in Paris, Art of, V. Thompson, O.
 Racing world, Backers and backing in the, Bad.
 Radium, PhoT, July.
 Railroad as a profession, W. J. Willgus, Cos.
 Reade, Charles, Novels of, W. F. Lord, NineC.
 Reading out of doors, E. Thomas, Atlan.
 Reformatory institutions in Illinois, T. H. MacQueary, AJS, July.
 Religion and the poor, H. H. Henson, QR, July.
 Religion, Credibility of, and popular infidelity, J. Orr, LQ.
 Rila, Jacob A., L. Steffens, McCl.
 Roman Catholic Church, Eastern churches in communion with the, L. O'Rourke, Cath.
 Roosevelt, President Theodore, and Mayor Tom L. Johnson as typical representatives of opposing political ideals, J. D. Miller, Arena.
 Rumbold, Sir Horace, Recollections of, NatR.
 Rupert, the captive of Linz, Dora G. McChesney, Corn.
 Rural improvement, Progress of, A. C. True, Chaut.
 Ruskin, John, Glimpses of, R. W. Rees, LQ, July.
 Russia:
 Army organization, USM.
 East, Shadow of Russia in the far, Gunt.
 Finland, Russia's policy in, W. T. Stead, RRL.
 Fleet, Russia's, A. S. Hurd, NAR.
 Kishineff—and after, A. White, NatR.
 Kishineff massacre; its causes and effects, A. Rovinsky, Arena.
 Kishineff "pogrom," Arena.
 Russia, Manchuria and Mongolia, A. Ular, Contem.
 Sabbath: Saturday or Sunday, which? D. S. Gregory, Hom.
 Sailing, Small boat, A. J. Kenaley, O.
 St. Eustatius in the American Revolution, J. F. Jameson, AHR, July.
 St. Louis, For a more beautiful, L. E. Van Norman, Chaut.
 Sanitary schools, Need of, Ellen Richards, Out.
 Santo Domingo question, J. Becker, EM, July.
 Sapphire-fields of central Queensland, Cham.
 Scott, Sir Walter, Later years of—II., Cent.
 Sea, Why life is safer at, than ashore, W. Marvin, NatM.
 Sellers, Coleman, H. Morton, CasM.
 Servant problem, Priscilla E. Moulder, West.
 Servia, New King of, G. Cirilli, Nou, July 15.
 Servian story, How the Society for Psychical Research investigated the, RRL.
 Shakespeare in modern settings, F. C. Drake, Cos.
 Shakespeare's "Winter's Tale," A study of, Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke, PL, April-June.
 Shoot, Teaching soldiers how to, C. T. Boyd, WW.
 Sicily, To the sulphur mines of, J. Baker, LeisH.
 Siene, QR, July.
 Sims, Prof. Edward Dromgoole, A. A. Kern, SR, July.
 Singing, Lost art of—II., M. A. R. Tucker, NineC.
 Sioux, A side light on the, D. Robinson, McCl.
 Slavery controversy in America, W. H. Johnson, Dial, July 18.
 Social change, Influence of the form of, I. King, AJS, July.
 Social service, Italian institute of, V. Racca, SocS.
 Socialism, State, A. Mater, RSoc, July.
 Socialism, The church and, A. Mater, RSoc, July.
 Society and the occult sciences—II., V. du Bled, RGen.
 Sociology and Homer, A. G. Keller, AJS, July.
 Sociology, Introduction to—IV., G. De Greef, AJS, July.
 Sociology, Moot points in—II., E. A. Ross, AJS, July.
 South Africa a year after the signature of peace, A. Hawkes, RRL.
 South Africa, Native question and irrigation in, C. U. Wilson, Fort.
 South African War, A French view of the, USM.
 South America, Ethnic factors in, T. Williams, Annals, July.
 South America, European trade relations with, W. H. Schoff, Annals, July.
 South American newspaper,—El Mercurio, Marie R. Wright, Era.
 South American trade, Causes of our failure to develop, F. Emory, Annals, July.
 Southern literature, National element in, J. B. Henneman, SR, July.
 Spanish War Veterans, J. W. Mitchell, Mun.
 Spiritualism, Modern, T. Crockett, Dub, July.
 Sporophyte, Origin of the, B. M. Davis, ANat, June.
 Sport, Famous homes of—III., Broomhead, A. Acland-Hood, Bad.
 Springs and fountains, Jessie M. Good, Chaut.
 Stage, "Atmosphere" on the, D. Belasco, FRL.
 Steele, Charles, C. F. Speare, Cos.
 Studland, A. Tomson, AJ.
 Subjectivism and Solipsism, G. Cator, Dub, July.
 Submarine, The, QR, July.
 Suburban place of four acres, A. Sara C. Bryant, CLA.
 Suffrage and representation, Gunt.
 Sugar in physiology, Question of, A. Dastre, RDM, August 1.
 Sugar-beet culture in the United States, H. C. Taylor, Annals, July.
 Sunday school, Curriculum of study in the, S. Mathews, Bib.
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Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index.

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

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| ACQR. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila. | EM. España Moderna, Madrid. | NineC. Nineteenth Century, London. |
| AHR. American Historical Review, N. Y. | Ev. Everybody's Magazine, N. Y. | NAR. North American Review, N.Y. |
| AJS. American Journal of Sociology, Chicago. | Fort. Fortnightly Review, London. | Nou. Nouvelle Revue, Paris. |
| AJT. American Journal of Theology, Chicago. | Forum. Forum, N. Y. | NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome. |
| ALR. American Law Review, St. Louis. | FrL. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y. | OC. Open Court, Chicago. |
| AMonM. American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C. | Gent. Gentleman's Magazine, London. | O. Outing, N. Y. |
| AMRR. American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y. | GBag. Green Bag, Boston. | Out. Outlook, N. Y. |
| ANat. American Naturalist, Boston. | Gunt. Gunton's Magazine, N. Y. | OutW. Out West, Los Angeles, Cal. |
| Annals. Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila. | Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y. | Over. Overland Monthly, San Francisco. |
| Arch. Architectural Record, N. Y. | Hart. Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn. | PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London. |
| Arena. Arena, N. Y. | Hom. Homiletic Review, N. Y. | Pear. Pearson's Magazine, N. Y. |
| AJ. Art Journal, London. | IJE. International Journal of Ethics, Phila. | Phil. Philosophical Review, N. Y. |
| Atlan. Atlantic Monthly, Boston. | Int. International Quarterly, Burlington, Vt. | PhoT. Photographic Times-Bulletin, N. Y. |
| Bad. Badminton, London. | IntS. International Studio, N. Y. | PL. Poet-Lore, Boston. |
| BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London. | JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H. | PSQ. Political Science Quarterly, Boston. |
| BankNY. Bankers' Magazine, N. Y. | JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago. | PopA. Popular Astronomy, Northfield, Minn. |
| Bib. Biblical World, Chicago. | Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago. | PopS. Popular Science Monthly, N. Y. |
| BibS. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O. | KindR. Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass. | PTR. Princeton Theological Review, Phila. |
| BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne. | LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila. | QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston. |
| Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh. | Lamp. Lamp, N. Y. | QR. Quarterly Review, London. |
| BL. Book-Lover, N. Y. | LeisH. Leisure Hour, London. | RasN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence. |
| Bkman. Bookman, N. Y. | Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila. | Refs. Réforme Sociale, Paris. |
| BP. Brush and Pencil, Chicago. | LQ. London Quarterly Review, London. | RRM. Review of Reviews, London. |
| CDR. Camera and Dark Room, N. Y. | Long. Longman's Magazine, London. | Revue. Revue, Paris. |
| Can. Canadian Magazine, Toronto. | Luth. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa. | RDM. Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris. |
| Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London. | McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y. | RGen. Revue Générale, Brussels. |
| CasM. Cassell's Magazine, N. Y. | Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, London. | RPar. Revue de Paris, Paris. |
| Cath. Catholic World, N. Y. | MA. Magazine of Art, London. | RPP. Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris. |
| Cent. Century Magazine, N. Y. | Meth. Methodist Quarterly Review, Nashville. | RSoc. Revue Socialistic, Paris. |
| Cham. Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh. | MethR. Methodist Review, N. Y. | Ros. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio. |
| Chaut. Chautauquan, Springfield, O. | Mind. Mind, N. Y. | San. Sanitarian, N. Y. |
| Contem. Contemporary Review, London. | MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston. | School. School Review, Chicago. |
| Corn. Cornhill, London. | MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y. | Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y. |
| Cos. Cosmopolitan, N. Y. | Mon. Monist, Chicago. | SR. Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn. |
| CLA. Country Life in America, N.Y. | MonR. Monthly Review, London. | SocS. Social Service, N. Y. |
| Crafts. Craftsman, Syracuse, N. Y. | MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y. | Str. Strand Magazine, London. |
| Crit. Critic, N. Y. | Mun. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y. | Temp. Temple Bar, London. |
| Deut. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart. | NatGM. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C. | USM. United Service Magazine, London. |
| DeutR. Deutsche Rundschau, Berlin. | NatM. National Magazine, Boston. | West. Westminster Review, London. |
| Dial. Dial, Chicago. | NatR. National Review, London. | WPM. Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y. |
| Dub. Dublin Review, Dublin. | NC. New-Church Review, Boston. | WW. World's Work, N. Y. |
| Edin. Edinburgh Review, London. | NewE. New England Magazine, Boston. | Yale. Yale Review, New Haven. |
| Ed. Education, Boston. | | YM. Young Man, London. |
| EdR. Educational Review, N. Y. | | YW. Young Woman, London. |
| Eng. Engineering Magazine, N. Y. | | |
| Era. Era, Philadelphia. | | |

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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THE RIGHT HON. JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN.

(Who withdrew from the British cabinet last month, after eight years' service as colonial minister, and is waging a campaign for a British imperial protectionist policy.)

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Review of Reviews.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Our Prosperous Neighbors. All wise and discerning citizens of the United States should take pleasure in knowing that neighboring countries are sharing in the general prosperity of which our land is the chief center. From Canada on the north and from Mexico on the south come many indications of industrial, commercial, and agricultural progress. Our latest *protégé*, the republic of Cuba, is evidently entering upon a similar course of material advancement. The prosperity of the United States is due, in the first place, to the character of the people and the nature of their institutions. It is due in a lesser measure to a public policy that has promoted the symmetrical development of all the country's resources, so that the farmer, on the one hand, and the manufacturer, on the other, find the home market always an ample and profitable one, with the foreign market by comparison a small and incidental affair. The tremendous prosperity of the United States,—as shown in a material development surpassing anything ever known elsewhere,—could hardly fail to have a stimulating effect upon the business life of other countries near enough to belong more or less completely to what may be called our economic or trade zone. Canada and Mexico furnish the foremost illustrations.

Canada as Part of Our "Trade Zone." Canada's growth and present economic condition can only be explained in the light of the Dominion's proximity to the United States. So strong is the natural trade affinity of the two halves of the North American continent, that all efforts to obstruct commerce and create new and artificial trade channels—by the building of tariff walls and by various other legal regulations—have only been successful enough to show that such measures belong to the short-sighted and transient methods of politicians rather than to the programmes of statesmen of wide vision who prefer to work in harmony with nature and destiny

rather than against the inevitable trend of things. Thus, in spite of our steep and stern tariff barriers, and in spite of the Canadian policy which discriminates to such a marked extent in favor of English goods, the traffic between these two naturally related countries increases by leaps and bounds. Figures published by the Bureau of Statistics of our new Department of Commerce and Labor at Washington, last month, show that in the ten years, from 1893 to 1903, the annual exports of the United States to Canada had increased from \$46,794,331 to \$123,472,416.

Commercial Union the True Policy. Excepting Great Britain and Germany, Canada is now very much our largest customer; and, indeed, in proportion to population, the Dominion is about ten times as large a buyer of our goods as is either of those great nations of Europe. The reason for this is very simple and clear. It is because Canada belongs naturally and essentially to our own great North American zone of trade. Just as Canada and the United States have extended their domestic postal rates to one another, so they ought by degrees, if not at once, each to annex the other in a commercial sense. The economic greatness of the United States is due to the wide sweep of our domestic freedom of trade. The time has come when, from the standpoint of large trade policy, the paramount object of North American statesmanship ought to be to remove the legal obstacles that prevent merchants, farmers, and manufacturers from the easy and beneficial exchange of products throughout the whole of this great English-speaking continental expanse of country. The business men of the United States, particularly those of New England and the northernmost tier of States across the continent, have begun to see clearly the advantages that would result from a broad policy of commercial union. Intelligent Canadians, on the other hand, have always perceived the great benefits that would accrue to

Canada from unrestricted trade relations with the United States. The new movement for Canadian reciprocity, particularly as now supported by business men of the Northwest, has in no sense a political object. It does not propose, either in the near future or at any more distant time, to interfere in any way with the exercise by the Canadians of their right to gov-



HON. EUGENE G. HAY, OF MINNESOTA.

(A leader in the reciprocity movement,—also appointed by President Roosevelt last month a member of the Board of General Appraisers.)

ern themselves as they please and to retain or to drop the slender connection with England that gives Canada a place in the so-called British Empire. We publish elsewhere in this number a valuable article by Mr. Eugene Hay, a well-known lawyer and public man of Minneapolis, who speaks for the business community of our Northwest in its desire to bring about liberal trade relations with our plucky neighbors on the North. We commend Mr. Hay's article to the careful reading of Americans in all parts of the country.

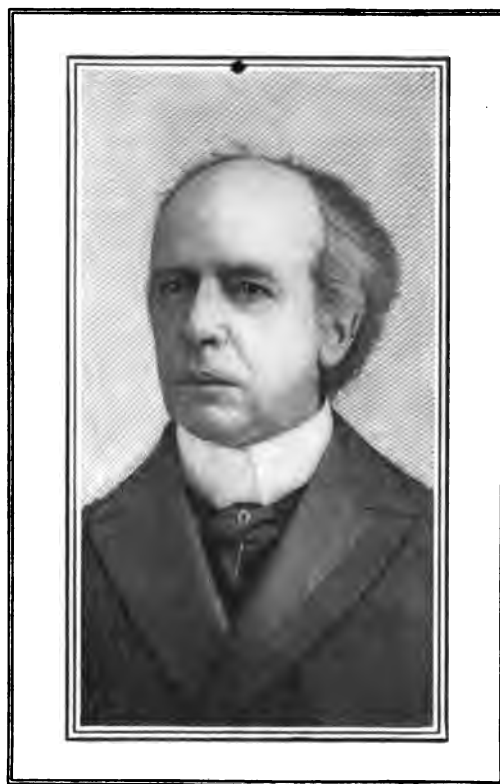
*Canadian
Aims and
Methods.*

Regardless of her political future, Canada's great present ambition is to develop her vast natural resources. It is obvious that a liberal reciprocity treaty with the United States,—or, better still, a zollverein, or commercial union,—would at one stroke do more to promote the opening up of Canada's farm lands, mines, and forests, and the growth of her population by the incoming of desirable

immigrants, than all other possible development schemes and projects put together. While this fact is recognized by Canadians, they are not saying very much about it. They have made up their minds that reciprocity overtures must come from the United States. They have made advances in the past and have been repulsed. It is not merely their dignity and pride that are now concerned, but also their perception of the best way to achieve the desired end. They are simply going about their business on the assumption that the present tariff policy of the United States is going to be maintained, and that Canada must, therefore, do what she can to increase still further her growth and prosperity in spite of the obstacles afforded by the American tariff. She would doubtless be entirely willing to negotiate with the United States if this country should show itself seriously inclined to enter upon reciprocity negotiations. Meanwhile, the Canadians are pushing out in various ways. The government at Ottawa has appointed a commission, consisting of three of the most prominent business men of Canada, to make a report upon the best means for the promotion of Canada's domestic and foreign trade, with particular reference to a mapping out of the larger trade routes, so that the further gradual construction of railroads and waterways may proceed upon some comprehensive plan well thought out.

Early last month, the Dominion Parliament, at Ottawa, after one of the most thorough and protracted debates in the history of the Canadian government, sustained Sir Wilfrid Laurier's measure for the construction of a national transcontinental railway. This is the undertaking known as the Grand Trunk Pacific. Its purpose is to secure a new railroad to the Pacific, running much farther north than the Canadian Pacific line, and opening new territory for settlement and cultivation, while, on the other hand, it involves the building of a new government line for lease to the Grand Trunk system in the eastern colonies of Canada, with the express object of diverting to Canadian ports the greater part of that European traffic which Canada now carries on by way of Portland, Maine, and other ports on the coast of the United States. The final vote sustaining Sir Wilfrid Laurier and the policy of the Liberal party was taken on September 2, and resulted in a majority of 117 to 71. A strong effort was made on the part of the opposition either to secure a postponement of the bill or a suspension of its effect until after the report of the new expert commission on transportation to which we have referred.

The Opposing Views. It is to be noted that the opponents of Sir Wilfrid's measure were by no means fighting against the promotion by the Canadian government of the development of a national Canadian system of transportation. On the contrary, the chief objection of the Conservatives to Sir Wilfrid's bill lay in the fact that instead of the plan of subsidizing private corporations like the Canadian Pacific and the Grand Trunk, they were in favor of measures looking toward the policy of full government ownership and operation of railroads. Mr. Blair, who had formerly been minister of railways and canals in Sir Wilfrid's cabinet, broke away from his own party and powerfully opposed the agreement with the Grand Trunk Company, favoring instead a government line in the full sense from Quebec to the Georgian Bay, there connecting with the steamships of the Great Lakes, this route to be continued by a new line westward from Lake Superior ports to the Pacific, entirely as a government enterprise. Thus everybody in all parties in Canada seems committed to the government promotion of railroads and European steamship lines, the only fundamental difference of opinion being on the question whether it is better to subsidize private companies or to enter upon the policy of governmental ownership and operation of transportation lines. The weight of public opinion at present seems to favor the granting of subsidies to private companies, with the oc-



SIR WILFRID LAURIER.

(Canada's brilliant premier, who has now made certain a new transcontinental railway line from ocean to ocean.)



HON. A. G. BLAIR, WHO OPPOSED THE RAILWAY BILL.

casional construction of some line or section of road to be owned by the government, but leased to a private company.

The Canadian Pacific's Good Year. This method will naturally derive encouragement from the brilliant showing that has just been made in the new yearly report of the Canadian Pacific system. The gross receipts of the Canadian Pacific have doubled within a period of five or six years, and the net earnings are highly satisfactory to the shareholders. The volume of its traffic is enormously increasing through the opening up of its tributary wheat lands and grazing areas. Not included in the statement of earnings of the road is that which shows the sale of its lands. This railroad had the benefit of a very large land subsidy. It sold last year nearly 2,600,000 acres of land, at a price averaging something less than four dollars an acre. In the previous year it sold less than 1,600,000 acres, at a price averaging a little over three dollars an acre. In the year before that the sales were less than 400,000 acres.

*The
Opening of
New Lands.*

Apropos of this progress in the opening up of the western Canadian lands, it is to be noted that Mr. Sifton, minister of the interior, in the course of the debate on the Grand Trunk Pacific bill, declared that—all railway land grants having now been selected and located—the government itself would shortly open up for settlement a reserve of 50,000,000 acres. He asserted, further, that the completion of the new Pacific line would within ten years add two dollars an acre to the value of fully 20,000,000 acres of this government land, which is now too far from transportation routes to be accessible. Mr. Sifton is reported to have shown by official accounts and surveys that there is "a vast extent of good land also in the uninhabited northern district between Quebec and Winnipeg through which the new line will pass." There has been much excitement for some time past over the discovery of large areas of fine land in the region of James Bay, at the southern end of Hudson Bay, and railways to that country are soon to be constructed. Besides the promotion of direct fast steamship service between Canada and England, it is proposed to subsidize a good line for a period of years between Canada and France, a bill to that end having recently been introduced in Parliament. The official agents of the Canadian government are now at work in Belgium, France, and other parts of western Europe to promote a desirable kind of immigration. It is recognized, however, in Canada that the best people to develop the new farm lands of their northwestern provinces and territories are the sturdy young Americans bred on the farms of the States lying between Illinois and the Puget Sound. It is also plain enough that the removal or mitigation of tariff barriers, followed by a growth of trade across the line, would more than anything else stimulate the already important movement of experienced and capable farmers from the United States to the new Canadian lands.

Canada and the Chamberlain Programme. It is true that the Canadians are counted as supporters of Mr. Chamberlain's new policy, but not with Mr. Chamberlain's motives. He is working for the political aggrandizement of England and its further economic development through a trade policy between the mother country and the col-

onies that would eventually lead to a close imperial federation in the political sense. But Sir Wilfrid Laurier, speaking for all Canadians, has declared that no market advantages in England for Canadian produce would tempt Canada for one moment to sacrifice the smallest part of its present liberty to govern itself in its own way, and to make and unmake its own fiscal laws and policies at its own sweet will. The more the subject is discussed, and the statistics set forth, the more plain becomes the fact that Canada's trade with the United States is tending to take on the character of domestic trade, while Canada's trade with England, which has always been on the basis of foreign trade, will continue to have that character. Economic Canada is American.



HON. W. S. FIELDING.

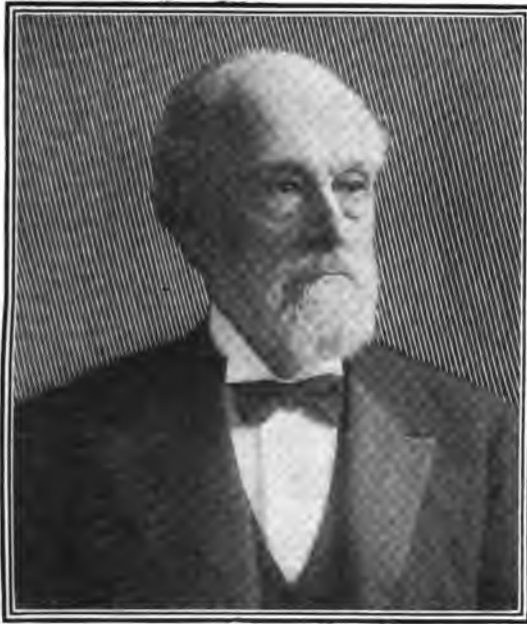
(Canadian minister of finance, whose views of reciprocity and tariff legislation are soon likely to be of equal interest in England and in the United States.)

*Our Own
Alternative
Policies.*

It is, then, for the United States to decide maturely what henceforth are to be the broad lines of this country's commercial policy. Three courses are open to us: (1) We can go on with the present high-tariff system as exemplified in the Dingley schedules, (2) we can revise the tariff in acceptance of the principles of universal free trade, or (3) we can accept and retain as a guiding principle the distinction between domestic and foreign commerce, but gradually extend the area of our domestic trade zone by bringing into it neighboring countries which have close natural business relations with us, and which ought to have favored treatment, if not full commercial union. Mr. McKinley, who was long the apostle of the American protective system, because of his belief in the home market and the value of the general development of our own resources, had become fully convinced that we ought now to extend the scope and area of our own especial trade sphere by means of reciprocity treaties. It might, however, be said that in those treaties negotiated by President McKinley, but neglected by the Senate, there was not sufficient recognition of the difference between a country like Canada and a country like France.

*Reciprocity
Should First
Recognize
Neighbors
Like Cuba.*

Our most intimate trade relations should be reserved for those near neighbors who belong naturally to our own business world. Everything in the course of our recent history has made it plain that Cuba ought to be regarded as in especially



SENATOR O. H. PLATT, OF CONNECTICUT.

(Champion of the reciprocity treaty between this country and Cuba, and chairman of the Senate's committee on Cuban Relations.)

close relationship with us, and as ultimately sure to become a part of our economic if not of our political system. The particular business which brings the new Congress together in extra session next month is the final acceptance by Congress of the fiscal features of the reciprocity treaty recently negotiated with Cuba and ratified by the Senate. This treaty does not make very large concessions to Cuba; but the 20 per cent. rebate on such standard commodities as sugar will greatly help Cuban agriculture and industry to recover their prosperity, and will, on the other hand, give American trade such advantages in the rich Cuban market as to make it entirely certain that we shall have no occasion to regret the treaty. The beet-sugar men will no longer make any opposition to the Cuban treaty. Those who now are most instinctively hostile to it are the narrow and reactionary protectionists, who believe that any sort of reciprocity arrangement makes a dangerous breach in the wall. Those who hold protectionist views ought to see that they sacrifice no principle when they retain the system under which they encourage domestic trade, but merely extend its geographical bounds. It has been of tremendous value to Hawaii and Porto Rico to be brought within the free-trade zone of the American union; and the benefit has been reciprocal. In like

manner, we should see the advantage of seeking to bring Canada and Cuba into our commercial fellowship, and Mexico, also, in due time. The value of Alaska to us hitherto has not been of a political sort, but has been due simply to the fact that this great neglected region was by Seward's purchase annexed to our economic zone, so that it might be exploited by American capital and made a field for the free extension of American commerce. Our Alaskan trade is only in its infancy, yet the total volume of the annual business between Alaska and the United States proper is now about \$25,000,000. This is all in the nature of domestic trade; and it is much more valuable to us than foreign commerce, because it will be normal and constant, and it pays a profit to American shipping.

*Mexico's
Progress and
Prosperity.*

Our exports to Mexico had increased, in the ten years from 1893 to the end of the last fiscal year, from the annual sum of \$19,568,634 to that of \$42,227,786. The commercial development of Mexico is proceeding steadily, and even rapidly, under the favorable policy of President Diaz and his supporters. American capital finds safe and profitable investment in railways, mines, plantations, and various other enterprises. The reelection of President Diaz is now assured. It seems certain, also, that the difficulties caused by the shrinkage in the value of silver will be overcome by the successful establishment of a fixed rate of exchange between Mexico's money metal and the gold standard of other countries. The cities and towns of Mexico are improving at a surprising rate, and the capital city especially is just now in the midst of the greatest building boom that has ever, perhaps, been known in any Latin-American city except Buenos Ayres. The interesting monthly publication entitled *Modern Mexico* informs us that the federal government alone is entering upon an investment approximating \$50,000,000 in new buildings in the City of Mexico.

*Transforming
the Federal
City.*

The greatest of these buildings is the so-called Legislative Palace, corresponding to our Capitol building at Washington, a picture of which, from the architect's plans, is on the next page. The foundations of this building are now being laid, and it will cost, perhaps, \$20,000,000. The City of Mexico has adopted the wise European plan of carefully regulating the height of new buildings, and preventing the construction of anything that would be inartistic or out of keeping with the harmony of the city's architecture. Next to the Legislative Palace, perhaps the most im-



MEXICO'S PROSPECTIVE "LEGISLATIVE PALACE," NOW IN PROCESS OF BUILDING.

posing of the new Mexican buildings will be the National Pantheon, which is to cost more than \$5,000,000, and is to be at once a memorial to Mexico's eminent men and a place for their entombment. Several of the executive departments are to be housed in the buildings now approaching completion. Mexico is now also to have several new hotels of a modern character. In the last number of *Modern Mexico*, Mr. Frederick Guernsey, who for many years past has been the editor of the *Mexican Herald*, writes an interesting article upon the changes of twenty years. In 1883, the City of Mexico was without railway connection with the United States. The Mexican Central entered the capital in the following year. From that time until now, Mr. Guernsey notes many striking changes. Among other things, he remarks that there are now nearly six thousand Americans living in the city, as against a few hundred twenty years ago, and that the English language has become fashionable and popular, and is fast superseding the French as the second language of people of education.

*A New City
Government
Like Wash-
ington's.*

A new system of local government has now gone into effect for the City of Mexico and the federal district that surrounds it. This new scheme has been modeled principally upon that of the city of Washington and the District of Columbia. For several centuries, the City of Mexico had been governed by a city council, and for a long time the little towns and suburban neighborhoods in the federal district had been governed by separate village or local councils. Under the new system the federal government emphasizes the

growing sense of nationality. It is making the capital city and the federal district more and more the center of the national life, and it is now proposed that the old district shall be administered and governed on model principles. The new law vests administration in three officials appointed by the federal government, one known as the governor of the district, another as the president of the superior board of health, and the third as the director of public works. To some extent, these three men act together as a board, and to some extent each acts separately in his own sphere. There continue to exist the elective councils, but they have a wholly changed and restricted sphere. There are records of the meeting of a city council for Mexico dating back as far as the year



HALL OF SESSIONS OF CITY COUNCIL, CITY OF MEXICO.

1524, and the present hall of sessions of the city council is famous for its collection of historical paintings and memorials. With its Old World charm, due to its cathedral and other monuments of Spanish church architecture, and all its new improvements, Mexico will be a splendid city.

*Mexican
Growth in
Political
Capacity.*

The circumstances under which President Diaz was, some weeks ago, made a candidate for reelection have been too little understood in the United States. There has now been formed what never existed in Mexico before,—a permanently organized, great political party, wholly analogous to one of the great parties in the United States. The renomi-



GEN. GEONIMO TREVIÑO.

(Permanent chairman of the recent national convention of the Mexican Liberal party.)

nation of President Diaz this year has come about in a way totally different from his half-dozen previous nominations. This time, he was tendered the nomination by a regular convention, held in a formal way by a distinct political party sending delegates from all parts of the country. This convention was participated in by the weightiest men and the most brilliant orators of the republic. Nothing could have been more serious or more statesmanlike than the convention's purposes and methods. Its object was to be ready for the ultimate disappearance of Diaz from the public arena, and, while supporting Diaz, to prevent the emergence of any successor to the man who has so long governed Mexico as a dominating personality, like a mild and beneficent dictator. The masses in

Mexico are not well educated, but the intelligent and cultivated minority of the people has for leaders men of as brilliant attainments as are to be found in any country. Their new national Liberal party is so broad in its constitution as to preclude, if possible, the development of mere groups and factions. The only strong Conservative force that could be rallied against the Liberal party would be the clerical element, which, though powerful, has for half a century been subjected to civil and secular control. The great modern fact in Mexican history was the confiscation by the government of the vast estates of the Church and the general secularization of the government of the republic.

*The New
Liberal
Party.*

The Liberal party is now well organized in every Mexican State, and it proposes to do everything it can to create an intelligent constituency of voters and to transform Mexico from a nominal into a true democratic republic. The speeches made in the convention were of great strength and sagacity. The leading Mexicans are determined that there shall be no military pretenders or foolish and destructive revolutions in Mexico, when the strong hand of Diaz ceases to hold the helm of state; and so they are carefully preparing for the future. To the owners of hundreds of millions of dollars of American capital invested in Mexico, the wisdom, patriotism, sound sense, and evident political efficiency of the leaders of this Liberal convention is a very reassuring sign. The Liberals are well aware of the need of educating the masses, and they are determined that Mexico's material progress and prosperity shall be accompanied by a corresponding political development of the people. They frankly look to this country for their principal guidance and inspiration. Everything that brings them into closer relations with us henceforth must be productive of mutual benefit. Professor Rowe's article in our last number presented the situation very clearly.

*The
Situation
at Bogota.*

It is not pleasant to turn from the contemplation of sound and responsible government and of growing capacity for statesmanship in the neighboring republic of Mexico, to the spectacle presented at Bogota, where, for the first time in many years, there has this season been the pretense of a session of Congress. The so-called republic of Colombia has for a long time past been either in a state of anarchy, or else under a despotism as fanatical and corrupt as that of the Turkish Sultan. Colombia's governmental system, in the present as well as in the recent past, is about as



DR. HERRAN, REPRESENTING COLOMBIA AT WASHINGTON,
AND NEGOTIATOR OF CANAL TREATY.

little entitled to the respect of the world as is the decadent government of Morocco, where France, with the consent of Europe, is about to intervene for the general good. There is even less reason in ethics and in common sense why a remote and inefficient government at Bogota should forever hold sovereignty over a great international focus of trade like the Isthmus of Panama, than there is reason why the government at Fez should be dominant at the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea. It is a total mistake to identify the blackmailing adventurers, who, from time to time, seize and control the government of Colombia, with the real rights and real interests of the people who are destined to occupy and develop the northwestern part of South America.

*The Real
Interests of
Colombia.*

Nothing could be more beneficial to the legitimate interests of Colombia than that the United States should construct a ship canal across the Panama isthmus, and should establish and maintain permanent peace, order, sanitary regulations, security for labor and property, equitable taxation, and justice for individuals, in the Panama district. The very fact of stability on the Isthmus of Panama, under the friendly auspices of the United States, would constitute the greatest aid to material, social, and political progress in the

republic of Colombia that could well be imagined. The fundamental mistake we have made in dealing with Colombia has been in the pretense that we were negotiating with real and responsible organs of government and administration. We undertook negotiations at a time when even the revolutionists had a better moral title to consideration than the governing clique. Our wiser policy would have been, long ago, to have countenanced the separation of the Isthmus of Panama, and its international neutralization under the auspices and the protection of the United States, for the benefit of its people, for the welfare of international commerce, and for the good alike of the inhabitants of North America and South America. It is inherently absurd that the least responsible of all the so-called republics, big or little, of the Latin-American world should be tolerated in a sort of "dog in the manger" possession of the isthmian strip. The Colombian title has in fact been saved only by the timely arrival of American warships and the landing of American marines, whenever trouble on the Isthmus has revealed the inability of Colombia itself to keep order or to make good its authority.

*The
Ethics of
Sovereignty.*

Yet there was current in the United States last month an immense amount of shallow discussion, based either upon ignorance of facts or else upon a fallacious conception of the sanctity of the technical rights of sovereignty. The Turkish Government has exactly the same rights of sovereignty over Macedonia that the Colombian government has over the Panama isthmus. Turkey, indeed, has superior rights, because it is in all ordinary times a far more efficient, capable, and just government than that of Colombia. Yet no really sound and sane moralist would attach to Turkey's technical rights of sovereignty an ethical value superior to the rights of the inhabitants themselves to break away from Turkish rule, and to seek and obtain the aid and countenance of Europe in their efforts at deliverance. The government at Bogota has now made a decision fatal to the interests of the people of the district of Panama. It has rejected the treaty (negotiated by Secretary Hay for this country and by Dr. Herran for Colombia) providing for the construction of the Panama Canal by the United States Government. All the interests of the district of Panama are bound up in the presence of the United States on the Isthmus. All the development that amounts to anything there has resulted from the construction of the American railroad half a century ago and from the treaties of that

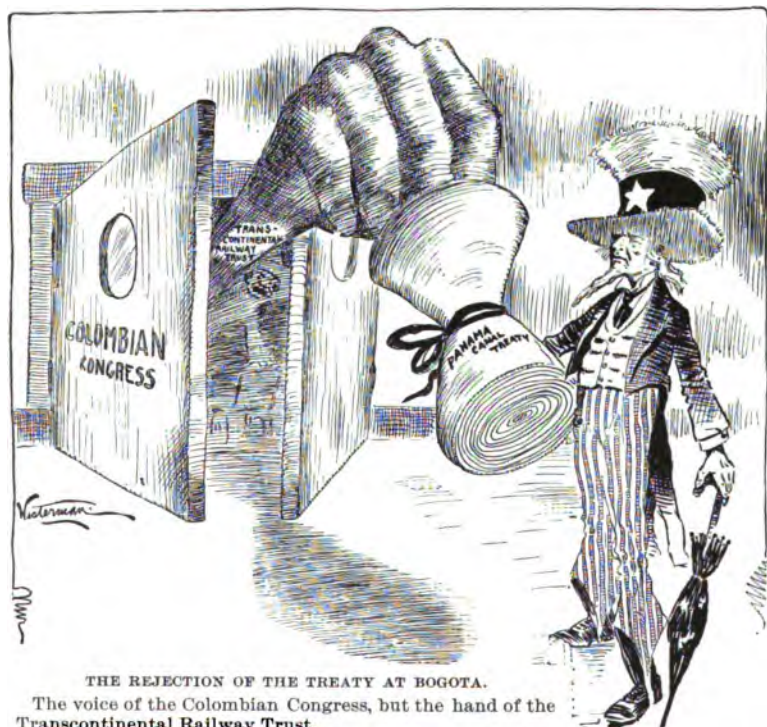
period still in force which make it both the right and the duty of the United States Government to see that the railroad and the Atlantic and Pacific ports which it connects are never interrupted in the carrying on of peaceful traffic. The further development of the Isthmus and the prosperity of its people are now wholly dependent upon the presence and the activities of the United States. For no portion, however small, of their prospective welfare do they look with hope to their connection with the Republic of Colombia. The best thing they could possibly do would be to make a prompt and determined effort to detach themselves from Colombia; and it would be absurd for the people of the United States to pretend that they did not look with favor upon so righteous and so excellent a proposition. The Panama folk would like to get rid of Colombia sovereignty, and they deserve our sympathy and good-will in an aspiration so meritorious.

Nobody who is to any extent informed about the situation regards the rejection of the Hay-Herran treaty at Bogota as based, in good faith, upon public considerations. It is extensively believed in Europe that the American transcontinental railroad lobby, which for so long worked against the Nicaragua Canal at Washington, and which succeeded for the sake of delay in getting our government's attention diverted from Nicaragua to Panama,—has now, for the sake of further delay, been at work upon the minds of the very susceptible gentlemen at Bogota. But in any case the opportunity was too tempting for the venal and impoverished cliques who, by agreement, had stopped fighting one another for a season. They had patched up a truce on the supposition that they might gain and divide a large booty by exacting a penalty from the United States for proposing to build and throw open to the world a great highway of traffic. If we had been dealing with an honest and responsible government, the very idea of paying any bonus at all would have been ridiculous,

inasmuch as the payment should have come the other way. Stated in plain and blunt language, the \$10,000,000 cash proposed in the Hay-Herran treaty was nothing at all but a bribe to the politicians of Bogota to induce them to pass the most useful measure for the people of their country that had ever been suggested. Since we were not proposing to construct the canal as a money-making enterprise, and since we had in advance given our pledge to Europe and the world that it should be a neutralized waterway, open to the ships and trade of other countries as freely as to those of the United States, any reputable and self-respecting government in the position of Colombia could not have entertained the idea of taking money for giving consent.

An Undignified Attitude.

On the part of this country, the proffer was an undignified one, although in such instances it is not regarded as so discreditable to be the bribe-giver as to be the bribe-taker. A private canal company would have sought to secure franchises for commercial and money-making motives. Colombia, in dealing with such a company, would have retained its sovereignty and granted the charter on the best terms it could make. But the United States cannot with dignity or propriety renounce its own character as a sovereign government and



THE REJECTION OF THE TREATY AT BOGOTA.
The voice of the Colombian Congress, but the hand of the Transcontinental Railway Trust.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

proceed to dicker like a private corporation. It was undignified and unbecoming for our government to buy out the French Panama Company, and it was equally inappropriate for our government to solicit from a South American government the kind of commercial franchise that an ordinary private enterprise would negotiate for. It was both an innovation and a fundamental absurdity that the United States should propose to construct its principal public work with money exacted from all the taxpayers of the country, upon foreign soil which it not only did not expect in the future to acquire, but the foreign character of which it at the same time guaranteed in perpetuity. Either we did not mean what we said in the Hay-Herran treaty regarding the perpetual sovereignty of the Bogota government over a canal to be constructed by the Washington government, or else we were doing a thing absurd, unpatriotic, and belittling. Yet when one inquired at Washington, the answers were always cynical. One was assured that these stipulations in the treaty were to be regarded as a farce, and that the United States would inevitably govern its own canal strip and manage the affairs of the Isthmus in its own way when once it could get its foothold.

An American Canal Under the Stars and Stripes. The only proper kind of negotiation with the government at Bogota would have been a negotiation for the outright purchase in full sovereignty either of the whole Panama district or else of a considerable strip for canal purposes. To this suggestion one has always been met at Washington with the official reply that it is against the Colombia constitution to alienate any part of Colombian territory. The fair rejoinder, of course, is that in Colombia there is no such thing as a constitution known or recognized either by the people or by any of the organs of government or administration. But even if there were such a thing, it would be precisely as easy to amend the constitution for the sake of completing the transfer as to perform any other public act. Our authorities at Washington know perfectly well that the extended franchise of the French Panama Company, which they have conditionally agreed to purchase for \$40,000,000, was not constitutionally or legally obtained. Yet after examination our legal department at Washington thought it safe enough to treat the franchise as valid. Since the United States took the false position at the start, and pretended that it was willing to spend the money of the people of the United States on a canal under the flag and the jurisdiction of so rotten a government as that of Bogota, it was perhaps not strange that the flattered and con-

ceited politicians of that little capital should have thought that Uncle Sam might be induced to raise his bribe from \$10,000,000 to \$20,000,000, and that the French Panama Company, through its lawyers and agents, might be bluffed into giving them openly a ten-million-dollar slice of the \$40,000,000, in addition to the liberal sums it was ready to give them on the quiet to lubricate the transaction. If this rebuff at Bogota shall now open the eyes of the people of the United States, and of the abler and better men at Washington, to the danger and the folly of the methods we have been tricked into using, through taking advantage of the country's honest but rather blind desire for a ship canal, there will be good reason to be thankful for the fatuity of the gentlemen at Bogota.

The President has, under the Spooner Act, the right to turn immediately to Nicaragua, and, if he can make satisfactory arrangements there, to begin the construction of a canal by that route. According to the purpose and meaning of the act as understood when it was passed, it would seem indeed to be the President's duty thus to concentrate attention upon the Nicaragua route and to begin work at the earliest possible moment. But affairs of such magnitude ought not to be disposed of in haste. It is true that the Isthmian Canal Commission, having reported in favor of the Nicaragua route, jauntily changed its decision and recommended Panama, when the French company offered to come down to \$40,000,000. Possibly, now that the consent of the Bogota politicians is costing so much more than was expected, this same commission of experts would be willing to change its decision once more. The statesmen at Washington, by the way, may wish to investigate the declaration,



AN OLD RECIPE REVISED.

How to dig an isthmian canal: First catch your canal site.
From the Times (Minneapolis).

made last month, that the French Panama Company had offered to sell out to an American company for a small fraction of the amount that our government subsequently agreed to pay on advice from our Isthmian Canal Commission. Up to date, the Washington authorities have simply succeeded in making a bad muddle. The Government of the United States has no business whatever to take money out of the treasury in order to go into foreign countries and create highways for international commerce. The world's Captains of Industry and Commerce are abundantly able to create their own highways, if a canal is to be built on those motives.

*Government
Work for
Government
Ends.*

The canal that the people of the United States had desired and meant to build,—when they accepted the idea of making it a government enterprise,—was one which should primarily serve government purposes. The motive was to double our naval efficiency, and promote the safety of our coasts, by providing a short cut at a point advantageous for the strategical purposes of the United States, as well as for the promotion of American commerce. It was the general opinion in this country that the Nicaragua route would best serve these ends. But the United States will not be justified in adopting the Nicaragua route unless it acquires an ample strip of territory and constructs the canal upon soil as truly its own as if it were digging across the State of Florida. Meanwhile, we are getting on without an isthmian canal, and we can well afford to have the enterprise delayed again, and yet again, if thereby we may learn to go about the business in a sound way, and may escape the entanglements of a diplomacy playing at cross-purposes with the real aims and objects of the American people.

*Affairs in
Venezuela.*

There were reports, last month, of an impending conflict between Colombia and Venezuela. President Castro, of Venezuela, was busy moving troops toward the Colombian frontier. Castro had been in active alliance with the Colombian insurgents, who are now placated or suppressed. Between his government of Venezuela and the existing government of Colombia there is every reason for antipathy. The general situation in Venezuela is far from being settled and comfortable. Revolutionary activity is not wholly suppressed, and the country was in a turmoil last month on account of decisions adverse to Venezuela, which the umpires had begun to render in the settlement of the claims of the foreign creditors, in accordance with the pro-

TOCOLS agreed upon at Washington. The largest of these decisions was that rendered in favor of the Belgian company that owns the Caracas water works, which was awarded a claim for \$2,000,000. The rage of the Venezuelan public and press has been shown in an almost inconceivable recklessness of expression. The anti-foreign feeling throughout the country is stronger than ever. The matters in the Venezuela dispute that were referred to The Hague for arbitration are awaiting the selection of new judges by the Czar,—two of those originally chosen being unable to act because their governments (those of Switzerland and Denmark) had decided to enter the list of nations having claims of their own against Venezuela.

*What of
Currency
Reform?*

Although the November meeting of Congress is primarily for confirming the commercial treaty with Cuba, it can hardly avoid showing some interest in the status of the isthmian canal question due to the action of Colombia, and it has been expected by the country that it would especially concern itself with the task,—so commonly declared to be necessary,—of providing for an improved currency system. It was expected, last spring, that the Republican leaders of the Senate would by November be prepared to present the draft of a currency bill that the President and the Secretary of the Treasury would in principle have endorsed, and one that the Speaker and leading members of the House would be willing in the main to accept. It is by no means clear, however, that any measure is to be brought forward with the claim that it has the requisite support to insure its adoption. Even for those who have given the question much study it involves difficulties. The time-honored currency system of our national banking act, as everybody knows, has been rendered insufficient by reason of the paying-off of much of the Government debt and the high price of the bonds that remain outstanding. At the current market price, many banks do not find it profitable to own bonds and deposit them with the Government as security for the issue of circulating notes. Thus, the volume of our bank-note currency has shown a general tendency to diminish, not only relatively to the total monetary circulation, but also in absolute amount.

*What the
Experts
Propose.*

Under these circumstances, the leading banking and financial experts of the country have for some years been of opinion that the banks should be allowed to issue notes upon some other form of security than United States Government bonds. Most

of these experts have come to the conclusion that under proper safeguards it would be well to allow the banks to issue notes upon the security of their general assets, without depositing any bonds or other collateral. This plan, known as that of asset currency, includes the collection by the Government of a tax upon bank-note circulation large enough to provide a fund which would suffice to insure the safety of all outstanding notes, and would justify the Government itself in guaranteeing the issues, and thus protecting the people in the use of these notes as good and sound money. For our own part, we should have no objection to a plan of this kind, with details worked out by the Bankers' Association of the United States and approved by the Secretary of the Treasury,—provided all notes issued were backed by the Government, like the present bank notes. It is well known that Secretary Shaw and his predecessor, Mr. Gage, both believe in the entire feasibility of such a plan.

*The
Aldrich
Proposal.*

It is not, however, regarded as possible at present to persuade Congress to adopt a system that seems to involve so radical a change. It is believed that the only thing that can be done at present is to proceed from the standpoint of the existing system. Senator Aldrich, last spring, proposed partial relief by a method perfectly simple and easy to understand. He proposed so to change the law as to permit the banks to place with the Comptroller of the Currency, as a basis—if not for the issue of bank notes, at least for the obtaining of government deposits—not merely the bonds of the United States Government, but also those of the States of the Union, of municipal governments meeting proper requirements, and of certain designated railway corporations where such bonds possess a standard character and have a stable and "gilt-edged" value. That such a system would work in practice, and that it might be made at times to afford a very considerable relief of the money market, is not to be denied. But in the designation of the particular bonds and securities to be put on the favored list by the Government, the plan is liable to abuses and open to objection.

*Secretary
Shaw's Latest
Views.*

Secretary Shaw, last month, in a speech at Chicago, declared himself to be in favor, for the present, of allowing such banks as maintain a note circulation based upon the deposit of government bonds to increase that circulation in times of emergency to the extent of 50 per cent. without depositing any additional security. This increased circulation would be subject to an annual tax of 6 per

cent., and the banks would thus have no motive for keeping it outstanding except in times of special demand for currency,—chiefly at times when the crops are being moved on a basis of cash payments, and when the use of currency is especially large. This particular proposal is one that Mr. Dawes, when Comptroller of the Currency, warmly favored. Meanwhile Secretary Shaw has been doing his best to keep currency in circulation by developing the plan of depositing accumulated government funds in a series of designated banks, particularly in the South and West, where an ample supply of money would presumably most help the agricultural industries. The total amount of government money distributed among depository banks was approaching \$150,000,000 last month, and Secretary Shaw announced that he had a good many more millions ready to distribute, under proper conditions, if needed. It is not likely that the people of the country at large will this year feel the need of increased currency in such a way as to make them very keen or specific in their demand that Congress shall provide new currency legislation. Yet the subject demands serious treatment.

*Chairman
Fowler's Plan.*

Mr. Fowler, of New Jersey, chairman of the currency committee of the House of Representatives, has continued during the summer and autumn his studies of the currency question, and his conferences with bankers and business men throughout the land, and he is expected to propose legislation of an interesting character. His plan, as announced last month, would provide for the placing of all public moneys on deposit with the banks, the Government to receive interest at the rate of 2 per cent. His bill will permit the banks to issue so-called asset or credit currency to a certain limit,—5 per cent. of such currency to be deposited in gold with the Government. A yearly tax of 1 per cent. on circulation would have to be paid by the banks; and this tax, together with the 5 per cent. reserve, and in addition 40 the interest money received by the Government on the deposit of public moneys, would constitute a fund to be used in part for insuring the safety of the circulating notes, and in part for the gradual retirement of the existing greenbacks by their replacement with gold certificates. Mr. Fowler has thought so much on the subject that all these provisions are to his mind as simple and as clear as the alphabet. But it is to be feared that it will be hard to make the country as a whole understand the scheme well enough to give it confidence and support.

Even if no legislation should be secured at present, the process of educating the country will go steadily on; and out of the efforts of men like Mr. Fowler, and other authorities, we shall in due time evolve a system better than any we have ever had before. There is cer-



HON. CHARLES N. FOWLER, OF NEW JERSEY.

tainly a wide difference between the measure proposed in Chicago by Secretary Shaw, in his speech last month before the Merchants' and Travelers' Association, and the plan of Mr. Fowler, as set forth before the Indiana bankers at South Bend. As for the views of Senators Aldrich, Allison, Platt of Connecticut, and Spooner, who have been working on the currency subject for months past, it is believed that they will propose some moderate measure of a remedial sort that will fall far short either of the Shaw plan on the one hand, or the Fowler plan on the other. Mr. Cannon, of Illinois, who is to be speaker of the new Congress, has yet to be convinced that the country is in dire need of any new currency legislation whatsoever.

Shaping Party Issues. As the Presidential year approaches, it is inevitable that the opposition party, while casting about for a candidate, should also be instinctively trying to develop a consistent opposition attitude upon current questions. The Democratic party must perforce next year try to find issues in the tariff question, and in that of the trusts, and in business conditions. The Republicans cannot now

attempt to revise the tariff, and they will have to enter the campaign next year defending the protective policy on general principles, and promising rather vaguely to try to revise the Dingley schedules in 1906. This will give the Democrats a legitimate opportunity to talk about tariff reform and the relation of the tariff to monopolies. It is agreed by the Republican leaders that the present Republican Congress is not to disturb the tariff; nor is this new Congress likely to be progressive enough to advance the reciprocity policy very far. The Republicans will probably have to rely more upon the deserved popularity of President Roosevelt than upon any other party asset,—except, of course, that valuable kind of capital which the party in power is always able to derive from a condition of general prosperity. The collapse of the Wall Street speculative boom in railroad shares and trust stocks, and the check upon building and various other kinds of industry caused by the unwise demands of organized labor, will have had some effect to reduce the consuming power of the people, and, therefore, to lessen the prosperity of general trade. This partial ebbing of the high tide of the past two or three years will be further aided by the expected failure of a part of the corn crop, due to a late and wet season and early frosts last month in the Northwest. It does not follow, however, that the business outlook is at all gloomy. Indeed, there seems no likelihood that within the next year or two we shall drop from a period of good times to a period of depression. Thus, the Republican chances are not likely to be much endangered by a disappearance of the McKinley wave of prosperity.

Republican Ideals and Practices. Perhaps a greater danger for the Republican party lurks in the feeling widely prevalent that the Republican government as a whole is not living up to President Roosevelt's administrative ideals, and that such scandals as those that have been discovered in the Post-Office Department are not being eliminated with sufficient thoroughness and vigor. There can be no doubt that the President himself appreciates the fact that his political interest as well as his public duty lies in the most unsparing effort to discover, expose, and punish every instance of official misconduct. The course pursued thus far in the endeavor to rid the Post-Office Department of its corrupt officials has been both sincere and energetic. Mr. Bristow, Fourth Assistant-Postmaster-General, has pushed the inquiry without fear or favor, with the full support of the Postmaster-General and of the President. These postal scandals are not essentially of a partisan nature



L., courtesy of the New York Herald.

FOURTH ASSISTANT-POSTMASTER-GENERAL BRISTOW, CONFERRING WITH HIS CHIEF, MR. PAYNE, ON THE POSTAL FRAUDS.

or origin; and the Republican administration ought at least to be helped as much by its discovery of wrongs and its application of remedies as it is hurt by the fact that these evils have existed in a time of Republican rule. Nevertheless, the Democrats will make some political capital out of these conditions, and they will write large upon their banners the old war-cry, "Turn the rascals out!"

Delaware—the Party's Joy and Pride. The Post-Office Department was subjected to a great fire of criticism last month on account of the removal for political reasons of a postmistress in Delaware. This criticism was doubtless the harder for the Postmaster-General to endure, because of his consciousness that never for half a century has there been so little use made of the fourth-class post-offices for political purposes as during the past year. The post-office case in question is not important enough to merit much discussion for its own sake. Its chief interest lies in the fact that it has grown out of the vicious solution of the Addicks deadlock in Delaware, thanks to the bad politics and bad morals of the

National Republican organization, and to the unfortunate failure of President Roosevelt to deal with the Delaware situation in accordance with his own instincts and the demands of the best public opinion of both parties throughout the United States. There is nothing in the recent record of the Republican party that will be so likely to damage it with high-minded and thoughtful citizens in next year's campaign as its miserable and stupid compromise with Addicksism in Delaware. It was an exceedingly small and very ill-served mess of pottage for which the Republican National Committee sacrificed all sense of decency when it fixed up the deal that gave Delaware its present representation in the Senate.

Judge Taft to Succeed Secretary Root.

The Philippine question is not likely to do much service on either side in next year's political campaign. It is too soon for the Republicans to justify Philippine annexation by a showing of brilliant results, while, on the other hand, the fact of American possession is too well established for further Democratic criticism. The actual ad-

ministration of Philippine affairs has been so excellent and so free from partisanship that it cannot be successfully assailed. Governor Taft comes home in the near future to take a place in the Cabinet as Secretary of War, and his place as governor-general is to be filled by the promotion of Gen. Luke E. Wright, who has ranked next to Mr. Taft in the Philippine Commission, and has been acting governor-general during Mr. Taft's absences. General Wright, who for years was attorney-general of Tennessee, is just as prominent a member of the Democratic party as Judge Taft is of the Republican. Both men are of such high character and ability as to do great credit to American citizenship. One by one the problems of Philippine government are being worked out. In the main, very good order has been established, and our military authorities in the Philippines are recommending the reduction of the number of troops there more rapidly than the War Department can find barracks to accommodate the returning soldiers here in the United States. Educational work goes on satisfactorily, and among other things it has been decided to send about one hundred young Filipinos each year to pursue a course of study in the United States better to fit them for places in the Philippine civil service. The new monetary system is going into effect, and millions of silver coins have



HON. WILLIAM H. TAFT.
(Appointed to the Cabinet.)



GEN. LUKE E. WRIGHT.

(To be governor-general of the Philippines.)

lately been shipped from our mints to Manila. Within the next five years, the stability due to American occupation, and the substantial benefits of enlightened and just institutions, will begin to show results that will reflect high credit upon the men who have so wisely laid these good foundations. Among other recent government activities has been the taking of a Philippine census, preliminary reports of which show a total population of approximately 6,976,574, including about 650,000 members of so-called "wild tribes." Judge Taft's experience in dealing with these Philippine affairs, added to his many other qualifications, makes him the best possible successor to Secretary Root.

*Mr. Root's
Services.*

The man who will be entitled in history to the most credit for creating the new system of Philippine government and administration is the Hon. Elihu Root, Secretary of War. Peculiar circumstances gave to the head of the War Department the opportunity not merely to direct the affairs of the army and secure for it a thoroughgoing reorganization, but also to control the work of civil reconstruction in Cuba, the establishment of a new government in Porto Rico, and, above all, to play the rôle of supreme lawgiver for the people of the Philippine Archipelago. Secretary



Mr. A. B. Aylesworth.

Sir Louis Jetté.

Hon. Clifford Sifton.

Lord Alverstone.

THE PRINCIPAL BRITISH FIGURES IN THE ALASKA BOUNDARY ARBITRATION.

(Mr. Sifton is chief British counsel, the other three being the British members of the arbitral tribunal. All are Canadians, except Lord Alverstone, who is chief-justice of England.)

Root entered President McKinley's cabinet upon the retirement of General Alger in August, 1899. He has proved as valuable a member of President Roosevelt's cabinet as he was of President McKinley's. He has for some time desired to return to private life. Having carried out one by one the larger tasks which he found devolving upon him, he has felt that his work in the War Department is practically completed, and that he may properly lay it down. Before sailing for England in his capacity as a member of the Alaska Boundary Tribunal, Mr. Root handed his resignation to President Roosevelt, and it will probably take effect at about the end of the year. The President in his letter of reply to Mr. Root reviewed in strong and clear terms the several kinds of important public service rendered by Mr. Root during the four or five years of his cabinet service. Apart from the work done by the Secretary in the two great branches of administration that have pertained to his portfolio, he has been of constant service to the President as a general adviser. On this point the President expresses himself as follows :

I appreciate most keenly the invaluable advice and assistance you have rendered me in innumerable matters of weight not coming directly in your departmental province, but in which I sought your aid with the certainty of not being disappointed. Your position on the Alaskan Boundary Commission at the present moment is an illustration of these services.

During the absence of Secretary Root, the War Department is under the direction of the new Assistant Secretary, Gen. Robert Shaw Oliver, of New York.

*The Alaska
Boundary
Tribunal.*

The tribunal to settle the Alaska boundary question met in London early in September, when the printed documents setting forth, respectively, the American and Canadian cases were exchanged. After an adjournment for some days, during which the American commissioners were the recipients of much official courtesy and attention, the tribunal met on September 15 for the beginning of oral arguments. As recorded in these pages at the time of their appointment, the three American members of the tribunal are Secretary Root, Senator Lodge, and ex-Senator Turner, of Washington. The three British members are the English chief-justice, Lord Alverstone (formerly Sir Richard Webster), and two Canadians, Sir Louis Jetté and Mr. A. B. Aylesworth. Justice Armour, who had been originally selected as a Canadian member, having died, Mr. Aylesworth was appointed to the vacant place on the tribunal. On the assembling of the commission on September 3, Lord Chief-Justice Alverstone was made chairman of the commission. The chief counsel on the British side is the Hon. Clifford Sifton, Secretary of the Interior in Sir Wilfrid Laurier's Canadian cabinet. The chief counsel on the American side is Mr. John W. Foster, who has often represented our government in international matters, and who was at one time Secretary of State. Mr. Foster's assistants are Judge John M. Dickinson and the Hon. Hannis Taylor. The case for Canada was opened by Attorney-General Finlay, who is associated with Mr. Sifton in presenting the Canadian side.

*In Kentucky
and Missis-
sippi.*

The Kentucky campaign turns almost wholly upon local issues. Governor Beckham is the Democratic nominee for reëlection, while the Republicans have a strong candidate in Col. Morris K. Belknap, for



MAJOR VARDAMAN, OF MISSISSIPPI.

whom many of the older and more conservative Democrats throughout the State have expressed their preference. In Mississippi, where the results of the Democratic primary election always determine the governorship, the polling on November 3 will merely ratify the decision reached after two preliminary contests of a remarkably spirited character, the last of which occurred late in August. In the first primary there were three principal candidates, and the result showed a plurality for Major Vardaman, but not a majority. Major Vardaman then received in round figures 40,000 votes, Judge Critz 35,000, and Senator Noel 24,000. In the second primary, the Noel voters divided about evenly between Vardaman and Critz, and Vardaman was nominated by a majority of a few thousand votes. The contest turned almost wholly upon the race question. It seems to have been the desire of the majority to express disapproval of various things supposed to have been said and done by President Roosevelt. Major Vardaman is reported to have taken the indefensible position that schools for negro children should be supported exclusively

by negro taxpayers. We are not at all prepared to believe that Major Vardaman can be half so reactionary and unfair as he has been represented. It is probable that he is a good deal misunderstood in the North, just as it is certain that his supporters in Mississippi are not well informed about President Roosevelt.

*The Ohio
Campaign.*

The selection of Mayor Tom L. Johnson, of Cleveland, by the Ohio Democrats as their candidate for governor, late in August, was accompanied by the endorsement of John H. Clarke, also of Cleveland, for the United States Senate. Thus, in the possible case of the control of the next Legislature by the Democrats, Mr. Clarke would be elected to succeed Senator Hanna. Cleveland furnishes the two candidates for governor in Messrs. Myron T. Herrick and Tom L. Johnson, and the two candidates for the United States Senate in Messrs. Marcus A. Hanna and John H. Clarke. Mr. Clarke is regarded as an effective political speaker, and he is taking a very active part in a campaign which has also enlisted the services of Mr. William Jennings Bryan. Mayor Johnson's methods in this, as in his former campaign, are novel to the extent of being sensational, and they naturally give the cartoonists abundant opportunity. Incidentally, the Ohio Democrats are trying to cultivate the negro vote. The Republican campaign will be vigorous through the month of October, and will be assisted by lead-



MAJOR TOM L. JOHNSON.

ers of the party from all parts of the country. The Republicans announce their expectation of a majority somewhere between 75,000 and 100,000. If the Democrats should this year reduce that majority to less than 50,000, they would feel some encouragement for next year's fight.

*New York
City's Pending
Contest.*

As the time approached for the active opening of the great struggle for another term of good municipal government in New York City, the prospect was very satisfactory indeed. From the standpoint of good citizenship the country over, the thing about which New York City is now most to be congratulated is simply this: Instead of a choice of evils, as has so often been the case in American municipal elections, there is a clear opportunity, by voting one way rather than the other, to achieve the most desirable results. The chief elements which united in the fusion movement of two years ago found themselves quite ready last month to act together again, and were remarkably harmonious in agreeing that the old candidates ought to be put in the field. Mayor Low was therefore chosen to head the ticket, Comptroller Grout was selected for his present position, and Mr. Fornes, chairman of the Board of Aldermen, was in like manner renominated. All three of these gentlemen promptly accepted the call of the fusionists to make the fight for reelection. Mayor Low and his colleagues and department heads have given New York City the best administration in its history, and one of the very finest that any great modern city has ever known. If the citizens of New York want to have their public affairs honestly and intelligently managed for another two years, they have only to vote the Low ticket. When these notes were written, the Tammany leaders had not finally announced their selection for mayor, although it was well known that they would try to secure a candidate of personal respectability. Meanwhile, we bespeak particular attention for an important article which we publish in this number of the REVIEW by Dr. Devine, of the Charity Organization Society of New York, which sets forth a number of the most significant things that the Low administration has done for the welfare of the great congested masses of population in the tenement districts of the metropolis, and for the improvement of conditions in the city's great hospitals and correctional institutions.

*Mr. Chamberlain
Out of
the British
Cabinet.*

A wholly new and very sensational turn was given to the English political situation in the middle of last month by the sudden retirement of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain from the Balfour ministry. For eight years Mr. Chamberlain had held the position of secretary of state for the colonies. It was his activity as colonial minister and his ambition for imperial development that led the Salisbury government into its South African war

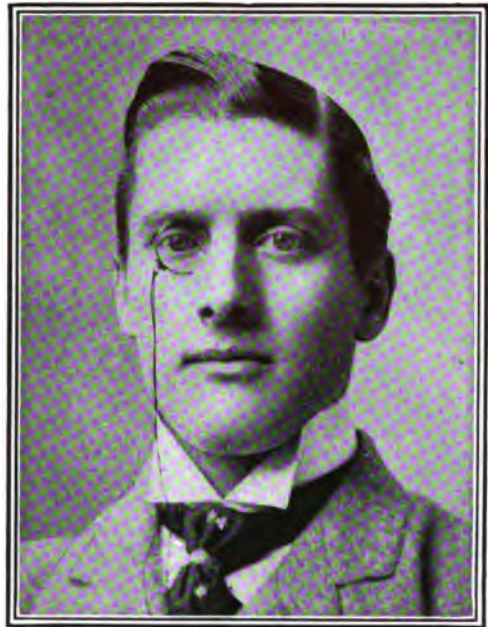
of conquest. Since the completion of that war and the accomplishment of his ambition to acquire the Transvaal, Mr. Chamberlain's restless mind has seized upon the idea of converting the various and scattered possessions of the British Crown into a real and integral empire, through the creation of an imperial army and navy system and especially through the development of a great economic entity by means of a protective tariff against the rest of the world, with the gradual approximation inside the empire toward the American system of domestic free trade. The fight upon Mr. Chamberlain's new programme was precipitated in the course of the recent debate upon the budget introduced by Mr. Ritchie, chancellor of the exchequer. Mr. Chamberlain favored the placing of duties upon the importation of breadstuffs and meat into the United Kingdom,—such duties, however, to be remitted in favor of Canada, Australia, and the other British colonies, provided those colonies should in turn discriminate in favor of English goods. Mr. Ritchie, aided by Sir Michael Hicks-Beach and Lord Goschen, both of them formerly chancellors of the exchequer, and supported by many other prominent members of the Conservative party, opposed Mr. Chamberlain's view with all possible vigor. Mr. Balfour, as premier, created an unfavorable impression by seeming to have no fixed views, and by defending Mr. Chamberlain's programme, as at least entitled to be taken up in the spirit of candid inquiry. The progress of the discussion through subsequent weeks had shown the Liberal party united in favor of the established policy of British free trade, and the result in several by-elections had been disastrous to the Tories. Mr. Balfour, meanwhile, had not proved quite the ready and zealous convert that Mr. Chamberlain hoped to find him, and the revolt of the free-trade members of the cabinet threatened to break up the ministry unless Mr. Chamberlain were thrown overboard as the Jonah who was responsible for the disturbance. Mr. Chamberlain's withdrawal was officially announced on September 17.

*Cabinet
Patching.*

The vacillating and drifting attitude of Mr. Balfour, meanwhile, caused Mr. Ritchie, as chancellor of the exchequer, to resign from the ministry, and he was accompanied by Lord George Hamilton, secretary for India, with the prospect that one or two other uncompromising free-traders of the cabinet might also withdraw. The political motives underlying Mr. Chamberlain's move will become more apparent in the future than they were when his unexpected action surprised Eng-

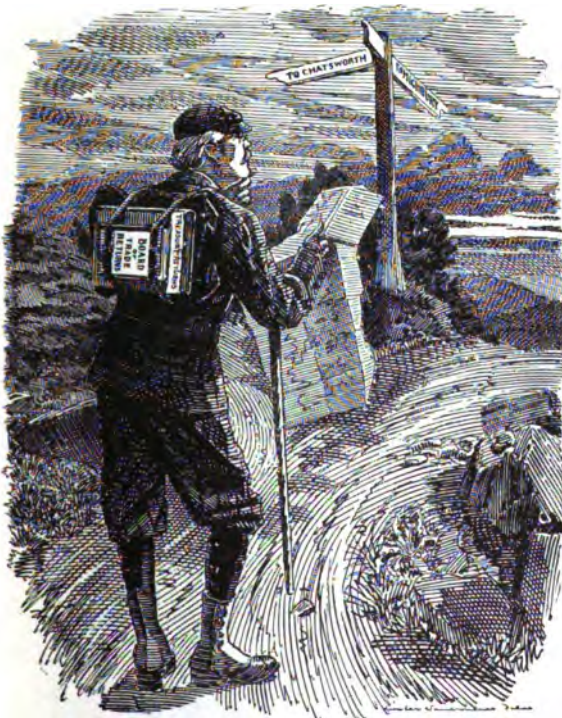
lish politicians of all parties. It had become evident to all that the Balfour administration could survive for only a short time, and it is probable that Mr. Chamberlain preferred to be in an independent position in order that he might be free to shape his political future according to circumstances which bid fair to bring about some great changes in the structure of British political parties. There was no pretense that Mr. Chamberlain's retirement from the cabinet meant a preference for private life or a lessening of public activities. On the contrary, it was avowedly for the purpose of enabling him to work the more freely and effectively for the promotion of his public aims. He remains, of course, a member of Parliament and the leader of the Liberal-Unionist group, and his close relations with Mr. Balfour are shown by the fact that his son, Austen, remains in the cabinet.

Salisbury.—The death of Lord Salisbury, who "The cull that men do," had retired only last year from the premiership, occurred on August 22, and thus preceded by less than a month the sensational changes in Mr. Balfour's cabinet. It



MR. J. AUSTEN CHAMBERLAIN.

(Son of the Rt. Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, who remains in the cabinet from which his father has resigned.)



BALFOUR AT THE PARTING OF THE WAYS.

THE WAYFARER (long troubled by Philosophical Doubt):
"Well! now I suppose I really must make up my mind!"

From *Punch* (London).

was Mr. Chamberlain who had drawn Lord Salisbury into the great South African war, for which the war department, then directed by Lord Lansdowne, was totally unprepared. How pitifully mismanaged were military affairs when the South African war broke out has now been made plain by the report of the "Royal Commission on the South African War." This report is a voluminous one, and appears in more than 1,700 large printed pages. It makes ugly reading for the thoughtful British public. It was a painful coincidence that this great public document, with its mass of unanswerable evidence, should have appeared on almost the exact date of Lord Salisbury's death, condemning as it does the misgovernment for which he as prime minister was responsible, and which brought about England's most hazardous and costly modern war. It was another painful coincidence that the closing of Lord Salisbury's career should have come at a time when the outbreak of terrible massacres in Macedonia,—where Turks have been slaughtering the Christian population by thousands, if not by tens of thousands,—has called the whole world's attention to the fact that the fault lies, primarily, at the door of Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury, who succeeded, in the Congress of Berlin in 1878, in thwarting the plan of Russia under which Macedonia had become a part of Bulgaria, and in handing back Macedonia to



SUPPLYING THE SULTAN WITH A NEW LEG.

(From a *Punch* cartoon of July 6, 1878. Disraeli and Bismarck are at the left and right, Salisbury being the central figure.)

the Turks. We reproduce herewith a cartoon of that period from *Punch*. It represents Disraeli, Salisbury, and Bismarck as supplying the Sultan with a new artificial Balkan leg after Russia had deprived him of the original member. The diabolism of English Tory statesmanship at that time is now having its natural result in the hideous disorders in the Bulgarian villages and hamlets of Macedonia that have aroused horror and indignation the world over. Again, it is Russia alone to whom the tortured Macedonians can look for the authoritative word or deed that would emancipate them. She saved them a quarter of a century ago, and England thrust them back into Turkish slavery. If she should undertake to relieve them now, she fears that England would not only plot against her in the near East, but, through her anti-Russian alliance with Japan, would seize the opportunity to thwart Russian aims in the far East. The Grand Turk is indeed "between Russia and the deep sea." The Russian Bear hesitates because of malevolent enemies ready to attack from the rear.



BETWEEN RUSSIA AND THE DEEP SEA.

From *Punch* (London), September 9, 1903.

The Outbreak in Macedonia. It is hard to see how the little principality of Bulgaria, ill-prepared as it is to cope with the powerful armies of the Sultan, can be prevented from going to war unless the dictates of humanity shall have forced the Russian and Austrian governments to intervene by force, occupy the disturbed parts of European Turkey, and put an end forever to the possibility in those districts of outrages against Christians by uncontrolled Turkish troops. We publish elsewhere a careful article from the pen of a high authority upon the situation in Turkey as it seemed to be in the third week of September.

Our contributor is the author of the widely read article which appeared in our issue for February, 1902, entitled "The Turkish Situation." In our department of "Leading Articles of the Month" will also be found some instructive comments upon the Eastern situation.

At Beirut and Elsewhere in Turkey. It was to have been expected that the revolution in Macedonia would stir up Mohammedan fanaticism in

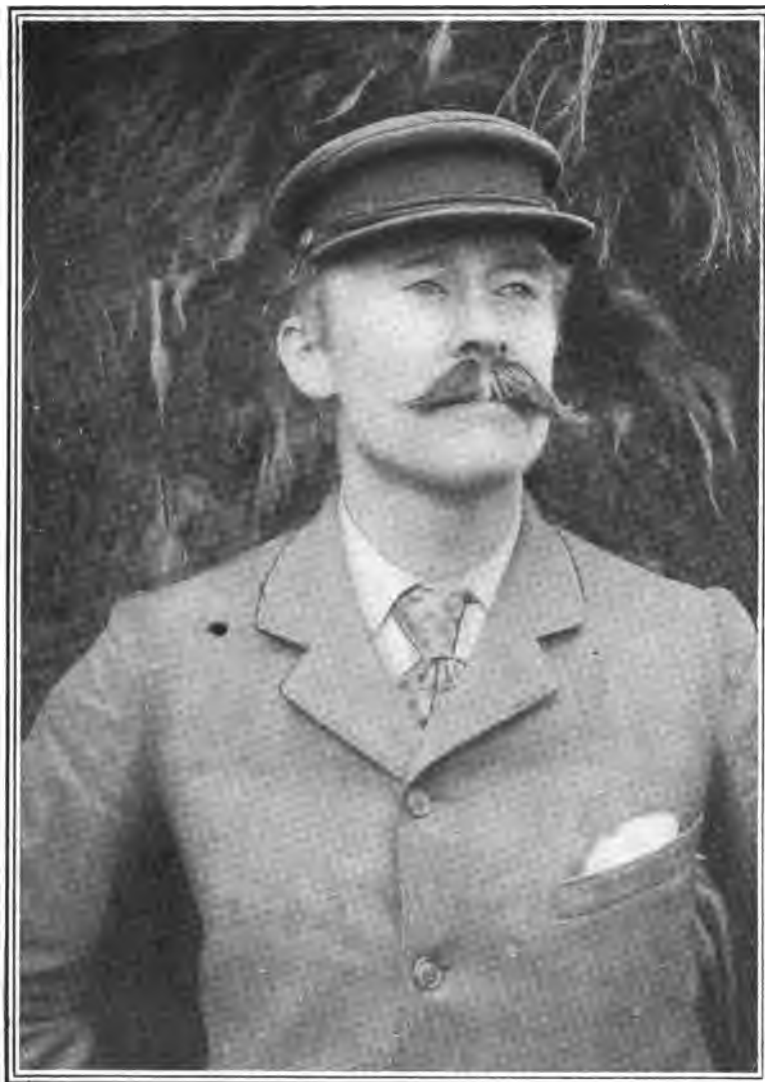
other parts of the Turkish Empire not only against the Christian subjects of the Sultan, but also against foreigners. Thus, disturbances of more or less seriousness have been reported from various parts of Asiatic Turkey. On August 27, there came what seemed an authentic report that a fatal assault had been made on the American vice-consul at Beirut, on the Syrian coast. Admiral Cotton was cruising in the Mediterranean with our European squadron, consisting of the



A VIEW OF EUPHRATES COLLEGE, AT HARPOOT, ASIATIC TURKEY.



A VIEW OF BEIRUT AND ITS HARBOR, ON THE EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN COAST.



COMMANDER ROBERT E. PEARY, U. S. N.
(Who is to lead another Arctic expedition.)

Brooklyn, San Francisco, and Machias, and he was ordered immediately, by the President's direction, to proceed to Beirut. It was found that Vice-Consul Magelssen had escaped injury; yet the serious unrest in the community, and the worse than ineffective conduct of the Turkish authorities, made it seem desirable for Admiral Cotton to remain for a while in that neighborhood. There is located at Beirut an American institution known as the Syrian Protestant College, which has a medical school as one of its departments, and which has rendered great service to Asiatic Turkey. At Harpoot, there is another American institution known as Euphrates Col-

lege. Two or three years ago, some of its buildings were burned, Turkish soldiers aiding the mob that did the mischief. Our government has been told that this Harpoot college is again threatened with harm. These institutions are under the guarantee of treaties, and also have specific charters from the Sultan. Our government cannot, therefore, allow them to be molested. The Turkish Government has become an international nuisance. The great powers ought to expel it at once from Europe, and ought to place it under strict regulation in Asia.

*Progress
in Other
Fields.*

With all the failures of international politics to justify the hopes of mankind, the world makes steady progress in many fields. Scientific discovery goes on apace in various lines of observation. Thus Commander Peary,—no mere adventurous competitor for the honor of reaching the Pole, but a valuable contributor to scientific knowledge,—has obtained permission of the United States Government to spend another three years in Arctic exploration. Most of the powers, including the United States, have signed the protocol adopted by the Congress of Berlin in regard to wireless telegraphy. The

new educational year opens prosperously in the United States, while in England it finds the Nonconformists fighting the rates levied under the new Education Act, and in France it finds great disturbance resulting from the suppression of religious schools. A great tribute to American educational progress is paid in the visit to this country of thirty of the most distinguished leaders of educational work in England, under the escort and through the agency of the munificent Mr. Mosely. The English educators will arrive on October 10. President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia, will act as chief director of their itinerary.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From August 21 to September 20, 1903.)



ADMIRAL COTTON, U. S. N.

(In command of the European squadron.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

August 25.—Nebraska Democrats and Populists nominate a fusion State ticket....Official announcement is made that Secretary Root will retire in January, 1904, that Governor-General Taft, of the Philippines, will succeed him, and that Gen. Luke E. Wright will be appointed to Governor Taft's place....Secretary Hitchcock and Attorney-General Knox order independent investigations into the Indian land scandals.

August 26.—Ohio Democrats nominate Tom L. Johnson for governor, and endorse the candidacy of John H. Clarke for United States Senator....Public Printer Palmer issues an order requiring all employees of the Government Printing Office to take an oath to support the Constitution of the United States.

August 28.—In the Democratic primaries held in Mississippi, J. K. Vardaman receives the nomination for governor.

August 29.—Gen. Robert Shaw Oliver succeeds the Hon. William Cary Sanger as Assistant Secretary of War.

September 2.—Pennsylvania Democrats nominate a State ticket and adopt a platform entirely devoted to State issues.

September 7.—Colorado Democrats nominate Adair Wilson for Supreme Court judge and reaffirm the Kansas City platform of 1900.

September 9.—The anti-Tammany fusion conference, in New York City, recommends the renomination of Mayor Low, Comptroller Grout, and President Fornes of the Board of Aldermen.

September 12.—Campaigns are opened by the Kentucky Republicans and the Iowa Democrats.

September 14.—Secretary Hitchcock appoints Charles J. Bonaparte, of Maryland, to take charge of an investigation of the land scandals in Indian Territory.

September 18.—John H. Clarke, of Ohio, the Democratic candidate to succeed Senator Hanna, challenges the latter to a joint debate.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

August 22.—Baron von Thielmann resigns and is succeeded by Baron von Stengel as imperial secretary to the German treasury.



LORD NORTHCOTE.

(The new governor-general of Australia.)

August 25.—The British Royal Commission's report on the conduct of the South African War is made public....The Argentine budget announces reductions in taxation....The Cape Colony ministry is defeated on a motion made by the opposition for the appointment of a supreme court to investigate sentences passed under martial law.

August 26.—Lord Lamington is appointed governor of Bombay to succeed Lord Northcote, who becomes governor-general of Australia.

August 29.—Minister of Finance Witte is appointed president of the Russian committee of ministers.

August 31.—Sir H. A. Blake, governor of Hong-Kong, is appointed to succeed Sir West Ridgeway as governor of Ceylon.

September 10.—The Danish government commission on the West Indies recommends an abolition of direct taxes and of export duties on sugar, rum, and molasses, and suggests insular representation in the Danish Parliament.

September 14.—A delegate convention of Social Democrats is held at Dresden.

September 15.—Premier Balfour, of Great Britain, in a published pamphlet, defines his views on protection.

September 17.—The Rt. Hon. Joseph Chamberlain resigns from the British ministry as secretary for the colonies; the Rt. Hon. C. T. Ritchie, chancellor of the exchequer, and Lord George Hamilton, secretary for India, also give up their portfolios.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

August 21.—The spread of the Macedonian uprising causes fears of a conflict between Turkey and Bulgaria.

August 24.—Italy issues a warning to Turkey against the injury of the Italian consul at Monastir.

August 25.—Moresuet (Altenburg), a neutral district between Germany and Belgium, is annexed to Belgium.



MR. J. S. AINSWORTH, M.P.

(Elected for Argyllshire as a free-trade Liberal, replacing a Tory majority of 602 with a Liberal majority of 1,586.)

August 26.—A mass meeting at Sofia adopts resolutions urging intervention by the powers; Turkey's total force in the field against the insurgents is estimated at three hundred and fifty battalions.

August 27.—President Roosevelt orders the European squadron to Beirut, to support any demand that may be made by the United States on Turkey.



MME. HUMBERT AND MAÎTRE LABORI IN COURT.

(Maître Labori, whose services in the Dreyfus case have not been forgotten, acted as counsel of the Humberts in their trial on charges of forgery and fraud in connection with the alleged "Crawford" estate; both M. and Mme. Humbert were convicted on August 22, and sentenced to solitary confinement for five years.)



A NEW PORTRAIT OF BORIS SARAFOFF, THE CHIEF OF THE MACEDONIAN INSURGENTS.

August 30.—One thousand Bulgarians are reported to have been killed by six battalions of Turkish troops at Smilovo.

September 1.—The court for the arbitration of the Venezuelan preference cases opens at The Hague.

September 2.—It is announced that the protocol adopted by the congress at Berlin in regard to wireless telegraphy has been signed by the United States, Germany, Austria, Spain, France, and Russia, but not by Great Britain or Italy....The Turkish Government informs the legations of the danger of outrages by Bulgarian agitators.

September 3.—The Alaskan Boundary Commission meets in London ; Lord Alverstone is made chairman.

September 9.—The Macedonian Committee makes a second appeal for the intervention of the powers (see page 419).

September 14.—The Colombian Senate approves, on first reading, a bill authorizing the government to negotiate a new canal treaty with the United States.

September 15.—The Alaskan Boundary Commission

begins its regular sessions in London ; Attorney-General Finlay presents the Canadian case.

September 16.—It is announced that the powers have again warned Bulgaria against entering into war with Turkey.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

August 22.—The *Reliance* wins the first race for the *America's Cup* by 7 minutes 3 seconds....The British steamer *Neptune* sails from Halifax on an Arctic expedition....The Zionist Congress opens at Basle, Switzerland....The new United States cruiser *Pennsylvania* is launched at Philadelphia....Mme. Thérèse Humbert, her husband, and her brothers, Romaine and Emile Daurignac, are found guilty, in Paris, of forgery and fraud in connection with the alleged "Crawford" millions....The award of the Alabama Coal Strike Arbitration Commission increases the miners' wages two and one-half cents a ton, grants semi-monthly payments, compromises the eight-hour-day question, and forbids boys under fourteen entering the mines.

August 24.—Grand Trunk Railway shareholders, at a meeting in London, approved the increase of the common stock to \$50,000,000...."Lou Dillon" trots a mile in two minutes at Readville, Mass.

August 25.—The *Reliance* wins the second race for the *America's Cup* by 1 minute 19 seconds.

August 26.—The Zionist Congress at Basle votes to appoint a committee to investigate Great Britain's offer of land in East Africa for Jewish colonization....A new fissure opens in the volcano of Vesuvius.

August 29.—Thirty thousand men employed in the



THE NEW ARCHBISHOP OF WESTMINSTER, SUCCESSOR TO THE LATE CARDINAL VAUGHAN.
(Formerly Bishop Bourne, of Southwark.)

Welsh tinplate industry strike for higher wages.... Caleb Powers, former secretary of state in Kentucky, is found guilty, on his third trial, of the murder of Gov. William Goebel, and sentenced to death.

September 2.—By the blowing up of an Austrian steamer near Bourgas twenty-nine lives are lost.

September 3.—The third race for the *America's Cup* is won by the *Reliance* on an estimated margin of twenty minutes.

September 6.—A train on the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad covers 128 miles in 125 minutes between Chicago Junction, Ohio, and Garrett, Ind.

September 8.—The steamship *Deutschland* breaks the Atlantic record for a westward passage, making the time 5 days, 11 hours, 54 minutes.

September 9.—Sir Norman Lockyer, addressing the British Association for the Advancement of Science, strongly advocates State aid for universities.

September 12.—The armored cruiser *Maryland* is launched at Newport News.

September 14.—Secretary Shaw designates about fifty national banks as additional depositories of public money.

September 15.—The National Irrigation Congress meets at Ogden, Utah.

September 17.—President Roosevelt makes an address at the dedication of a monument to New Jersey soldiers on the battlefield of Antietam.

OBITUARY.

August 22.—The Marquis of Salisbury, 73 (see page 426)....Menotti Garibaldi, eldest son of the Italian patriot, 58.... Henry D. Purroy, a well-known politician of New York City, 55.

August 23.—Charles Carroll Bonney, of Chicago, who originated the World's Parliament of Religions of 1893, 72.

August 24.—A. C. Cleveland, of Nevada, one of the largest cattle-raisers of the West, 64....Major Charles H. Smith ("Bill Arp"), the noted Southern humorist, 77.

August 25.—John Blazer, a prominent Illinois Abolitionist, 89....John I. Davenport, a former Republican leader of New York City, 57....Dr. Christopher G. Tiedeman, dean of Buffalo Law School, 46.

August 26.—Ex-President Martin Kellogg, of the University of California, 75.

August 28.—Frederick Law Olmsted, the American landscape architect, 81....Joseph Haworth, the actor, 48.

August 29.—Capt. A. J. Pearman, "squatter" governor of Nebraska under the territorial agreement, 74.

August 31.—Dr. Friedrich Wilhelm Barkhausen, head of the Prussian Evangelical Church, 71....George W.

Arundel, a well-known Philadelphia lawyer, 78....Gen. Don Carlos Hasseltene, of Denver, a scholar and linguist of repute, 78....Dr. George B. Russell, a well-known Michigan physician, 87....Rev. J. S. J. McConnell, D.D., of the Methodist Board of Church Extension, 64....John Carlisle, a well-known citizen of Cincinnati.

September 1.—Gen. George B. Wright, of Ohio, 87....

Rev. James Leonard Corning, D.D., an historian of art, 75.

September 2.—Mrs. Julia MacNair Wright, the writer, 68.

September 3.—Dr. Emily R. Robins, said to have been the first woman medical practitioner in the United States, 71....Count Francis von Deym, Austro-Hungarian ambassador to Great Britain, 66.



THE LATE BISHOP CLARK, OF RHODE ISLAND.

September 4.—Hermann Zumpe, the German composer and musical director....M. Manescheff, the Bulgarian minister of finance.

September 6.—Charles A. Cutter, a leading authority in library science, 66....Henry Sanford, vice-president of the Adams Express Company, 78.

September 7.—Bishop Thomas M. Clark, of Rhode Island, presiding member of the Protestant House of Bishops of the United States, 91....Ex-Congressman John Bullock Clark, of Missouri, 72.

September 9.—Judge Charles E. Flandreau, a Minnesota pioneer, 75.

September 10.—Thomas Sedgwick Steele, an American artist, 58.

September 12.—Dr. Frank A. Hill, secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, 62....Col. Richard Channing Jones, formerly president of the University of Alabama, 62....Mrs. Mary E. W. Sherwood, the writer, 63.

September 13.—Dr. Edward North, for many years professor of Greek in Hamilton College, 83....Ex-Congressman Colin M. Ingersoll, of Connecticut, 84.

September 14.—Judge Albert Ritchie, of the Supreme Judicial Court of Maryland, 69....Mrs. Alice Gordon Gulick, president of the International Institute for Girls in Spain, 56.

September 16.—Representative Vincent Boreing, of Kentucky, 64.

September 17.—Col. Richard Lathers, a prominent Southern resident of New York City, 82....Ex-Judge Dwight E. Loomis, of the Connecticut Supreme Court, 82.

September 18.—Prof. Alexander Bain, the Scottish logician, 85....Ex-Congressman Edward Overton, of Pennsylvania, 67.

September 19.—Dr. Egbert Guernsey, the eminent Homeopathic Physician of New York City, 80.



THE LATE FREDERICK LAW OL MSTED.

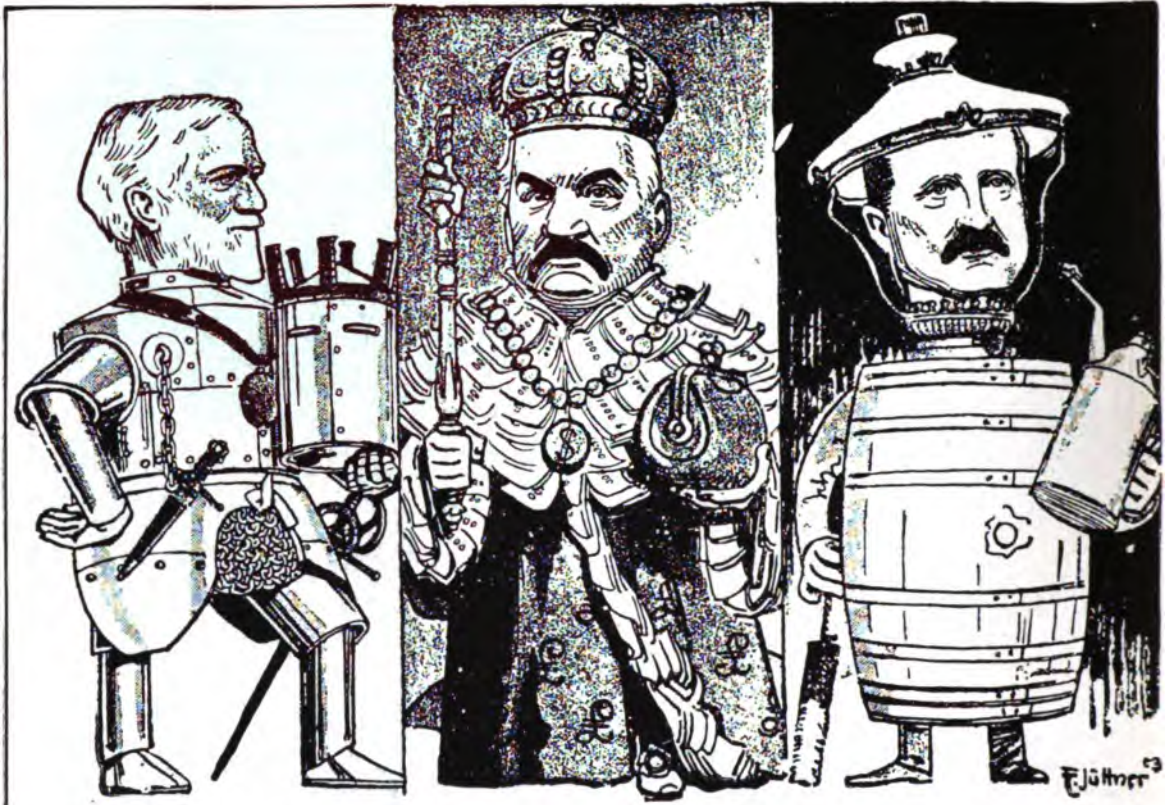
SOME PROMINENT PERSONALITIES IN CURRENT CARICATURE.



A GOOD FOREGROUND, BUT A VERY BAD BACKGROUND.—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

THE most frequently caricatured personality in the press of the world last month was Abdul Hamid, Sultan of Turkey. Under pretext of quelling insurrection and enforcing administrative reform, he has sent about 200,000 soldiers to the provinces that remain under his sovereignty south of Bulgaria and north of Greece; and those soldiers have been carrying on a series

of massacres and outrages that beggars all description and is almost without parallel in the previous annals of Turkish butchery and crime. The policy of Sultan Abdul is to diminish danger of insurrection by using massacre to wipe out the Christian population. This is the method he pursued only a few years ago in Armenia.

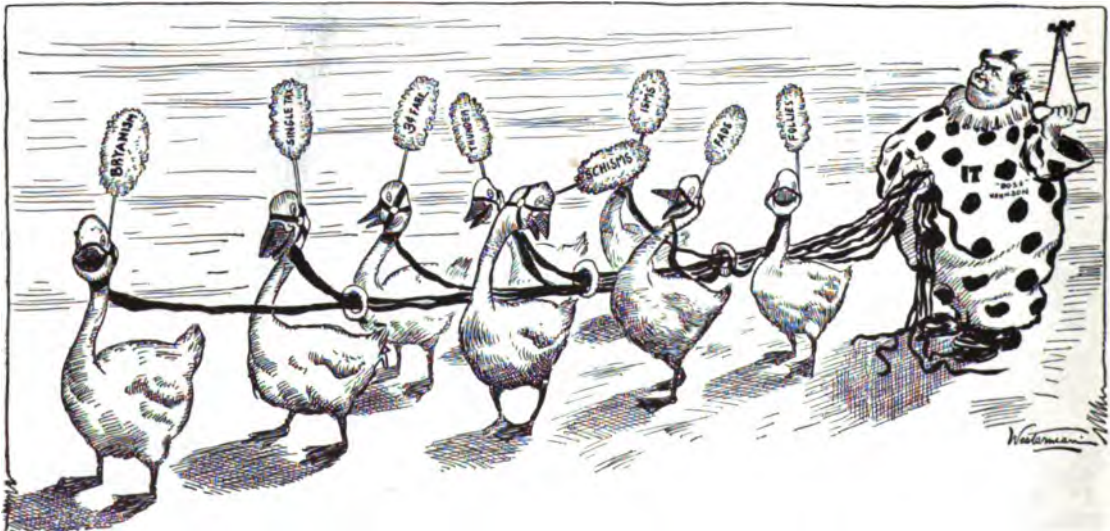


ANDREW CARNEGIE.
Steel King.

J. PIERPONT MORGAN.
Trust King.

JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER.
Oil King.

EUROPEAN PORTRAITS OF THREE AMERICAN ROYALTIES.
From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).



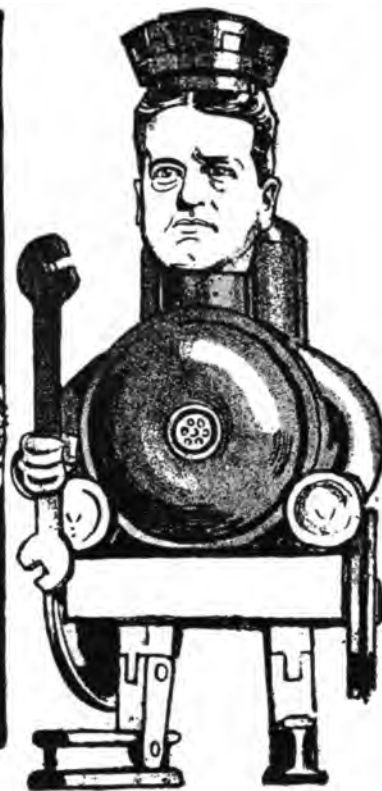
TOM L. JOHNSON AS THE CHAMPION GOOSE-RACER.
(Mr. Johnson is Democratic nominee for the governorship of Ohio.)
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



WILLIAM A. CLARK.
King of Copper.



HENRY O. HAVEMEYER.
King of Sugar.

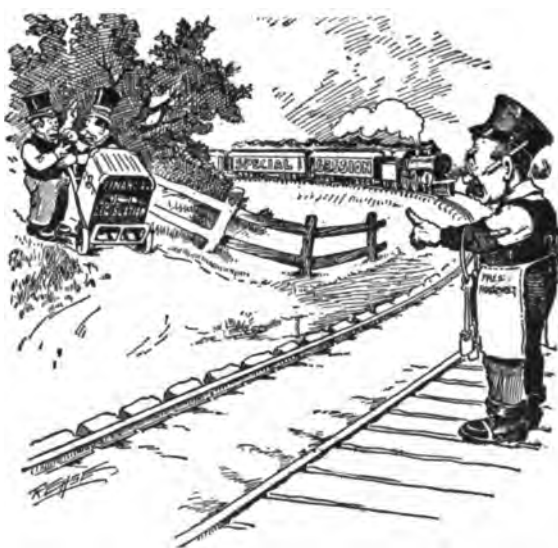


WILLIAM K. VANDERBILT.
Railway King.

THREE MORE AMERICAN ROYALTIES AS DRAWN BY A GERMAN PENCIL.
From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).



ANOTHER SPELL.
Secretary Shaw applies the handy smelling salts.
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



ROOSEVELT (the baggageman): "I say, if you intend placing that financial trunk on this 'special session' train you'll have to hurry."

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



LORD LANSDOWNE—A SERIO-COMIC PORTRAIT.
 "Owns about 143,000 acres, and can speak French."
 From *John Bull* (London).

Lord Lansdowne is not a very popular personality in England just now. He held the war portfolio in Lord Salisbury's cabinet when the South African war began, and a royal commission has just shown how phenomenally inefficient he was in that capacity. He is now foreign minister in the crumbling Balfour cabinet, and is far from being an element of strength.

The picture at the top of the opposite column shows very clearly the position that King Peter seems to occupy in Serbia, where the military clique that assassinated his predecessor insists upon holding the reins of government. The other cartoon on this page shows the



"DRIVING."
 From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

specter of German socialism as it presents itself in opposition to the Emperor William's programme for military aggrandizement and tariffs on the food of workmen.



THE KAISER: "You again, and more threatening than ever! What do you want?"
 THE SPECTER: "I want to tear up that programme of yours."

From *The Town Crier* (London).



ROBBING A SCARECROW.

Helping himself to wearing apparel.
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

Mr. Chamberlain, for months past, has held the leading place in the almost daily cartoons of Mr. F. Carruthers Gould that appear in the *Westminster Gazette*. Two sample ones are shown on this page. Mr. Chamberlain's withdrawal from the cabinet last month was an event so sensational in English politics that almost every cartoonist in the world will have tried his hand at some pictorial allusion to the event or its supposed significance. We shall, doubtless, have occasion, next month, to reproduce some of these Chamberlain cartoons. Meanwhile, the *Brooklyn Eagle's* drawing,



JETTISON.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN: "We're going down awfully fast, Arthur! We must throw something overboard or we shall be smashed."

MR. BALFOUR: "Would it do if one of us—?"

MR. CHAMBERLAIN: "Don't talk nonsense; help me to chuck this cheap food and these big loaves over."
["But when you have no more sandbags, well, then you have to reconsider your position."—MR. BALFOUR, at the Constitutional Club, June 28, 1903.]

From *Westminster Gazette* (London).

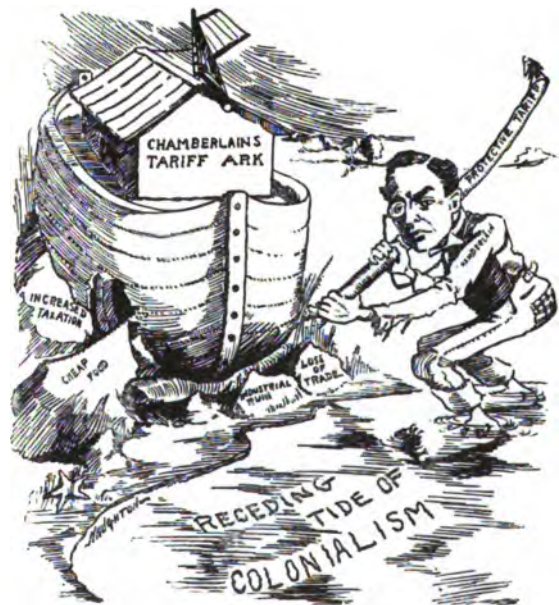


AN EXPLORATORY OPERATION.

THE BUTCHER: "You needn't be alarmed: I am only going to perform a slight exploratory operation—just for the sake of inquiry."

THE GOOSE THAT LAYS THE GOLDEN EGGS: "Murder!"
From *Westminster Gazette* (London).

which appears on this page, represents Chamberlain as in the act of robbing the old American protectionist scarecrow for the sake of getting clothes for his new English doctrine. The *Minneapolis Tribune* hazards the opinion that Chamberlain is launching his protective tariff ark on an ebbing tide, and that it will find itself high and dry on the rocks. This is very possibly true; yet it remains to be seen. Mr. Chamberlain is a great campaigner, and he has the backing of a powerful organization.



ANOTHER BOAT DOOMED TO DEFEAT.

Alas, poor Joseph Chamberlain; he seems to have launched his bark on an ebbing tide!

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



THE KING IN IRELAND.—From *Fischetto* (Turin).

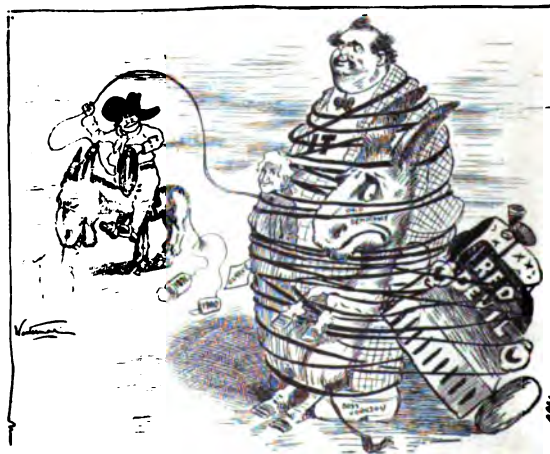
The *Kladderadatsch* cartoonist, whose grotesque picture of President Roosevelt we reproduced last month, has, in turn, paid his respects to King Edward in the manner depicted on this page. The visit of Edward to Vienna, last month, was productive in the Continental press of many expressions, pictorial and otherwise, quite friendly in their nature. The two American cartoons on this page need no explanation.



EDUARD DER DICKE (Edward the Stout).
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



BRYAN AND CLEVELAND (meaningly): "Well, Democracy might make a worse choice."—From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



TOM JOHNSON'S OHIO CAMPAIGN.
"All bound round with a 'Bryan' string."
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



SCENE OF THE HOSTILITIES IN TURKEY.

(This map shows the districts of Macedonia and the Bulgarian frontier, with the strategic railroads in Turkey and in the principality. The Dardanelles and Constantinople are also shown.)

THE MACEDONIAN STRUGGLE.

BY AN AMERICAN BORN IN TURKEY.

THE policy of Russia, and the collapse into which Sultan Abd-ul-Hamid has plunged his empire, have brought Europe to another of those conflicting cross-purposes which only accident can solve. Before these lines are published, every newspaper reader may be wiser as to the course of events than is at this hour the wisest and best-informed minister in Europe. The proposed joint military occupation by Russia and Austria, still a subject of diplomatic correspondence and consultation, may embark Europe again on the difficult but not impossible task of improving the administration of a Turkish province without removing Turkish authority. All things became possible when Russia, in the spring of 1896, after the Armenian massacres, departed from the tradition and policy of seventy years.

which had become the common law of the European concert, in dealing with the Ottoman Empire. From the battle of Navarino, it became the accepted rule, a very routine of statecraft, that the Sultan's authority was to be preserved, guarded, and respected until Turkish oppression took shape in massacre. When this came, after a longer or shorter period of waiting, and a greater or less hell of human suffering, some new share of the Turkish Empire was set in the familiar path which ran through a special administration guaranteed by the powers, a native and local administration, autonomy, a separate principality, protected independence, and at length a separate national existence. The Danubian principalities, Roumania, Serbia, Greece, Bulgaria, and Crete, have all gone through this suc-

cession of events. If Lebanon principality has been since 1860 in an arrested provincial autonomy, this was only a more convenient precedent for districts and territories too near the center of the empire to be chipped off.

For a century, this process has been in progress. For seventy years it was accepted. Those who watched most closely the progress of affairs in the Turkish Empire felt most certain that, given a certain measure of Turkish massacre, one could predict one more measure of European interference. Whether it will be to the final glory or condemnation of Lord Salisbury that he was consenting to a change no man can yet tell. Only the courts of history judge those who make it. There came a day, in May, 1896, when Lord Salisbury had to decide whether he would risk the peace of Europe by forcing the hand of Russia, determined that there should be no interference over Armenia. He loved peace. For a quarter of a century, during half of which he ruled the British Empire, he made it the object of his life to keep the world's peace. When the historian of our day, half a century hence, has before him the private letters and memoranda of this period, he will probably find, if his search go far enough, a personal message from Robert Cecil to William McKinley in the critical days of 1898, warning him that the peace of the world was in peril if the Philippines were jettisoned and left for the ambitious salvage of a colony-coveting Kaiser, and, as the next fifty years go, the historian of 1953 will hold Lord Salisbury and President McKinley wise or unwise.

So, in 1896, Lord Salisbury reversed the policy of Castlereagh and Canning, of Palmerston and Gladstone, and left the Turkish Empire to stew in its own juice, where Russian policy was determined to have it cook until it was done to a turn for Russian eating.

"Not a drop of Russian blood shall be shed,—not a jot of the Russian inheritance shall be lost,"—was the curt phrase in which a Russian *communiqué* (inspired utterance) told all the Balkans last January that the policy which had left Armenia a hopeless prey to the most awful experience which has befallen human beings outside of savagery in our day would be repeated in the Balkan peninsula. The plain meaning of this declaration, scarcely noticed out of the scene which it affected, save by close students of the situation, was that Russia would not again launch its armies across the Danube or land them at Bourgas and Varna. Neither would Russia permit a new Balkan state to arise to hold, as every Muscovite feels Roumania, Serbia, Bulgaria, and Greece do hold, part of the "Russian heritage"

in the East. With its 2,200,000 of population, its frontage on the Ægean, its certainty of absorbing Adrianople and a frontage on the Black Sea, its possession of the thoroughfare of the Balkans,—for up and down the Strymon and Wardar for twenty-five centuries have eddied the tides of conquest and control over the peninsula and its waters,—were Macedonia once to pass to Bulgaria, a great Balkan federation strong enough with Austria-Hungary to stem Russia would certainly develop.

The clew which runs through the labyrinth of dubious diplomacy and blood-stained event in the Levant has, therefore, been since Lord Salisbury's decision in 1896, that in any event the Sultan could count upon first Russia, and next Germany, to prevent any interference which ended his sovereignty over any part of his territory. No more ruthless policy has been known since Metternich adopted a precisely similar plan in Italy from the time Austrian troops ended the short-lived constitution of Naples in 1822 until they were driven across the Nuncio in 1859. The like Russian policy may easily last as long. Whether it will end in the same merited defeat no one can tell. Certainly no man can follow Russian strikes and riots, massacres and mobs, from Tiflis and Batum to Kieff and Odessa, for six months past, in all walks and callings, among peasantry and proletariat, affecting army and police, officials and the mechanic class, without beginning to feel that Count Lamsdorff now, like Count Metternich eighty years ago, stands on a more insecure foundation than he and the world are aware.

For the present, Russia controls, and controls absolutely. In East Asia and in West, at Peking and at Constantinople, Russia maintains an Asiatic power which governs by oppression and rules by massacre until the Russian inheritance is ready for probate when war executes an ancient will and testament and asks for letters of administration on the empires of Turk and Manchu. Last January, however, it was clear that some step must be taken. Macedonia had had its brief but fruitless rising in October. The Bulgaro-Macedonian Committee had had its military chest replenished by the ransom of Miss Stone. Assassination, at Bucharest, had terrorized Roumanian opposition to the Bulgarian programme. Serbia was nearing the appalling explosion which, in June, repeated at Belgrade the murderous conspiracies of the Italian Renaissance and left the old Konak reeking with slaughter. Greece is powerless, held in the debtor's prison of an international revenue commission. A Bulgarian blow was certain to be struck in the spring. Russian policy, un-

doubtedly directed toward peace under the present Czar, sought to prevent a rising by rendering it unnecessary. Count Lamsdorff visited Vienna. His conference with Count Gulochowski was succeeded by a visit to each Balkan capital, where, as he curtly said at Sofia to a visiting delegation, "he went not to take advice but to give it." The fruits were soon apparent. The Sultan, the first week in February, called out the reserves of the second and third army corps, which have their headquarters at Monastir and Salonika, and brought them to a war footing. The Bulgarian Government, the second week in February, arrested the chiefs of the Macedonian Committee,—Stanticheff, its president; Stoicheff, its secretary; Professor Michaelovski, its strongest intellectual force; and Tzoncheff, its military leader. Premier Daneff carried the Bulgarian Chamber on this policy, but two months later he lost his majority, and the Zankoff party, in favor of action, reorganized the ministry, with Petroff at its head.

The third week in February, the Russian and Austrian ambassadors in Constantinople presented identical notes demanding reform in Macedonia, and the Sultan, for the first time in Turkish history, instantly accepted them,—a sufficient proof of the belief in diplomatic circles in Pera that he had previously been consulted upon their tenor. The identical notes of February, 1903, as they will be known in Eastern diplomacy, followed the familiar models of a century. An inspector-general was to be appointed, whose control of the "three vilayets of Salonika, Monastir, and Kossova," or Uskub, would be even in the command of troops, independent of the Sultan. A gendarmerie was to be organized under European officers, in which Christians were to be proportionally represented. The revenues were to be subject to a first charge for the government of the new principality,—nowhere mentioned as Macedonia,—and only the balance was to be remitted to the Turkish imperial treasury.

This programme was universally accepted by Europe. It received as unstinted official praise in London as in St. Petersburg. There was a brief period of dissent at Berlin, but before a week was over, Count von Bülow was congratulating the Reichstag on the end of fumbling (*Fortwurschteln*) in Macedonia; and M. Delcassé, in Paris, assuring the French public that France had aided a solution which safeguarded all rights, and left the republic free for other steps, doubtless in Morocco. There were only two obstacles in the way of complete success in pacifying Macedonia,—the plan was a sham and the Bulgaro-Macedonian Committee was not. It had

those glad to die, and where men die a cause lives.

The plan was put in motion. Hussein Hilmi Pasha was made inspector-general. It was a fair choice. He did good work in Yemen. He is of the old school. He is, after the Turkish administrative fashion, a tireless worker, which means that instead of creating a machine through which he works, as a good executive does in the West, he seeks to do everything himself, and in the modern state is overwhelmed with details. Given old conditions, a free hand, no telegraph, no special correspondents, and only a scribe or two to keep tally of the heads and the taxes, and men like Hussein Hilmi Pasha have for six hundred years kept far better order over the Turkish Empire than any one of its provinces could without them. But their day is past. The Sultan's first ingenious device to divide the powers was to propose as the two European officers who were to reorganize the gendarmerie two of his German pashas,—Rudijisch Pasha and Auler Pasha,—to which Russia objected, and asked for officers from neutral states. Whereupon, Abd-ul-Hamid telegraphed to Sweden, just now in an anti-Russian flame over Finland, and while Swedish officers came, they have never been assigned to duty. Where Christians took service in the gendarmerie in western Macedonia, they were poniarded by Albanians, and in eastern Macedonia by Bulgarian *Komitadjis*.

For two months, while the snows were melting, the streams filling, through March and April, the plan had its brief trial. The time was spent in a steady stream of Turkish troops to Macedonia, which raised the 57,000 in January to 200,000 in June. Opening with 78 battalions of about 700 men, there were in May 156 battalions of infantry, 37 of artillery, and 78 of cavalry. The storm broke. At the end of March, the Nationalist party in Bulgaria forced a reorganization of the cabinet in spite of remonstrances from St. Petersburg. Repression ended on the Bulgarian frontier. For ten years there has never been a time when there were not armed bands in Macedonia, half-brigand, half-revolutionary, and these increased from January to April. In that month, the country was networked. April closed with the dynamite explosion which wrecked the bank at Salonika and the steamship *Guadalquivir* in the harbor. Next, the mountain gorges and inaccessible valleys north and south of Monastir were held by small bands, one of which captured Kruschewo, wisely selecting for pillage a Wallach town of Greek sympathies. Railroad bridges were blown up, and by September few were left on any line. Turkish barracks were wrecked at Köprüllü and

Adrianople, and three forage depots, widely separated, were burned. Twice the revolutionary bands worked down to the coast, once in Yenidge, the Bulgarian tobacco country about Kavala, and again on the Black Sea, Wasiliko; but this is rare. There are three ranges running diagonally across this harried region. One, Istrandja Dag, east of Adrianople, the Rhodope mountains (Perrim Dag and Bos Dag), between the plain of Adrianople and the Macedonian valleys of the Sturma and Wardar, and the third, the lofty mountains, rivaling the Alps, which fill western Macedonia and beyond, Albania. In these three, Bulgarian bands have lurked, seized villages, cut off outposts, descended on small garrisons, and ravaged Moslem villages. Twice railroad trains have been blown up, with women and children. Thrice passenger steamers have been wrecked by dynamite without even the excuse of troops or munitions on board and under the French, Austrian, and Greek flags. There has been no moment when any military success, properly so-called, has been won by these Bulgarian revolutionists. Not a day when some band has not been selling the lives of a dozen members in a hopeless struggle, whose only purpose is and can be to force the interference of the powers by provoking Turkish excess.

All Europe has been hotly discussing whether this is justifiable. The answer will be one of temperament rather than of principle. So far as mere outrage and excess go, there is probably not much to choose between Bulgarian *Komitatdji* and Turkish irregular. The whole land is savage. Brute slaughter and rapine appear everywhere. It is easy to make a case for either side. The worst excesses are undoubtedly by Moslems. Nothing can exaggerate, and no words that can be printed can describe, the woe and horror of the past six months in Macedonia from Turkish troops, regular and irregular. Not all that is told is true, but enough is true to make worse horrors than any man dare tell. But Turkish oppression has this about it that it breeds madness. There is a righteous insanity which oppression must breed if freedom is to be won. Given Russian policy as it now stands, and there is no prospect in any course but the hopeless struggle into which the best of young Bulgaria has flung itself headlong, as though life were the least of earth's goods. Turkish administration has suffered the loss which afflicts all things Turkish under the present Sultan. Much once escaped the old rude methods. As the machine improves, it grinds more mercilessly. The Macedonian farmer pays a tithe of 12½ per cent., an imperial tax of 15, and faces an export duty of 8 per cent., 35½ per cent. in all.

Head tax, license, road taxes—with no roads—and all the various imposts, from 35 to 45 per cent. of the produce of labor, are swept into the gatherer's or, worse, tax-farmer's hands. Heavy taxes exist in all Continental Europe, witness Italy; but at least there is legal security. In Turkey, while there is peace and much prosperity for many, and a steady growth of wealth and population, there is never security. This oppresses like a nightmare. More than once, I have seen the immigrant from Turkey in this country who there had enjoyed some ease, position, and wealth, and who here was vainly struggling for a bare, hard livelihood, and, when I spoke of the contrast, have been instantly told that this was a small price to pay for the mere sense of security under law and freedom from arbitrary power.

Turkish rule, at many points, gives better things than would exist without it. Yet this insecurity is never absent. In Macedonia, wholesale official corruption is complicated by that worst of social pests, brigandage. Yet ill as things were, they are infinitely worse in this awful summer of whose widespread horror the dispatches give so little ken. It is doubtful if anything can make the situation better. All the past combines to render Macedonia the irreconcilable surd of the Balkan. The land is half empty. The three vilayets usually included under Macedonia have almost exactly the area of New England outside of Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, but they have but 2,200,000 population, which these States had fifty years ago. Over most of the region one sees great areas of untilled land. For a generation population has been moving. Half-thriving Bulgaria is Macedonian born. Fully one officer in three in the Bulgarian army, 35 per cent., was born in Macedonia. The places of those who left the fertile Macedonian valleys have been filled by Moslems who could not bear Christian dominion in Roumania, Servia, Bulgaria, and Greece,—in no one of which, though protected by law, is the Moslem's lot light. We all know the Jew's in Roumania. The legislation under which the Jew suffers was originally aimed, not at him, but at the Mohammedan. Of 800,000 Moslems in Macedonia, a very large share, not far from half, is embittered by their enforced migration. It is making a last stand. The Albanian, moreover, has spread from his mountains over the lower old Servian plateau up to the borders of Servia,—Moslem, bigoted, warlike, the very swashbuckler of the East. To-day he disputes in scattered villages, encouraged by the Turk, territory not long ago Slav, either Serb or Bulgar.

There are, therefore, three Moslem populations,—the early immigration from Asia Minor, which occupied the larger cities, first on the Wardar (Zenlje-Vardar), 1362, next in Salonika, 1430, and later in Serres, Drama, Monastir, Okrida, and like central points. Many of these were landowners, aghas, with large estates, the fruit of conquest. There has been added a rural Albanian population and another exiled from neighbor lands in scattered villages. The Greek is a city population. So is the Wallach (Vlack), or Rouman, men given to trade and living in relatively wealthy little places apart from the Bulgar peasant population, owning the pack-horses which were once the transport of the region. Two of these Vlack towns have been selected for Bulgar bands for "contributions." The Slav peasantry is divided between the Serbs in northern Macedonia, and the Bulgar owns all the rest of the region, in numbers fully half of the whole. This population, separated by creed, race, tongue, and tradition, lives inextricably mixed in the same cities and towns, village lapping village.

If Macedonia had a homogeneous population, or had even its Christian inhabitants been drawn together in the past generation, its autonomy would now be certain; but an evil separatist fate pursues the Christian subjects of the Sultan. Passing over the division between two creeds,—two-thirds Christian and one-third Moslem,—Macedonia could at best have barely supported one system of education. Such a single system would for thirty years past, in which education has gone on, been a burden; but it would have assimilated the present generation. Instead, over Macedonia, for twenty years past, five separate systems of schools have separated still further a population already divided. The Turkish Government supports schools,—poor, but better than none, and of late fairly housed in the larger places; open to all, but in which no Christian will set foot. For Macedonia, Bulgaria, Greece, Roumania, and Servia have each supported schools, from elementary grades to gymnasias, in every principal place and in the villages.

This is bad enough in a region like Macedonia, where the Christian population is two-thirds of the whole. In the cities and towns of Asiatic Turkey, the Christian population is only a quarter to a fifth of the whole. Were the efforts of this fraction,—in most cities only from 12,000 to 15,000,—united, education would be a difficult task. Instead, you find the Armenian, the Greek, or "orthodox," the Catholic, and the Protestant, each supporting its separate schools. Each receives outer aid, the Armenian least, but something from wealthy Armenian

merchants. The Greek schools receive aid from Russia, Greece, and private Greek subscriptions in London on behalf of "Hellenism." The Catholic missionary societies aid their schools and the Protestant theirs. No one will attend the other, though the high moral standard and excellent teaching of the Protestant Armenian schools attract many of other faiths, especially if English is taught. After fifty years of partial freedom, self-management and practical mutual toleration, the Christian populations of the empire are as much divided as ever. They make no material progress. They remain dissevered, and each of the smaller divisions continues to rely on external aid for an education which union would enable all to support. The inevitable and appalling fact is that now that the grouped masses of population of one race,—Rouman, Serb, Bulgar, and Greek,—once in the Turkish Empire have been set free, we reach in Macedonia, and will reach everywhere else, a Christian population, small, in the minority, unable to defend itself against the Moslem, and unable to unite so as, at least, to make its moral superiority felt.

In Macedonia, the Bulgarian has thus far won in moral ascendancy over the territory. The Bulgar is as little liked in the Balkans as the Prussian is in Germany; but he has staying qualities not displayed by rival races. The Greek, since 1897, has ceased to be counted as a serious factor in the future. He may yet find a leader. Greek wealth grows. Greek influence does not. M. Ralli, the Greek minister, has shocked Europe by his outspoken support of Turkish rule, which the Greeks of the larger places prefer to Bulgarian. Roumania, smitten with perpetual emulation of French models, has become involved in Judenhetze, and, with the best army in the peninsula, has ceased to possess the weight it once had. The Serb, for some reason not easily defined, makes no progress. Out of thirteen hundred officers, nine hundred have expressed themselves against the murderous clique whose crime shocked Europe, yet the conspirators remain in high place. Austria has, moreover, by the twenty-fifth article of the Treaty of Berlin, the right to occupy the Sandjak of Novi Bazaar to Mitrovitza, sealing the Servian advance. The right is limited by the necessity for notice to Turkey (convention of April 21, 1879), and Ottoman administration is to remain untouched. This occupation was begun in November, 1879, and it can be used to prevent any Servian movement under present treaty rights.

Bulgaria remains, therefore, the only country abutting on Macedonia which can move, and while it will do so at the risk of its national

existence, there is no Bulgarian but has the example of Sardinia half a century ago at his finger's ends. The principality is a peasant state. Its soil is held by those who till it. With an area almost exactly the size of Indiana, or 38,080 square miles, and a population of 1,200,000 more, or 3,744,283, Bulgaria has not probably ten men in it worth \$200,000. Life is all on the simplest basis. The men who have managed its affairs have all been the sons of farmers and small shopkeepers. A very large share of them owe their education to an American institution, Robert College, at Constantinople, whose president, Dr. George Washburn, has had more cabinet ministers in his class-room than any college head of our day.

Organized on this plain plan of small income and hard work, Bulgaria for many years escaped the curse of lesser European states,—taxes, and debt. Down to 1886, it was spending for all purposes only \$7,100,000, or a little over two dollars a head,—one of the cheapest governments known. Down to 1892, it had escaped deficits. They began then, and in six years its floating debt reached \$9,000,000. Of the first loan of \$28,556,000, in 1892, ostensibly contracted for railroads, only a small fraction was used for this purpose. This exhausted the borrowing capacity of the state at Vienna, and for the next large loan of \$25,000,000, in 1901, it pledged a tobacco monopoly to the Banque de Paris et des Pays Bas, getting a 5 per cent. loan taken at 78. Its credit has never been below a 6 per cent. basis, and its present annual expenditure is \$19,556,000 a year, an increase of over double the outlay in 1890; but for ten years past the budgets have made but a small advance, and of recent years they have balanced. Over \$1,000,000 has been spent on harbor improvements at Bourgas, the railroads are state property, and in this thrifty principality the ruler has been kept on a short commons, which has been a perpetual source of irritation.

The Bulgarian army absorbs one-fourth of its expenditure. It is organized on the Russian plan with regiments of two battalions averaging about 600 men each, which it is expected to quadruple on a war footing, when the infantry regiment is to number 4,567, officers and men. This is a less costly scheme than the German plan of having the increased strength small and making the units numerous, but it risks serious disorganization in mobilizing. Under the act of 1897, which last organized the army, it has a peace footing of 2,600 officers, 42,000 men, and 7,600 horses. In war, it is expected to expand to 205,000. The Roumanian army, a far more efficient fighting force, rises from 117,200 in

peace to 170,300 in war. The proportion of cavalry is small in the Bulgarian army, 234 companies of infantry to 23 squadrons of cavalry,—about half the usual proportion. It is weak also in its artillery. Of its probable behavior in action, no one is yet competent to speak from experience, the brief war with Servia proving little. Its higher officers have been Russians since the close relations established by Prince Ferdinand with that power, and their recall would disorganize it. Its war-footing, which it probably could not fill, would not equal the Turkish force already on the other side of the frontier, better armed, better drilled, and better commanded, believed to be more efficient at all points, without reference to numbers, by every judge who has hitherto passed upon the two armies.

It is in peace that Bulgaria has been credited with progress. This compact, democratic state has pushed education, has a tenth of its population at school,—our proportion is a fifth,—and, since 1890, has required Bulgarian in schools of its 70,000 Hellenic subjects, who even under the Turk were permitted to provide themselves with Greek teaching. It has in a generation developed a very respectable literature. No one can study the Balkans without following Bulgarian geographical proceedings, and the state is wisely republishing the acts, annals, and letters of the Bulgarian Czars of a thousand years ago. The Bulgarian has developed an intensive agriculture. He has expanded the two crops for which the fat mountain slopes are best fitted, tobacco and roses,—there is something very impressive to me in 28,000,000 pounds of rose leaves as one item of Bulgarian products,—and, while manufactures do not grow, the profits of farming increase as nowhere else in the Balkans. For the first fifteen years of its history, Bulgaria had a series of stormy scandals, culminating in the assassination of Beltcheff and Stambouloff; but for the past ten years its politics have often been trivial but never disgraceful, ignorant but not venal.

With the headlong and berserk, if useless, courage which the Bulgars have shown in Macedonia, men had not graced the Bulgarian nature, stolid, hard-working, methodical, and narrow as it has been held to be. These bands have been trivial in size. The Turkish army has been large enough to patrol every sheep-walk, and the Turkish dispatches show that Macedonia has been seamed by these desperate treks. Added to Boer experience, the world may discover that dynamite and the .30-caliber rifle have given the irregular an advantage no one dreamed of. Even 100 rounds weighted a man in the days

of the ounce bullet. The pencil-like pellet and smokeless powder of the new weapon make from 300 to 400 rounds easily carried and triple the absence from supplies. The range is double. The single marksman counts for more. The dying defense of a small band can be made deadly as never before.

Yet success may turn on the general Turkish collapse. For the first time in a century of constant courage and defeat as constant, the Turkish army has been reported mutinous here and there. This is scarcely conceivable. The Turkish line has always done its work hungry, shoeless, and in rags. A small force—not over a division—dealt promptly with an Albanian rising at Jakovo which called to arms the bravest and most inaccessible mountaineers in Europe. Strange tales of the sale of arms, of men breaking up, of desertion, may be but fiction, but badly as all in Turkey has worked, the army has never done so ill in irregular warfare as this summer.

Moslem fanaticism, the Sultan has roused. Long years of rebuilt mosques, of religious observance, and of Moslem agitation have done their work,—perilous work at that. The new spirit has cost the lives of two Russian consuls and the most ignominious apologies yet extorted from the Padishah. It has sapped order and security through the entire empire and drawn farther apart than a generation ago Moslem and Christian. In Beirut, it has brought about, what was least expected, a collision with the United States. This seaport is typical of changes in progress through Turkey. It has grown in trade, in population, and in wealth. Real estate has advanced in value as we sometimes think it only does in this country, and the entire level of life has risen in houses, in clothing, and in personal expenditure. But security and daily order have retrograded.

Our claim and our fleet are but one of the claims and the fleets which the disasters of the year have brought about the Sultan; but as Russia used its opportune loss of two consuls to settle past disputes, our fleet should not be withdrawn until the crying evil of our relations with Turkey, the treatment of our naturalized citizens, is at an end. Since the Bancroft treaty was negotiated with Germany, the United States has ceased to insist that naturalization should enable a man to evade his duties as a citizen in the land where he was born, to which he returned, and forget them in the land where he acquired citizenship which he left. But we have a right to insist on a reasonable opportunity of return for the many errands which take a naturalized citizen to the land of his origin, follow-

ed in two years by a choice of residence and citizenship. This is denied by the Sublime Porte and denied by it alone. For fifteen years, from 1872 to 1887, treaties were fruitlessly negotiated. It is time the question was settled, since the difference is one of detail. To Americans also, alone among Christian nationals, Turkey denies a full recognition of the ex-territorial rights guaranteed by the capitulation. In the past, our government has avoided forcing this issue, and has thereby put at a disadvantage every American in Turkey, be his errand what it may. No better time will come for settling this issue than while an American fleet rides in a Turkish port.

Out of the welter of the past year in Turkish affairs, in which so much has been lost and so little gained, the solitary advantage has been secured by the "honest broker," Germany. German capital, representing the Deutsche Bank, various steel syndicates, and the political and diplomatic influence which secured the necessary concessions, has in the past ten years gained control of the railroads in Asia Minor, originally English, starting from Smyrna, and opposite Constantinople, half the length of Asia Minor, ending at Konieh, the ancient Iconium. The completion of this road to the Persian Gulf involves an expenditure of \$100,000,000 to build fifteen hundred miles of railways. An ingenious international plan, in which Germany gained preferential rates for German freight and secured a majority of a board on which England, France, and Germany were to be "equally" represented, attracted neither of the first two countries, and aroused the most vehement criticism in Parliament and the English press. German capital has undertaken the task alone, aided by an Ottoman bond issue. The agreement thus far made extends the line from Konieh to Eregli, bonds being issued to the amount of \$10,800,000. This works out to about \$86,000 a mile, as the 4 per cent. bonds can be sold at about 80, the subvention will yield about \$70,800 per mile for construction, and there is an additional guaranty of \$1,200 a mile for running expenses. The section to Eregli is one of ten sections receiving a like subvention for the line to the gulf, by the Euphrates line.

Its terminus is to be Koweit, a port in which Great Britain has long claimed a protecting interest. The prospect of this German line drew from Lord Lansdowne the declaration, last May, that Great Britain "would regard the establishment of a naval base or a fortified port in the Persian Gulf by any other power as a very grave menace to British interests, and that we should certainly resist it by every means at our disposal."

LORD SALISBURY AS A STATESMAN.



THE LATE MARQUIS OF SALISBURY.
(Robert Arthur Talbot Gascoyne-Cecil.)

LORD SALISBURY'S death, on August 22, allowed time for the use of his portrait as the frontispiece of the September number of this REVIEW, but not for any comment upon his career. He was never much admired by the people of the United States, and certainly he was not one of the especial friends or admirers of this country. In his later years as a ruler it became a matter of necessary English policy to cultivate good relations with the government at Washington; but so far as the Tory government was concerned it was the Balfours, the Chamberlains, and the newer men rather than the Salisburys and the old-fashioned Tories who abandoned the traditional attitude of unfriendliness and contempt for the Yankee nation. The explanation of Lord Salisbury's career is that the England of the past half-century has been at odds with itself, being half-democratic and half-aristocratic,—half "masses" and half "classes." For a part of the time the masses have had the majority in Parliament, and for a part of the time the classes have had their innings. Lord Salisbury had the cynicism to make himself the willing and constant exponent of the selfish interest of the classes, as against the aspirations of the people. As a statesman, he seemed to men of other nations almost always half-informed and amateurish. His career was one long series of mistakes at vital moments.

Altogether, he was prime minister for thirteen years. He was seventy-three years old last February, and he had retired from the premiership in the previous July. He had been in public life for fifty years. He was a man of great personal accomplishments, of devotion to the physical sciences, and of admirable qualities in every private aspect and relation. Mr. Stead,—who, though so many years younger, had been almost if not quite the most zealous and conspicuous journalistic opponent of Lord Salisbury in every critical period from the Bulgarian troubles of 1876 to the South African War,—sends us the following paragraphs, which are frank, but, from the point of view of so determined an opponent, are also very considerate and kind :

MR. STEAD'S ESTIMATE.

The death of Lord Salisbury, on the fiftieth anniversary of his *début* in public life, followed soon upon his retirement from office. The tributes paid to his character in the press have been

characterized by great good feeling, and an honest desire to say the kindest things possible about the last historic figure of the Victorian era. That Lord Salisbury was a good man is beyond all question. Whether he was a great one is more open to doubt. He had many great qualities. His private life was flawless, his public career was, on the whole, with one terrible exception, singularly free from blemish. He was a sincere patriot, and an earnest, although somewhat cynical, Christian. He was nothing of a demagogue, and he seldom or never played to the gallery. He was a fine type of the aristocrat of Elizabethan traditions, who spoke the thing he would, and played the lofty *rôle* to which he succeeded by right of birth with distinction from first to last. All these things may be admitted without reserve, and still his claim to be regarded as a great statesman may remain open to question.

The one great blot on his career was his acquiescence in the fatal policy of Lord Beaconsfield. For years no Tory statesman held Mr. Disraeli in more unconcealed aversion. "As for Disraeli," he is reported to have said, soon after taking office under him in 1874, "loathing is too mild a word to express my feeling toward him." Yet within four years he became the facile tool of the man whom he detested. It was a great apostasy. Lord Salisbury was the last man in the world who ought to have done Lord Beaconsfield's bidding at that crisis. Lord Salisbury was famous for his championship of the cause of the Eastern Christians. At Constantinople, in 1876, he had rivaled General Ignatieff in his advocacy of the Bulgarian cause. Yet when Lord Derby's resignation placed the foreign office within his grasp, he succumbed before the temptation, and consented to play the unworthy *rôle* of defender of the Turk. The hideous welter of bloody anarchy in Macedonia is the legacy which we inherited from Lord Salisbury's subservience to Lord Beaconsfield at the Congress of Berlin.

To snatch a fleeting popularity at home he took part in the reëslavement of Macedonia, which but for his action would have been part of free, self-governing Bulgaria. To thrust Christian populations back under the heel of the Turk was not proper work for a Cecil. But he did it. Nor was it the only price he had to pay for his alliance with Lord Beaconsfield. No one had exposed more clearly than he the suicidal folly of Afghan wars. But the year of his apostasy at Berlin did not close until he was compelled to acquiesce in the crime of another march upon Kabul.

If his betrayal of Bulgarian liberty was his greatest positive offense, the worst negative crime that lies at his door was his failure to check the policy of Mr. Chamberlain in South Africa. He was then an old man, and his mind may not have been sufficiently alert to grasp the bearings of the policy initiated by Lord Milner and championed by Mr. Chamberlain. Any prime minister in full possession of all his faculties would have compelled Mr. Chamberlain and Lord Lansdowne to keep step. He appears to have allowed them to go as they pleased. Hence Mr. Chamberlain was able to plunge the empire into war before his colleague at the war office had begun to prepare for the campaign. Lord Salisbury failed us badly in that critical time. He failed the peace party, which trusted in him to avert the war, and he failed the war party, which had a right to expect that he would keep the war office in touch with the colonial secretary. Mr. Chamberlain was too many for his aged chief, and we are to-day reaping the consequences of Lord Salisbury's failure to assert his authority in his own cabinet. There is reason to believe that Lord Salisbury realized this when it was too late. But to the last he entertained such an enthusiastic admiration for the Boers that if his private utterances had been made in public he would have had his windows broken as a pro-Boer.



HATFIELD HOUSE, RESIDENCE OF THE LATE LORD SALISBURY.



POPE PIUS X.



THE HOUSE WHERE POPE PIUS X. WAS BORN, AT RIESI, FROM THE STREET.

SOME FURTHER NOTES ON THE POPE'S PERSONALITY.

THE election of Cardinal Sarto as Pope came about so unexpectedly that the world at large knew almost nothing about him when the announcement was made. It is not strange, therefore, that there should have been a continuing and progressive interest in his personality and in disclosures relating to his traits and his career. While in our articles last month the more important external facts were presented, matters of a more intimate sort have since been appearing in Europe from the pens of those qualified by long personal acquaintance to write of the genial and attractive prelate who now occupies the Vatican. Furthermore, it has taken some little time to obtain from Italy the photographs of places and persons associated with Sarto's career, and some of these pictures are presented herewith by way of supplement to the articles published in our September number.

The writer who signs himself "Emilio Elbano" contributes to the September *Contemporary Review* as exceptionally well-informed an article as has yet appeared on the life and character of the new Pope. Of Pius X., Mr. "Elbano" takes the highest view. But he does not envy his lot. He begins his article by quoting a remark made to him by a French prelate that "Poor Cardinal Sarto must have committed some grievous sin, else God would not have condemned him to be Pope, and to suffer life-long imprisonment in the Vatican."

POPE AGAINST HIS WILL.

Cardinal Sarto was one of at least three cardinals,—the others being Di Pietro and Capece-latro,—who were absolutely determined to refuse the Papacy. Sarto only yielded slowly, painfully, conscientiously, to the repeated entreaties of Agliardi, Satolli, and Ferrera. He would as lief have become Czar of Russia as Pope of Rome; and ever since his election he has been fretting and pining. As Patriarch of Venice he was in his element. As Pope he is a fish out of water:

Sarto is, above all else, a genuine warm-hearted priest who cares nothing about high-sounding phrases, and possesses divine fire enough within him to purify what it touches. His sympathy is not for abstractions, but for men of flesh and blood; his hatred not for criminals, but for all manner of evil. The charity which actuates him, and about which a whole cycle of legends has grown up, has its roots in selflessness and its fruit in dried-up tears, in assuaged sufferings, in healed hearts and hopeful souls. It is not too much to say that Sarto, who was always a spiritual shepherd and never fully entered into the rôle of "Eminence," is characterized by true lowliness of spirit.

A PEASANT AT THE VATICAN.

The new Pope was a peasant, and a peasant he will remain:

It may have been the recollection of the modest dwelling in which he was born which inspired the sovereign

Pontiff when lately giving his instructions to the architects and upholsterers, who were about to fit up his apartments in the Vatican, to say: "Above all things, don't make them too beautiful, and let there be no mirrors!"

When Pius X. was a boy, he was noted for his boisterous spirits, ready wit, and harmless jokes:

It was no easy matter for his parents to provide the wherewithal to pay for his education, and a story is told



THE MOTHER OF THE POPE.

which, whether fact or fiction, is characteristic of the lad and the man. His mother was obliged at some period of his studies to sell a little strip of land belonging to the family, in order to pay for his tuition and keep. "And now, Beppo," she said, "how shall we manage to get on without it?" "Don't despond, mother: God will look after us," was his reply.

HIS PAST CAREER.

Tombolo was his first parish, and there his first successes were gained. The moral status of his flock was gradually raised, and he was rewarded by promotion to the post of vicar of the diocese of Treviso. It was against his own will that, in 1884, he accepted the bishopric of Mantua, and five years later he was appointed Patriarch of Venice:



THE BROTHER OF POPE PIUS X.

In the city of the hundred islands Archbishop Sarto was extremely popular. All classes of the population revered him as a public benefactor, and looked up to him as an exemplary pastor. The breath of calumny never once assailed him. His simplicity, modesty, and sympathy with human suffering conquered the hearts of all, while his love of justice, which was not always



SISTERS OF THE POPE AND OTHER MEMBERS OF THE SARTO FAMILY.



AN EARLY PORTRAIT OF PIUS X.

relished by his own colleagues, especially when applied to persons and institutions outside the communion of Rome, caused justice to be meted out to himself even by the outspoken adversaries of his Church. Whenever the archiepiscopal gondola glided along the Grand Canal or over the side waterways, the jovial gondoliers gave a hearty greeting to their smiling patriarch, who liberally scattered his blessings on all sides. When he left Venice recently for the Conclave, it was they who prophesied that he would never return. "But when he becomes Pope," they added, "he will surely open wide the gates of Paradise to us all, if only that he may have the pleasure of meeting us again up there and giving us his blessing."

His habits were simple, his tastes refined, his affections warm and enduring. He was wont to rise every morning at 5 o'clock, in winter as in summer, and having celebrated mass at 6, to hire a gondola and take a trip to Lido, accompanied by his secretary, Bressan. At 8 he was back at his palace in excellent spirits, ready for work and accessible to every one. At noon he sat down to a frugal lunch which, three or four times a week, consisted of rice and mussels, cooked by his own sisters, who always clung to their simple rural habits. These devoted ladies, when called to the telephone on the day of their brother's election and informed that he was Pope, at first fancied they were being mystified by some practical joker, and resented the liberty. But

when the truth was borne in upon them, a harrowing cry came forth from the depths of their soul: "Oh, God! we shall never see him more!"

Pius X. has a taste for music; and what the writer calls "a genius for religion." But his intellectual equipment is not great. Of his speeches Mr. "Elbano" says:

I have read several of his speeches and sermons, and I find them exactly what one would naturally expect a whole nature like Sarto's to write or utter: simple, unaffected, generally to the point, devoid of tropes and figures, almost colorless and sometimes interlarded with commonplaces. But, on the other hand, he has an advantage which many more impressive speakers sadly lack: he speaks with the accents which carry conviction. His simple words flow from his brain to his lips by the circuitous route of the heart, coming like bees laden with the pollen of charity into souls which they often fructify.

NOT AN ASCETIC.

And of his temperament:

There is nothing ascetic or visionary in the composition of Giuseppe Sarto, who is full of life and joy. His singularly handsome face seldom lacks a pleasant smile, emanating, one might say, from an agreeable sense of all that is good and noble in the world; and looking upon the man as he moves and works among his friends, one would be tempted to regard him as a near approach to the old ideal of a healthy mind in a healthy body. Sarto's soft and sometimes dreamy eyes are extremely expressive, and bespeak now a simplicity bordering on humility, now pent-up fire and energy; his well-shaped mouth exhibits lines of almost feminine softness, and his features generally are devoid of any trace of hardness or coldness. His bearing is dignified but graceful, and his gait, especially when taking part in religious processions, is majestic.

The new Pope has mastered no foreign lan-



CARDINAL SARTO'S STUDY AT VENICE.



THE INN AT RIESI, BELONGING TO THE POPE'S BROTHER.

guage, not even French. He is not a diplomatist or a theologian, and in disputes and misunderstandings he will be obliged to rely on the judgments of others.

SARTO'S YOUTH.

"If the diocese of Mantua does not love its new pastor, it will prove that it is incapable of loving any one, for Monsignor Sarto is certainly the most venerable and the most lovable of bishops."

So said Leo XIII., according to Count Joseph Grabinski, in *Le Correspondant* of August 10, when he sent Cardinal Sarto to that see, then in so bad a state as to make the bishopric a most unenviable possession.

Count Grabinski, whose article is dated Bologna, August 5, knows the new Pope personally, without pretending to intimacy with him. Alike his admiration for Pius X. and his gratification at his election appear in almost every line of an article which is certainly "live," which so many accounts of the new Pope have not been.

Sarto evidently from the first impressed all who had to do with him as a boy who would make the most of any advantages put in his way. The curé of his birthplace was the first to remark him; and

he sent him to a gymnasium at Castelfranco, where he had to walk every day and back, a long tramp, especially in the bitter Venetian winters. His success here was remarkable enough to attract the attention of a cardinal, a compatriot of Sarto's family and of the Bishop of Treviso, who saw that the youth was sent to Padua. Investigation of the register of Sarto's seminary shows that he was always first in his class of thirty-nine pupils.

When very young he had all the impulsiveness often associated with youth. There

is a story of his finding some young men quarreling in the streets of Tombolo. One of them uttered a curse. Promptly he felt a smart box on the ear. It was Abbé Sarto, blazing with wrath to find his teachings taking so little effect. With all his early impulsiveness, however, he seems to have been every one's friend.



THE HOUSE AT VENICE, OCCUPIED BY POPE PIUS X. WHILE PATRIARCH, PRIOR TO HIS ELECTION AS POPE.

MUNICIPAL REFORM AND SOCIAL WELFARE IN NEW YORK.

A STUDY OF THE LOW ADMINISTRATION IN ITS RELATION TO THE PROTECTION OF THE TENEMENT HOUSE POPULATION.

BY EDWARD T. DEVINE.

THE most conservative reviewer of the history of the past eighteen months in New York City, if he will take the trouble to learn what has happened, must inevitably write with kindling enthusiasm. With only a moderate increase in the expense of municipal government, the aged and infirm who have become public dependents have been humanely cared for, and the curable sick have been given a greatly increased chance of speedy recovery. By sanitary inspection, the compulsory removal of filth, the quick detection of sources of dangerous infection, and the letting in of light and air, under the beneficent operations of the new laws governing the construction and alteration of tenement houses, the health and physical welfare of the great body of the working people of the city have been safeguarded in a degree which presents a most striking contrast, not only to the last, but to all former administrations. The multiplication of small parks and playgrounds, and the creation of new public baths at places where they are accessible to the maximum number of people, are typical and brilliant illustrations of the genuine concern which is shown by the servants of the people for the real needs of the populace.

Even the courts, which naturally change most slowly, under the quickening stimulus supplied by the vigorous district attorney, and by the more vigilant public opinion which is a usual accompaniment of reform epochs, have dealt out a more speedy and more even-handed administration of justice. Criminals who have felt themselves safely intrenched behind the police "system" and their unlimited wealth, or behind some political power of undefined strength, have been crowded unceremoniously to the prisoners' bar, and have been sentenced as if they were but common felons.

A full account of the activities of the municipal administration for the advancement of the social welfare would necessarily include a survey of every city department. Especially would it require a history of the transformation of the Police Department; of the measures adopted by various departments to lower the death rate,

and of the workings of the Department of Education, with its new high schools, its increased use of the school buildings for social purposes, and the new organization of the school boards. The Department of Correction has also to show its colony on Hart's Island, its school for younger prisoners, its island building in co-operation with the Street Cleaning Department on Riker's Island, and its insistence upon the serving of full sentences, in contrast with the easy discharges of prisoners with political pulls under earlier conditions. Of cleaner streets; of greater vigilance in the management of fires, resulting in a great decrease in property loss; and of improved methods of auditing and paying the city's bills, it would also be necessary to speak.

TWO OF THE GREAT SUCCESSSES.

There are, however, two city departments, the management of which has a direct and wholly unique effect upon the welfare of the poor, and it is by these that the attitude of the municipal administration toward the social welfare may best be judged. These are the Department of Public Charities, which discharges one of the oldest of municipal functions, and the Tenement House Department, which came into existence within the present administration, although naturally falling heir to certain duties which previously had devolved upon other departments. Both of these departments were placed by Mayor Low in the hands of men who were already, from long experience, familiar with charitable and social problems. Robert W. de Forest, who was made commissioner of the Tenement House Department, has been, for fifteen years, president of the Charity Organization Society, and has helped to establish many agencies of which the underlying aim has been to enable self-supporting persons to remain independent of charitable relief. He was, moreover, chairman of the Tenement House Commission, which framed the law that put an end to dumb-bell tenements, and inaugurated the recent enlightened *régime* of tenement-house construction and supervision.

A NEW DEPARTMENT.

The Tenement House Department is unique in municipal administration. So far as the interiors of the houses in which the bulk of the people live are concerned, it virtually is the Health Department. Sanitary inspection, the correction of unsanitary conditions, and the vacating of buildings unsuitable for human habitation devolve upon it. It brings about the improvements in housing conditions from which result less sickness and a lower death rate and greater decency, and a nearer approach in many other ways to rational family and home life. When the Tenement House Law was passed, it was predicted that all building of tenement houses in New York would cease because of the radical changes made by the law. After the law had been in operation a short time it was found that builders were making greater profits under it than they had made under the old law, and some of its bitterest opponents soon became its warmest supporters.

In the year 1902, six hundred and forty-three new-law tenements were built at an estimated cost of over \$20,000,000. Within the first six months of the present year plans have been filed for a still larger number (six hundred and ninety-nine) at an estimated cost of \$20,837,270. The new-law tenements have proved successful from the tenants' point of view, because many tenants for the first time have been able to get apartments with light, air, and sanitary conveniences. They have been successful from the landlord's point of view, because they have been fully occupied from the time of completion at remunerative rents.

The whole lower East Side is being rapidly rebuilt with new-law houses. In the section between Houston and Fourteenth streets, from Second Avenue to the East River, there is almost no street in which there is not at least one new-law house, and one will generally find five or six on each street, and several others in the course of construction. Under the steady pressure of competition, the demands of business resulting in the replacing of some of the worst of the old buildings by warehouses, factories, etc., and the operation of the new law, there will gradually come about a complete transformation in those tenement-house conditions which have so long been the despair of all who knew them. There is an immense contrast between the old-law dumb-bell tenements, with their foul "air-shafts," and the new-law tenements with their large ventilated inner court. No house that is built under the present law contains any room that is not adequately lighted

and ventilated. This is in striking contrast to the old-law houses, in which ten rooms out of each fourteen were almost totally dark and without ventilation. It should not be forgotten that the leaders in the movement to secure the new law were selected by Mayor Low to inaugurate its enforcement.

THE OLD LAW NOT ENFORCED.

The violations of the existing tenement-house laws in new buildings were among the most flagrant abuses of previous administrations. Investigations made in 1900 showed that practically all of the new houses that were built contained numerous and serious violations of law. These conditions have now totally changed. Every new tenement house that has been built under the jurisdiction of the Tenement House Department conforms to the requirement of the law in every detail. This tremendous change has been brought about chiefly by the methods of administering the law employed in the Tenement House Department. New buildings are inspected at stated intervals, and if any important defect is found, the defect is immediately remedied, or work on the building is stopped by the department.

As soon as builders appreciated that all were treated alike, and that no one was getting any concession that any one else did not have, they readily adapted themselves to the changed conditions, and are now found endorsing the law and its administration. There is a provision in the law itself that no tenement house shall be occupied for habitation until a certificate is granted by the Tenement House Department that the building has been built according to law in every respect. In many cases the department compels the builder to remedy numerous defects after the building is alleged to be finished, before the department will permit the tenants to occupy the building. This insures that the building shall be entirely in accordance with the law in every respect.

Besides watching the erection of new buildings the department systematically inspects all occupied tenement houses. In the year ending May 30, 1903, the department made in all 269,691 inspections, and there were filed 138,270 violations of law. An idea of the great current of work which flows through the department is to be gained from the fact that the normal number of pending "violations" or "orders" for Manhattan is not less than 12,000.

A TYPICAL ILLUSTRATION.

What, then, do these ordinary inspections disclose? The question can best be answered by an



(Conditions found by the department showing accumulations of filth found in the living-room of one of the tenants, also showing the interior dark bedroom where the door is ajar. Over 325,000 such rooms have been discovered in New York City by the department.)



(Same room after the department had acted. Accumulations of filth and rubbish removed; floors scrubbed and repaired; woodwork, walls, and ceilings cleaned, painted and papered, and a large window cut in partition separating the front room from the dark, interior bedroom. This bedroom is now comparatively light.)

PICTURES SHOWING STRUCTURAL CHANGES IN OLD BUILDINGS ON WEST FIFTY-SEVENTH STREET.

illustration: In one house on Horatio Street a saloon and Raines Law hotel were found. On the first floor, back of the saloon, was an apartment occupied by a woman and a child. To this apartment the only entrance in use was through the toilet-room belonging to the saloon. The woman had no sink in her rooms, and threw water and garbage into a hole in the floor, allowing it to accumulate in the cellar beneath. On the second floor were the lodgers' rooms. At the time of the first inspection, the stench from the filth on the floors, walls, and beds in these rooms was so overpowering that it was almost impossible to remain in them long enough to make a thorough inspection. On the floor of one room, which was half covered with liquid filth, spilled from a vessel, lay a drunken man asleep. The apartments upstairs were in a clean and decent condition, and the housekeeper and tenants complained bitterly of the conditions in the part of the house over which they had no control.

Before leaving the district the inspector revisited the building after orders had been issued to remedy the conditions found. A sink had been supplied for the first-story apartment, and the hole in the floor had been mended. The accumulation of foul water and garbage had been removed from the cellar, and the second-story rooms had been scrubbed and disinfected and the walls painted.

In the early part of 1903, the department adopted a totally new procedure in relation to

the sanitary condition of buildings. In former times, in the administration of the law under the Board of Health, the method of keeping the records was of such nature that there was no means of telling what houses were the subject of frequent orders from the department, and it was left to chance, or to the coincidence of an unusual number of complaints at once on the part of tenants, to discover houses that were in a neglected condition or unfit for habitation. In the Tenement House Department, a very complete and elaborate system of keeping the records in regard to each house has been put into operation. By this system all papers in relation to a given building are filed together by the street number of the building in question. Employees in the Bureau of Records are instructed to scrutinize constantly all of the cards in relation to tenement houses, and whenever it appears from these records that six "violations," or "orders," have been issued against a particular house within a period of six months, it then becomes incumbent upon the employee to refer these records to the head of the bureau, who again scrutinizes them to determine from the nature of the orders that have been issued whether there is apparent neglect of the building on the part of the owner or other responsible person. If it appears that there has been such neglect, the house is classed as a "neglected house," and a letter is forwarded to the deputy commissioner by the registrar of records, calling attention to the frequency of orders against this



(Hall totally dark. Picture taken by flashlight. Sink sole source of water supply. Slops on floors, accumulations of foul water under sink, saturated and decayed woodwork, corroded, worn out and filthy metal flashing under faucet, fouling of floor surfaces around sink which tenants on this floor used for drinking purposes, cooking, washing of clothes, and personal cleanliness.)



(The picture shows the same hallway with the sink removed, which is placed in the individual kitchens on each floor. No longer any common sinks used by several families, and therefore neglected. The hallway flooring, instead of old wooden flooring, is now a fine tiled, mosaic floor, which permits of being readily cleaned and flushed with water. All of this resulting from department's action.)

COMMON SINK IN PUBLIC HALL, ALLEN STREET, AS FOUND BY TENEMENT HOUSE DEPARTMENT.

particular building, and the nature of such orders.

The matter is then referred to a special inspector, who spends his entire time on this work. He carefully studies all the orders that have been issued by the department, and then goes to the building to determine whether the house is neglected, and what its present condition is. He makes a complete and thorough inspection of the whole house, and reports to the department: First, whether the house is in such condition as to be unfit for human habitation, and, therefore, to warrant having the tenants put out; second, whether the house is neglected or not; third, if neglected, whether the janitor or housekeeper is competent or incompetent. In this connection, he is instructed to note whether the janitor is a man or woman; whether he or she has other employment, and of what nature; how many houses the janitor is responsible for; if a woman, whether she has a family of children to take care of in addition to the house,

and how many; also the nationality of the janitor and his or her general capability.

If, as a result of this careful inspection, it develops that the house is neglected and the janitor incompetent, a letter is sent to the owner calling his attention to the fact that his house is deemed by the department to be a "neglected house;" that there has been an undue number of orders against the house issued by the department on various specified dates; that a recent inspection indicates that the house is neglected, and that his janitor is incompetent; and that unless he immediately remedies all existing defects, and takes steps to prevent similar neglect in the future, the department will vacate the building and will punish him to the full extent of the law. The records in the Bureau of Records, when this has been done, are tagged with red, showing that the house is a neglected house, and that it is to be kept under special scrutiny and supervision. If any future violations are filed against this house, it will be

handled with greater promptness than in the case of an ordinary house which had not been thus notoriously neglected.

Another indication of the activity of the department is, that in the first six months of 1903 fire escapes have been erected on 1,701 tenement houses, and 3,312 unsafe and dangerous wooden floor slats removed from fire-escape balconies and replaced by proper iron floors.

VACATING OF UNFIT HOUSES.

At the beginning of this year, the Tenement House Department started to locate certain houses that, through long neglect and lack of repairs, had become a menace to the health of the community. The procedure when a house of this character is found is to have the chief inspector personally visit the building. He goes through the house from cellar to roof, and makes a detailed report of the conditions which he finds, and if he finds that the house is unfit for human habitation, recommends that it be vacated. This report is then sent to the executive division of the department, where it is carefully scrutinized, and notices requiring all tenants to vacate the building within five days are prepared. These notices are then given into the hands of a notice server, and one is posted conspicuously in the entrance hall of the building, and another is served upon the owner or other responsible person. At the expiration of the five days, the department sends its police officers to the building, and if the tenants have not removed, they are then made to leave as speedily as possible.

Some of the conditions which are found in these buildings surpass imagination. It does not seem possible that human beings actually live there and retain the least vestige of health. In many cases the plumbing fixtures have been removed and the pipes left open, permitting sewer air to find its way into the apartments and through the house.

In some of the houses that have no janitor, the tenants have used the dumb-waiter shaft as a chute for the disposal of rubbish, fecal matter, and garbage. The bottom of this dumb-waiter shaft, and in and about it in the cellar, has been piled up to the extent of many cartloads of rubbish and decayed garbage,—a filthy, unsanitary, reeking mass. The water-closets in some of these houses have often been stopped up for months, the bowls overflowing, and the floors literally covered. The roofs are not repaired, and after a storm the water soaks through the plastered ceilings, or what is left of them, and in many cases down through the building, rendering the rooms damp and unhealthy. Bedrooms are often found festooned with cobwebs hanging from the

ceilings a distance of two feet, and these are bedrooms in which people are living.

When a notice to vacate a tenement house is served, it is generally very promptly answered by a visit to the executive division of the department by the owner or his representative, who indignantly denies that the house in question is neglected or unfit for habitation, and maintains in the most positive terms that he considers the action of the department an outrage; that the house is maintained in a cleanly condition; and he is surprised that such action should be taken against his building. He is then referred to the superintendent of the de-



SINK AND WASH TUBS IN TENEMENT-HOUSE KITCHEN, TO TAKE PLACE OF COMMON HALL SINK.

partment, who goes over with him in detail the chief inspector's report, which is always substantiated by photographs taken at the time the report was made, and before the house is actually vacated. These photographs have more effect in convincing the owner of the justice of the department's action than any number of reports or arguments that might be presented.

After looking at the photographs, and reading the inspector's report describing the conditions, the owner usually expresses surprise and eventually agrees with the department that it is a good thing to have the house vacated. He then proceeds to put the house in proper condition. This he generally does in the thorough manner which the department requires. After this work has been done, photographs are taken of the conditions, to contrast with those taken before the house was vacated. The improvement that has been made is often most striking, and it naturally becomes a source of gratification to the incoming tenants and to the neighborhood in general. In several instances, when a house has been vacated, the owner has stated that he

gets better revenue from it, and has fewer vacancies since the house was vacated, and that his compulsory improvements have paid him. In one instance, an owner was so pleased with what he had been forced to do in one building that he voluntarily requested the department to order vacated a neighboring building under his control. Since January 1, 1903, the department has ordered 45 buildings in the Borough of Manhattan, 1 in the Borough of the Bronx, 17 in the Borough of Brooklyn, 1 in the Borough of Queens, and 2 in the Borough of Richmond to be vacated. In 95 per cent. of these cases this action has been on account of unsanitary conditions.

PROSTITUTION DRIVEN FROM THE TENEMENTS.

One of the greatest evils in the tenement house prior to the present administration was that of prostitution. No one has forgotten, and there is no need to recapitulate the revelations made by the Committee of Fifteen, and it is also within the recollection of the reader that the conditions in the "Red-light" district had much to do with the condemnation visited by voters upon the former administration.

To remedy these conditions the Tenement House Law provided severe and drastic measures, so as to drive these women out of tenement houses where respectable workingmen and their families lived. The law did not seek to regulate the evil of prostitution generally, but solely to remove such contaminating influences from the tenement-house dweller, believing that such conditions should not exist in the homes of the poor, in buildings in which decent people must live and must rear their children.

As a result of the law and its enforcement by the Tenement House Department and Police Department, the evil of prostitution in the tenement house no longer exists. The means by which this tremendous change has been accomplished are as follows:

The law provides that if an owner does not eject from a tenement house a woman of this kind within five days after receiving a notice from the Tenement House Department so to do, his tenement house becomes subject to a penalty of one thousand dollars. This law is of special interest, as it places the penalty on the house and not on the owner. The reason for this is that very often, when a penalty was placed on the owner, he would transfer his property, and there would then be no way of collecting the judgment. When the judgment, however, is against the house, there is no way of evading payment, as the Tenement House Department has the power, if a judgment is ob-

tained and not paid, to ask the courts to appoint a receiver of the rents, and to collect the thousand dollars out of the rents of the tenement-house property. The department has not had occasion, so far, to resort in any case to these extreme measures, as owners are quick to realize that the department means business; and that it does not pay them, for the sake of any tenant, to take the chance of losing a thousand dollars.

AN ENLIGHTENING EXPERIENCE WITH AN OWNER.

The devices and tricks which some real-estate agents adopt in regard to this subject are enlightening. In one instance, at the beginning of this work, after the department had sent a notice to a real-estate agent to remove prostitutes from a certain specified apartment, the agent called at the department in a state of high indignation, protesting that he had never received such a notice before in his life; that all the tenants of the house were respectable people; that it was a perfect outrage, and that he demanded whatever proof the department had. The head official of the department, who was handling the matter, listened carefully and quietly to what the agent said, and then said to him, "Do you think a municipal department like this would issue an order of this kind unless it had satisfactory evidence that the evil complained of existed? We know that there are prostitutes in your house, and we have the legal evidence, and it does not make a bit of difference to us whether you obey this order or not; but if you do not, it will cost you one thousand dollars." Thereupon the agent replied, "All right; I will have them put out at once." In this particular case the house was notorious in the neighborhood, and the same agent had managed it for years. At one time conditions had been so bad that a policeman from the precinct station was stationed at the house all the time to give warning of its character.

THE CARE OF THE POOR: PUBLIC CHARITIES.

Homer Folks, commissioner of public charities, had been for eight years secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, and it is safe to say that even before assuming public office he was far more intimately acquainted with the management of the public charitable institutions which he is now administering than any of his predecessors while actually in office. Through several administrations it had been Mr. Folks' duty, as the executive officer of a private society, to inspect the institutions of the department, to promote legislation in the welfare of public dependents, to make suggestions for needed re-



THE NEW SOLARIUM TO BE ERECTED ON BLACKWELL'S ISLAND, NEW YORK.

forms, and to inform the public when occasion arose concerning the character and efficiency of commissioners, superintendents, matrons, helpers, physicians, nurses, and others who constitute the army of fifteen hundred employees of the department.

In this instance, therefore, as in the other, Mayor Low was not confronted with the necessity of choosing between the alternatives of an official already holding office, presumably acquainted with his duties, and a novice who would be obliged to spend a large part of the two years of his term in becoming familiar with the work to be done. On the contrary, efficient as the Tammany commissioner of charities had been in some respects, the change began to bear imme-

diate fruit, not only from the greater familiarity of the new commissioner with the general principles of charitable administration, but from an intimate personal acquaintance with the details of the department, which it would really have been difficult to gain as commissioner.

ENOUGH TO EAT.

The complete absence of scandals and adverse criticism in this branch of the municipal government is in itself eloquent testimony to the humanity and administrative efficiency with which it has been conducted. Nothing has been concealed from the public, and the public, knowing how the work has been done, has had no fault to find. Negative approval, however, is but the beginning of the story.

The reasons for the quiet satisfaction felt by the citizens of New York in the management of the Department of Public Charities are not far to seek. In the first place, it is true, as it has not often been in the past, that those who are legitimately dependent upon the public bounty for the necessities of life have been supplied with suitable clothing, with food enough to eat, with a reasonable variety of diet, and with ample fuel for warmth in winter; and that they have been cared for, when necessary, by capable physicians, nurses, and attendants. The former constant stream of complaints from attending physicians concerning the food given to hospital patients has ceased since the adoption of an appropriate diet, the carrying out of which in each



FEMALE DORMITORY ALMSHOUSE, BLACKWELL'S ISLAND.

(Picture shows glass-enclosed balcony, used during pleasant weather as a solarium. These balconies lead to toilets, which are situated at the end of building. Before 1902, these balconies were unprotected.)



FURNITURE AND EQUIPMENT IN A BLACKWELL'S ISLAND HOSPITAL IN 1901 AND 1902.

hospital is assured by the presence of a skilled dietician, who exercises authority when necessary over cooks, waiters, and patients.

The almshouse dietary is considerably more liberal than that which was nominally in force in earlier years, under which breakfast consisted solely of coffee and bread without butter, and the supper of tea with un buttered bread. The contrast, however, between the present and the former dietaries is greater than is indicated by a comparison of items, since, whenever it was desired to reduce appropriations under former administrations, it was the all but universal practice to begin with these supplies. In May of 1901, for example, the Tammany commissioner felt compelled, having earlier protested earnestly against his small appropriation, to cut the allowance of brown sugar 20 per cent., and of granulated sugar 50 per cent. In June of the same year, meats were cut 20 per cent., fish 10 per cent., coffee $17\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and, in July, oatmeal was cut 25 per cent.,—these cuts remaining in force throughout the remainder of the year, with only a slight exception in favor of one of the hospitals. No such intolerable reductions in order to force a reduction of expenses have been made by the present administration.

NEW AND BETTER BUILDINGS.

In the second place, nearly one million dollars has been appropriated for the construction of needed buildings, besides an amount available for extraordinary repairs and alterations. As indicating the nature of the buildings now under construction, or about to be erected, there may be named a pavilion for paralytics, erysipelas and disturbed patients, replacing two extremely old and dilapidated one-story buildings; a home for all male employees, about one

hundred and twenty in number, at the City Hospital, Blackwell's Island; an attractive three-story brick building, replacing several utterly unsuitable wooden structures; a solarium, capable of providing sitting room for three hundred and fifty patients at the tuberculosis infirmary, Metropolitan Hospital; a gymnasium for the children of the city hospitals and schools on Randall's Island; a dormitory accommodating one hundred and fifty male inmates of the city farm colony, Borough of Richmond; three cottages accommodating forty persons each—one of these for aged couples—at the cottage colony for the aged and infirm, which is near the city farm colony, in the Borough of Richmond. Fourteen distinct buildings in all are in course of construction, and nine more will be begun before the end of the current year, and additions, alterations, and repairs have been made to many buildings, including the provision of new roofs, the installation of new steam-heating plants, and the erection of fire escapes.

PROVISION FOR CONSUMPTIVES.

Two buildings have been completely altered to fit them for new purposes, marking an advance as important as if new structures were erected. One of these, formerly occupied by a State hospital for the insane, is utilized, together with other unaltered buildings, as a hospital for consumptives. This was opened January 31, 1902, and provides separate quarters and special care for all male consumptives in the care of the department in the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, and for female consumptives from all boroughs. Four hundred and forty patients were in this hospital on August 1. Eight tents, accommodating one hundred and ten patients, have been erected, in

which there will be abundant opportunity for open-air treatment. It is intended to keep these tent cottages open during the coming winter, as is done in the similar tents occupied by insane patients on Ward's Island.

The opening of the tuberculosis infirmary not only removes the danger of infection to patients in the various hospital wards in which they were formerly distributed, but also leads to the hospital care of many patients who were otherwise entirely neglected in their own homes, but who are now persuaded to enter the hospital on account of the medical attention and special care which is there given. The movement is now well advanced for the erection of an adequate municipal sanatorium for incipient cases, under the management of the board of trustees of Bellevue and allied hospitals. Commissioner Folks is an ex-officio member of this board, and is chairman of the committee in charge of the plans for the new sanatorium. The second building, which has been reconstructed for a new purpose, is to become a hospital for convalescents.

A UNIFORMED CORPS.

A change analogous to that by which Commissioner Waring transformed the force of the Street Cleaning Department was made by the introduction of a prescribed uniform for all employees of the Department of Public Charities, with the exception of certain classes for whom uniforms would be inadvisable.

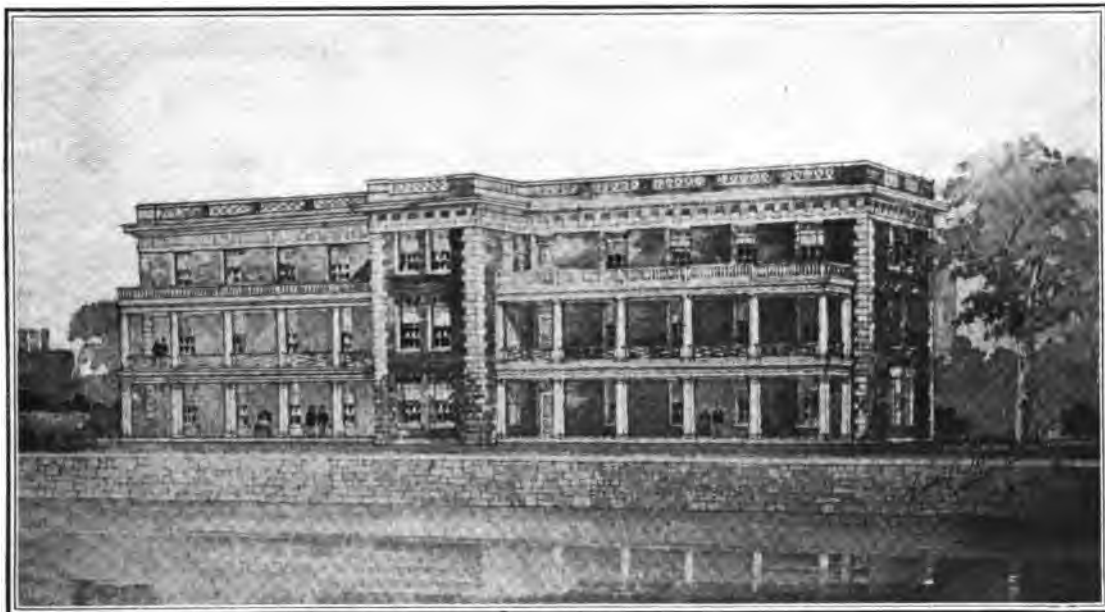


AN AGED MARRIED COUPLE IN PRIVATE ROOM.

(Twenty rooms have been reserved for the use of aged couples. Heretofore, on becoming inmates of the City Home, on Blackwell's Island, they have been separated.)

CONSIDERATION FOR THE POOR.

It is impossible to enumerate the hundreds of minor changes by which economies have been effected and the physical comfort of the inmates increased. One illustration will suffice. State paupers—i.e., those who are residents of the State, but not of New York City, and whose maintenance is, therefore, borne by the State, were formerly sent from the bureau of appli-



NEW PAVILION FOR ERYSIPELAS AND MENTALLY DISTURBED CASES IN PROCESS OF CONSTRUCTION, BLACKWELL'S ISLAND, NEW YORK.



INTERIOR OF TENT COTTAGE FOR TUBERCULOSIS PATIENTS ON BLACKWELL'S ISLAND.

cation, at East Twenty-sixth Street, to the Kings County Almshouse, at Flatbush, Brooklyn,—a long, most uncomfortable, and, in many instances, dangerous journey. They are now sent instead to the City Home for the Aged and Infirm, on Blackwell's Island,—a journey of a few minutes by boat. As there are some twelve hundred such State dependents each year, the importance of this change is obvious.

THE UNDERTAKERS' TRUST.

A reorganization of the management of the Morgue was made necessary to prevent mistakes which have occurred from time to time in the past in the delivery of bodies, and also to prevent favoritism to certain undertakers who have been able,—by securing information from employees of the department,—to subject relatives of patients, dying in the city hospitals, to im-

portunity, extortion, and distress. It frequently happened that one of a small group of undertakers, learning from some employee of the department of the death of a patient, would call on the relatives, would secure the death certificate through misrepresentations, and in ignorance on their part that they were thus authorizing him to take charge of the body. He would then take charge of the remains, insist on conducting a funeral on his own terms, and extort a payment for services already rendered. Measures were adopted which were effectual in breaking up this combination, which had been known as the "undertakers' trust."

MINOR CHANGES FOR THE BETTER.

The more systematic and vigorous following up of husbands who fail to support their families, the assumption of the duty of collecting from parents able to pay for partial support of their children in private institutions, and the employment of an agent for placing-out Jewish children in foster families (this work being carried on by private agencies, so far as Catholic and Protestant children are concerned); the assignment of a woman to hear privately complaints made by women in abandonment and bastardy cases, which statements had heretofore been made publicly to the superintendent; the employment of an instructor for teaching blind inmates of the Home for the Aged and Infirm the industries of broom-making and of brush-making; and the development of the farm belonging to the department in the Borough of Richmond, which had been practically unused for many years, are other instances of advances which appear obvious enough after they are made, but the need for which remained undiscovered until the department came into the hands of one who was qualified by ex-



THE NEW MALE DORMITORY, BLACKWELL'S ISLAND, NEW YORK.

perience and by personal endowments for his task. The farm colony has not only given employment to men who are able to do some work, although not to be self-supporting, but it has produced a great quantity and variety of vegetables for the use of the department's institutions on Blackwell's Island. This again has enabled the dietary to be improved, and has effected a considerable financial saving.

THE FUNDAMENTALS.

The tale is by no means completed, but from the typical illustrations given it will be seen that the record of the department has been one of substantial achievement. The three fundamentals in the public care of the poor are: First, that the sick and helpless, who cannot be maintained by their own friends and relatives, shall be cared for humanely and efficiently; second, that by the exercise of just discrimination, and by the prosecution of those who seek to escape the legal obligations, due precautions shall be taken against pauperism and fraud; third, that the funds set apart by the city for the relief of the poor shall be adequate in amount, and economically expended. These tests, as never before in the two hundred and fifty years since municipal government was inaugurated on Manhattan Island,—these fundamentals,—have been complied with during the past eighteen months.

A NEW BELLEVUE.

Coincidentally with the inauguration of the present administration, Bellevue Hospital and certain allied reception hospitals were removed from the jurisdiction of the commissioner of public charities, and were intrusted to the management of an unpaid, slowly changing board of trustees, of whom the commissioner of public charities was to be one, while in the selection of the remainder the mayor has the coöperation of certain private societies, although the responsibility for selection rests finally entirely upon the mayor. The present board, having been selected entirely by Mayor Low, it may be regarded as an integral part of the present city administration, although future mayors, unless the law should be changed, will select only a minority during any one term of office.

The appointment of Dr. William Mabon as superintendent, formerly in charge of a State hospital for the insane, and the introduction of many administrative reforms, have led to improvements in Bellevue and its allied hospitals, possibly equal in magnitude to those which have been effected in the hospitals of the Department of Public Charities. A far greater improvement,

however, has been determined upon. This is nothing less than the creation of an entirely new Bellevue, involving the destruction of the present buildings, and the erection on the present site and on an adjoining block of a new, modern, and adequate institution, in which citizens of New York will be able to take a pride such as is now justly felt by the citizens of Boston in their city hospital. Messrs. McKim, Mead & White have been engaged to make the plans for the new hospital, and preliminary appropriations have already been made. A representative of the firm of architects is studying the great hospitals of Europe during the present summer, and Dr. J. W. Brannan, the progressive and indefatigable president of the board of trustees, with his associates, are making comprehensive plans for the new hospital.

In the meantime, the trustees and the superintendent of the existing Bellevue are entitled to a generous public response to the efforts which they are making to remove from the minds of the general public the unfavorable impression of Bellevue, which had become as much a tradition of the New York tenements as the terror of Blackwell's Island and its institutions. Unstinted appropriations have been made to the Bellevue trustees, in spite of the natural desire for a moderate tax rate, and there is every assurance that the expenditure of these generous sums is honest and economical.

THE PEOPLE AND THE PARKS.

One of the most completely successful departments of the present administration is the Department of Parks, which in accuracy ought now to be described as the Department of Parks and Playgrounds. Mr. William R. Willcox, who is president of the board and commissioner for the boroughs of Manhattan and Richmond, says in his annual report that the principal feature of park work in his two boroughs during the year 1902 has been the development of playgrounds and kindergartens and the extension of the recreation areas in the larger parks. Playgrounds have been constructed in the four new parks in crowded sections of the city, and these improvements have been in accordance with the recommendations of those who have given special attention to the development of small parks and playgrounds, and are, as a result, upon the lines recognized as most certain to accomplish the purposes for which the lines were acquired.

Charles B. Stover, president of the Outdoor Recreation League and unofficial adviser to the Park Department in its management of small parks and playgrounds, records that about a dozen years ago, when he proposed to open a

playground in Tompkins Park, he received this answer: "No, sir! In the administration of the parks we must not cater to any particular class in the community." And alongside this experience, Mr. Stover relates that before the ink of the governor's signature to the Central Park Speedway Act had dried, the same park board had begun to drive the stakes, setting apart a strip one hundred feet wide, on the park's western border, from Fifty-ninth to One Hundred and Tenth Street, for the owners of fast trotters!

After eight years of wearisome delays and incredible indifference to the needs of the children, Seward Park, on the lower East Side, which had been authorized by law in April, 1895, has become a reality under the present administration. In its outdoor gymnasium and athletic facilities, Seward Park has set a standard for other small parks. Radical alterations in Hamilton Fish Park, to carry out similar ideas, are under way; and the present commissioner expects to have to his credit, by the end of the present term, similar improvements in two other parks in crowded sections of the city.

FARM GARDENS.

In one of these,—De Witt Clinton Park, between Fifty-second and Fifty-fourth streets, on the Hudson River,—a most interesting and successful experiment has been carried on, for two summers, under the supervision of Mrs. Henry Parsons, of the local school board. This is nothing less than a scheme of children's farm gardens. Remarkable results have been obtained; and although there are now, side by side, the gardens for the cultivation of which the children are responsible, and the new park playground, filled with gymnastic apparatus, swings, and sand piles, the attraction of the latter has not been sufficient to diminish the interest of the gardeners in their undertakings.

BREATHING SPACES ARE NEEDED.

The revolution which has taken place in municipal park policy, and of which hints have been given, cannot be too strongly emphasized. Miss Lilian Brandt, in advocating the creation of a new park playground in the midst of a city wilderness, midway between Seward Park and Brooklyn Bridge, described the change in the public attitude by saying that until recently parks were designed for those who did not need them; they were constructed on the fringe of the city, where the thinly spread population already had an abundance of light and air, and were fitted out primarily as pleasaunces for the leisure class. Effort is now directed, on the other hand, toward making public grounds of

benefit to those who otherwise have slight opportunities for recreation or for an acquaintance with nature. The creation of "breathing spaces" in the midst of the tenements is the best illustration of the success of these efforts. Commissioner Willcox has not hesitated to recommend the purchase of this additional site, and public sentiment will speedily come to demand other additions to the still too limited number of such accessible open areas. Possibly the goal pointed out by Jacob A. Riis,—the appropriation of the East River islands for the benefit of the lost childhood of the city crowds,—may be attained sooner than any of us realize. What we may be sure of is that even toward such a radical programme as this there would be a sympathetic attitude on the part of the park department of the present administration.

THE BIG PARKS.

This does not mean, however, that Central Park, the New York Zoological Park, Prospect Park, or any of the other great city parks have been neglected. On the contrary, there has been a steady increase in park areas, and deterioration in soils and vegetation has been discovered and checked. Musical concerts have been supplied, not only in Central Park, but throughout the various parks of the city. Special effort has been made to have the music elevating and instructive as well as entertaining, and in the crowded downtown districts particularly the concerts have been received with the greatest enthusiasm. The use of the parks for nature studies is constantly increasing; and the attendance of all classes at the Aquarium, the Zoological Park, the Natural History Museum, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the park conservatories, and the botanical gardens has been enormous. These things are of equal significance to rich and poor, and to the great body of the people who are neither.

PUBLIC BATHS.

A detailed report of the progress made in this and other cities of the United States in establishing public baths was made to the tenement-house commission appointed by Governor Roosevelt. In this report, it was pointed out that Tammany Hall had taken three years and four months to construct and equip the Rivington Street bath, which had been authorized under Mayor Strong's administration. It told of the effort of Henry S. Kearney, commissioner of public buildings, lighting, and supplies, to obtain an appropriation of \$52,000, for the maintenance of this bath, and the offer of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the



THE CHILDREN'S FARM GARDENS, DE WITT CLINTON PARK.

Poor to maintain the bath for \$17,500, under bond for the faithful performance of its offer. The report also said, "It is doubtful whether the system of floating baths can be maintained many years longer, on account of the vast amount of sewage deposited in our rivers." This prediction has been fully borne out by the action of Commissioner Lederle in refusing to approve berths for the floating baths in localities where he believed the water to be polluted.

Under the revised charter of the greater city, jurisdiction over public baths was placed in the hands of the borough presidents. On February 25, 1902, the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor presented to Jacob A. Cantor, president of the Borough of Manhattan, a comprehensive report, outlining a plan for developing a system of public baths for that borough. The report was accompanied by plans for two types of building on lots of different sizes. The report brought about favorable action by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment and the Board of Aldermen, and during the years 1902 and 1903 a total of \$1,299,000 has been appropriated for public baths in the boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn. Of this sum, \$1,056,000 was appropriated for seven baths in the Borough of Manhattan, and \$243,000 for five baths in the Borough of Brooklyn.

In the Borough of Manhattan, there are now three baths actually in course of construction. They are located at One Hundred and Ninth

Street, near Second Avenue; Forty-first Street, near Ninth Avenue, and at 133-135½ Allen Street. The four baths to be constructed during the year 1903 are to be located in the following neighborhoods: Seventy-sixth Street, near John Jay Park; Sixty-seventh Street, west of Amsterdam Avenue; East Eleventh Street, in the vicinity of Tompkins Park, and the foot of East Twenty-third Street.

In the Borough of Brooklyn, there are two baths in course of construction,—at Hicks Street, north of Degraw Street, and at Pitkin Avenue, west of Watkins Street. Two other sites have been selected,—at Montrose Avenue, east of Union Avenue, and at Huron Street, west of Manhattan Avenue. Mayor Low's administration is, therefore, to be credited with starting twelve public baths in two years; whereas, it took Mayor Van Wyck's administration four years to build one bath, and this had been authorized under Mayor Strong's administration.

PUBLIC-COMFORT STATIONS.

In addition to public baths, Mayor Low's administration is to be credited with active work in beginning a system of public-comfort stations, outside the parks. In the Borough of Manhattan, \$225,000 has been appropriated for this purpose. Plans have been drawn for seven stations in the Borough of Manhattan at various locations. In the Borough of Brooklyn, \$128,000 has been appropriated for the construction of six

stations. These stations are mostly of the sub-surface type, and contain accommodations for both men and women. During Mayor Van Wyck's administration one station, that might be compared with those now planned, was erected in City Hall Park. This station was authorized under Mayor Strong's administration.

THE PUBLIC HEALTH.

The Health Department is, perhaps, next to the Police Department, the one toward which public opinion has been most sensitive. Through many city administrations. Republican and Democratic, a comparatively high standard was maintained, largely because of the presence of representatives of the medical profession, whose professional standard offered some degree of protection against the encroachments of spoils politics. Even these defenses, however, had been almost completely broken down when the present administration came into power. The department was permeated with favoritism and encumbered by useless hangers-on appointed for political reasons. The mechanism for protecting the health of the people, created in earlier days and maintained in the face of so many obstacles, had at length gone to pieces. The death rate, an index of the general administrative efficiency, had begun to rise, infant life was sacrificed, contagion went unchecked, and inspections became perfunctory and ineffective.

Dr. Ernst J. Lederle, who, upon his appointment, was chemist of the Health Department, but who was also an authority on sanitary ques-



DESIGN FOR NEW PUBLIC BATH.

(This bath is to be built on a New York City lot 25 x 100 feet. The main floor, for men, will be provided with 30 showers, and 3 tubs. The second floor, for women, will have 15 showers, and 3 tubs. Picture shows bath-house built between two double-decker tenements.)



HAMILTON FISH PARK, IN THE HEART OF THE CROWDED EAST SIDE—THREE AND TWO-THIRDS ACRES.

tions and on problems of pure food, water supply, and drainage, immediately upon assuming office, dismissed one hundred and fifty-seven employees, and reorganized the department in such a way as to make of the remainder a far more efficient instrument of municipal government than had been the expensive and demoralized administration to which he succeeded. In the purchase of supplies and in the keeping of records, improvements were made which resulted in economy and an increased safety. The advisory board of physicians, which had been a purely nominal body, and was seldom, if ever, consulted, was

reorganized, and for its membership physicians of the highest standing were secured. The inspection and protection of the milk supply of the city was taken up anew, and sanitary inspectors were even detailed to visit the farms from which the city's supply comes, and to instruct dairymen in the proper methods of keeping their milk fit for use. The coöperation of the boards of health of adjoining States has been secured when necessary, and as a result of these and other measures the milk supply of the city has shown a great improvement. The department has also attacked the evil of impure and adulterated drugs and carbonated waters. Public markets have been inspected, and when found to be in an unsanitary condition, have been condemned and ordered vacated or repaired.

CONTAGION CHECKED.

When the present administration came into power, smallpox prevailed to such an extent as almost to amount to an epidemic. In the quarter ending March 31, 1902, there were six hundred and eighty-five cases reported, and in those three months one hundred and twenty-seven deaths occurred from the disease. The crusade of vaccination which was immediately undertaken showed an effect in a decrease in the number of

cases and in the mortality from the disease. In the month of December, 1902, there were but eleven cases, as against sixty-two in December, 1901, and seventy in December of 1900. In coöperation with the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the Charity Organization Society, a campaign of education has been carried on as a means of checking the spread of tuberculosis. The rule of the Board of Health making it a misdemeanor to spit in cars, ferryboats, and certain other public places, has been extended to include sidewalks and the hallways of tenement houses. In 1902, the Health Department renovated twice as many houses which had been occupied by consumptives as had been renovated in 1901. In the year 1902, there were 7,568 deaths from pulmonary tuberculosis,—a decrease of 7 per cent. over the preceding year.

RESEARCH INTO CAUSES AND PREVENTION.

The bacteriological laboratories of the department have a world-wide reputation, and have never been at a higher stage of activity than at present. In the campaign against dysentery, tuberculosis, diphtheria, and smallpox these laboratories are of vital assistance. Not only in the discovery of the nature of particular diseases and their method of propagation, and in



A PART OF THE GYMNASIUM IN WILLIAM H. SEWARD PARK, ANOTHER OF THE EAST SIDE BREATHING SPACES.

(The entire park is about two and two-third acres in extent.)

the development of protective serums, are these laboratories of value, but also in the actual production of vaccine, antitoxin, and other materials for fighting disease. A great boon is conferred upon the community as a whole, since not only is the product of the laboratories commercially inexpensive, but its purity is also guaranteed.

The inauguration of a summer staff of physicians to give to the occupants of the tenements free medical treatment and hygienic directions, the inauguration of a systematic inspection of school children, with most fruitful results, and the employment of trained nurses in the public schools, are further noteworthy innovations. Most important of all, however, are the appropriations made for the construction of new hospitals for contagious diseases in each borough, which will eventually replace the remote and inadequate establishment on North Brother Island.

A RECORD IN LOW DEATH RATE.

For the year 1902 the city attained its lowest recorded death rate,—i.e., 18.75 per thousand. Not only was the death rate for the city lower than in any previous year of its history, but each of the five boroughs had also its lowest recorded death rate. It is still more remarkable that the first half of the year 1903 has shown a reduction even below that of 1902 for the corresponding months. It is probable that the most important single agency in producing this low death rate is the system of sanitary inspection inaugurated by the Tenement House Department. The measures adopted by the Health Department, however, to which attention has been called, were also contributing factors; and of at least equal importance has been the high standard of efficiency in the Street Cleaning Department.

CLEAN STREETS.

Those who recall the dark days before Colonel Waring, and the futile attempts of his successor to maintain the department at Colonel Waring's standard, have learned, under the present admin-



CARTS OF THE NEW YORK CITY STREET CLEANING DEPARTMENT.

istration, that the difficulties are not insuperable. Commissioner Woodbury has attained the Waring standard,—and this is sufficient praise for any department. Subway construction has made a just estimate during the past two years difficult, but not impossible. By the special attention which has been given to the cleaning of tenement districts, not only after a snowstorm, but at all times, this department has shown its disposition to give a full measure of service to those whose conditions of life are least favorable.

The improvements that have been made in the separation of the various kinds of refuse have contributed to the comfort and health of the entire population of the city. Coöperation with the Health Department by the use of street sweepings to fill in low lands infested by mosquitoes, and therefore breeding-places for malaria, has been of material assistance in checking that disease. The creation of a separate fish market, and the removal of the peddlers from the tenement streets, has also been in the interest of the tenement population, although the plan has been inaugurated so recently as to make it difficult as yet to forecast its success. The cultivation of bacterial colonies from exposures of gelatine plates near the street level is no longer needed to convince the public that clean streets mean less of sickness and fewer deaths.

On the whole, it cannot be said too emphatically that, so far as the social welfare of the poor is concerned, there is no doubt that reform has abundantly justified the confidence of the electorate.



OUR FARMER YOUTH AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY PROFESSOR WILLET M. HAYS

(Of the University of Minnesota.)

THE primary graded schools and the high schools of our cities and our State universities have been articulated and unified into a national system. In the newer States, which were settled after high schools and State universities became popular, this system occupies nearly the whole educational field. In the studies offered, in the location of the schools, and in the methods of providing revenues this system suits the American people. The recent rapid development of city high schools, and especially the recent large financing of State universities by many States, and the falling off in number of new private and religious academies and small colleges, indicate that the State is more and more to be in charge of our educational institutions. No doubt parochial schools, small denominational colleges, and special schools will continue to have their large influence, because some of their functions the public institutions cannot perform. The largely endowed separate universities, as Chicago and Leland Stanford, will also carry an important part of the work of education.

THE AGE OF SPECIALIZATION.

A century ago, the whole framework of the education from primary to college classes looked to a finished education. The need then seemed to be an educated class. Now, our educated class has grown large, and has followed the law of the division of labor; it is divided into sub-classes of specialists, each demanding and securing special education. A new system is a necessity. The introduction of machinery and cheapened transportation have carried the division of labor to all classes of people. Special as well as general education is now demanded by the people, because they have discovered the advantages peculiar to each.

The old system of schools said, "Educate the man first and the specialist afterward." This practically means that special education be confined to higher education. It too nearly means a istocracy of special education, and too nearly ignores the 99 per cent. who cannot take a college course before pursuing a course in a specialty. The old-time apprentice system, instead

of keeping pace with the greater needs for special training among the industrial classes, has retrograded. And the result is that our system of education needs readjustment at the bottom and middle, so as to better serve those who drop out during the primary and high school courses, or upon graduation from the high school, and enter at once upon work which usually proves to be a specialty more or less definite in its nature.

THE MOVEMENT CITYWARD AIDED BY OUR SCHOOLS.

In the old system, where the texts, the teachers, and the ideals were all centered in some city profession, and the road to fame was laid out through the complete course of a collegiate education, the boy or girl who was to be a farmer had no special place. The assumption was that what was good preparation for entrance into the freshman class in college was equally good for the boy who was to be a farmer, or the girl who was to manage a farm home. The result has been that, next to the more rapid increase in the demand for city workers as compared with the country demand, our schools have been the most potent influence in leading our people from the farm to the city. Our scheme of education has taught of city things rather than of country things, and by ignoring the farm and the farm home our greatest industry, farming, and our best institution, the farm home, have been discredited.

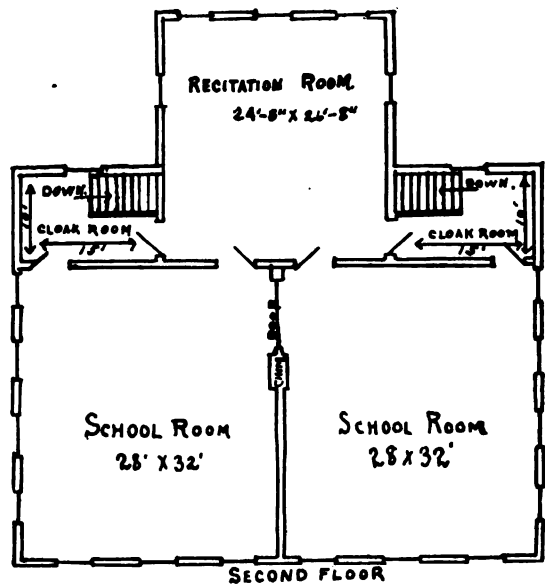
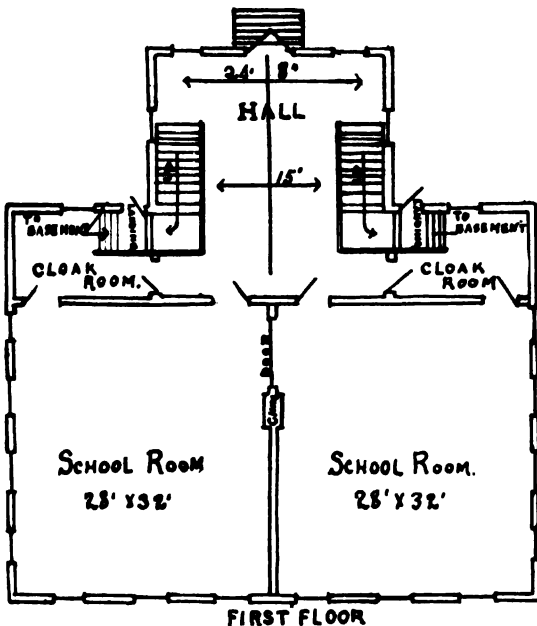
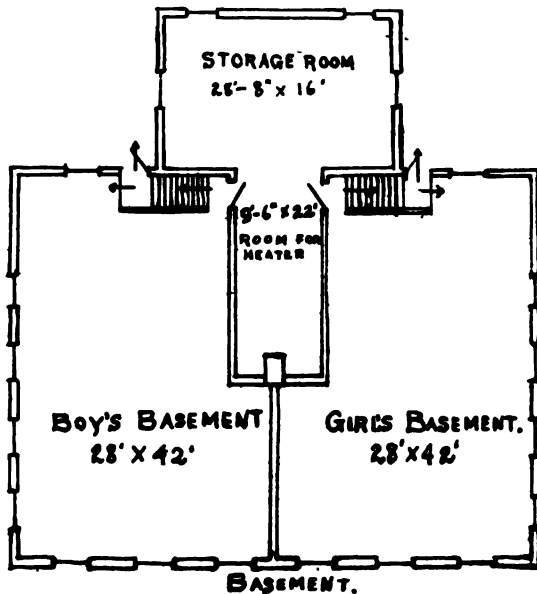
THE FARM HOME VERSUS THE LANDED ESTATE.

To perpetuate our unrivaled system of medium-sized farms, as compared with very small farms inhabited by mere peasants, or with very large farms owned by the wealthy and worked by hired servants, our government could well afford to continue making vast expenditures. Heretofore, its expenditures for this purpose have been in the form of free lands under the homestead laws. Henceforth they must be in the form of special education for the common farmer. Unforeseen financial changes might turn capital to purchasing "estates," and other economic changes might tend to greatly increase the percentage of Uncle Sam's acres owned by

"landlords." Reducing the proportion of that class who manage and "work" lands which they own lowers the average standards of country wages and country living. The principal reason why the common farmers now hold the land is because, by uniting their capital, their labor, and their brains with the making of a permanent family home, they can pay so much for the land that the capitalist cannot afford to own

it for leasing, or to "run" it at arm's-length without pauper labor. Remuneration in the form of independent homes for families is not secured by the absent landlord and by only a few of the inhabitants on the large estate conducted by the owner. Whenever other industries lag, capital seeks investment in landed estates, and once estates with expensive central buildings are developed, it is, indeed, very difficult to break them up into smaller holdings. European estates help to hold as peasants a large class of people who do not lack in ability, as shown by the rapidity with which they rise when placed on free soil in America.

Since the farmer and farm home-maker on the medium-sized farm must meet sharp competition, special education for the mass of farmers becomes a matter of grave economic and civic as well as of educational importance,—a broad State and national problem. Our modest farm homes stand as our strongest political bulwark. Homes on farms worked by the owners are the best places to breed vigorous people alike for country and city. Our educational scheme is not doing all it might to build up our country life, and the times are ripe for a natural and somewhat radical change. We need to evolve a branch of our educational system which shall be especially helpful in building up our farm homes, our farming and our rural affairs, and country life generally. The movement is well started, and some of the leading forces already operating need only to be correlated to develop a unified scheme.



FLOOR PLANS OF BUILDING FOR CONSOLIDATED RURAL SCHOOL, GUSTAVUS, TRUMBULL COUNTY, OHIO.

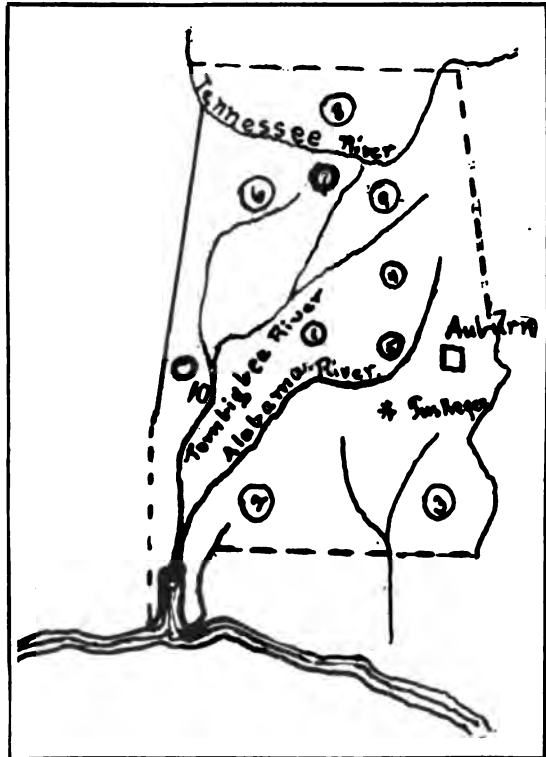
A SCHOOL SYSTEM ADAPTED TO RURAL CONDITIONS.

Forty years have been necessary for the experimenting with and the development of collegiate courses in agriculture in our State universities and State colleges. During the past fifteen years, experiments have been successfully carried out in establishing large agricultural high schools, and in a third as many years of trial consolidated rural schools, with free transportation, have been successfully inaugurated in numerous localities. Once our educators generally realize the practicability and the far-reaching importance of these three classes of schools, they will, doubtless, lead the people to adopt them and to arrange them into an articulated system. As city primary graded schools, city high schools, and university and college courses have been articulated into a unified system, so the consolidated rural school, the agricultural high school, and the college of agriculture can be articulated into a parallel system. The one, with its industrial side strengthened, will serve the city life; the other will serve the country life, and without very serious loss of time to the student who so desires can transfer from one system to the other. The whole system of American education thus unified will become as useful to country people as to city people.

CONSOLIDATED RURAL SCHOOLS.

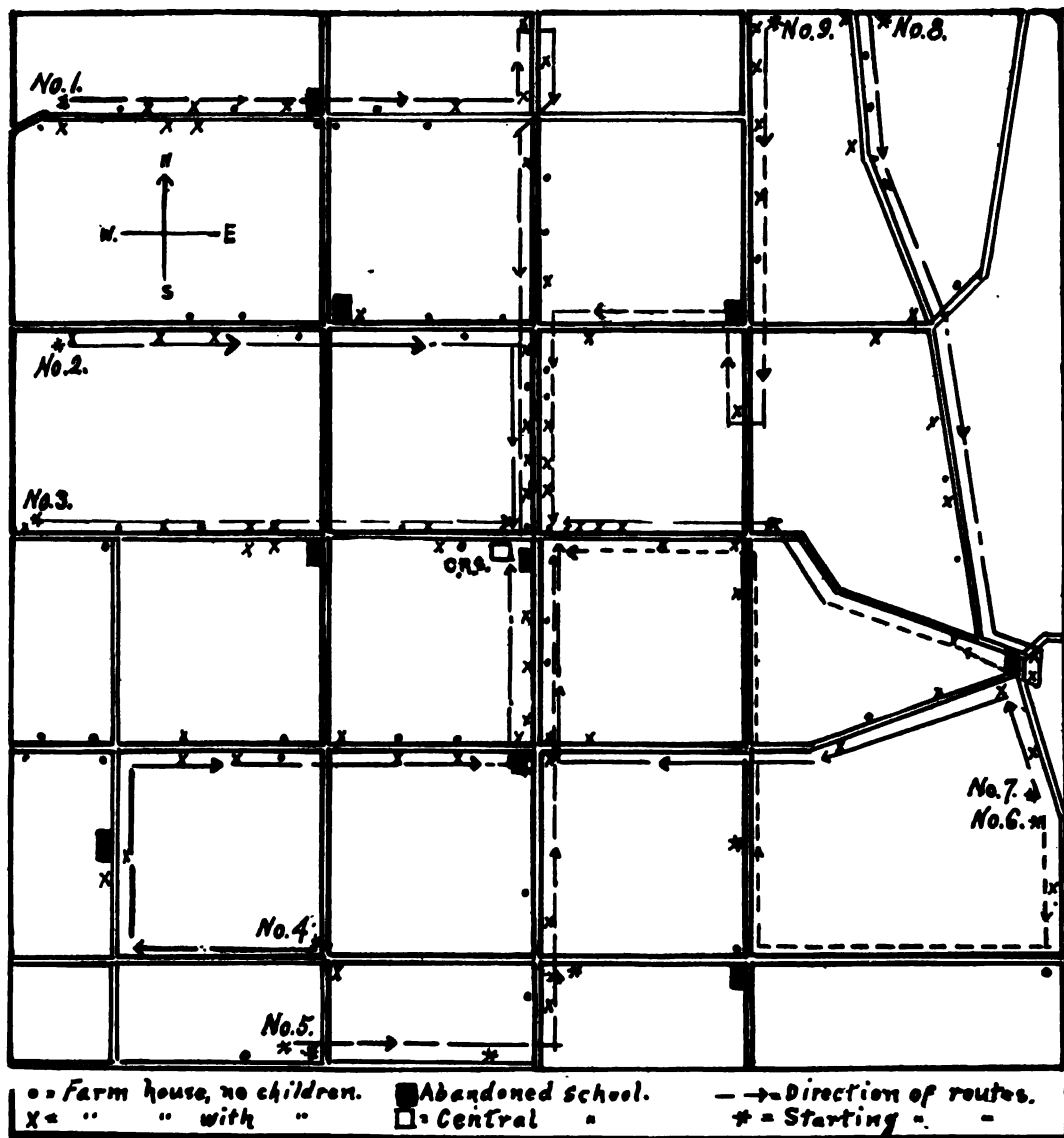
In Ohio and other States, and in Canada, consolidated rural schools, formed by consolidating from five to ten former country "districts," are centered in buildings of from three to five rooms, to which the children are carried in vans from areas four to five miles square, and have proven their general superiority. The writer was changed from a doubter to an advocate by making a thorough inspection of a number of these consolidated rural schools in Ohio, and he has yet to hear of any one who has made a thorough inspection who does not believe that this form of school, in all regions where good soil makes farming profitable and supports a fairly dense rural population, will largely displace the little schoolhouse. These schools are superior to the honored little school in the following ways: 1. The course can be lengthened so as to include the freshman and sophomore years of high-school work. 2. Children remain in school longer, are not so often tardy, truant, or absent, and the school year is lengthened, thus increasing the total number of "days' schooling" secured by the people of the district. 3. These schools, requiring fewer but better teachers, who are better supervised, and have their work better systematized in grades, can give better instruction. 4. Pu-

pils are less exposed to storms and have less wet clothing; the schoolhouses are better heated, lighted, and ventilated, have more appliances, and may be situated on demonstration grounds, where practice lessons in agriculture may be provided for. 5. The future farmer becomes acquainted with the people of the township, instead of a small school district; the whole community is drawn together, the school vans often serving to carry parents and children to lectures, entertainments, and even to church services. 6. The "chores" and other industrial work on the home farm, which gave the education of the little school half its value, are here retained as an exceedingly important educational adjunct to the rural school. 7. Such schools help to retain more of the best people in the country homes, and will articulate with agricultural high schools. 8. While the combined cost of the vans, teachers,



ALABAMA.—STATE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE (□) AND ARTICULATING AGRICULTURAL HIGH SCHOOLS IN CONGRESSIONAL DISTRICTS (○).

and schoolhouse may be a little above that of the old way, the cost is less per day of attendance, and far less per unit of value received by the district. It pays in dollars and cents, pays in the better civilization, and the sooner adopted the better.



SCALE 1 INCH TO THE MILE.

DIAGRAM OF GUSTAVUS TOWNSHIP, TRUMBULL COUNTY, OHIO, SHOWING TRANSPORTATION ROUTES.

(Consolidated rural school district, in place of nine small schools in a township which is only five miles square.)

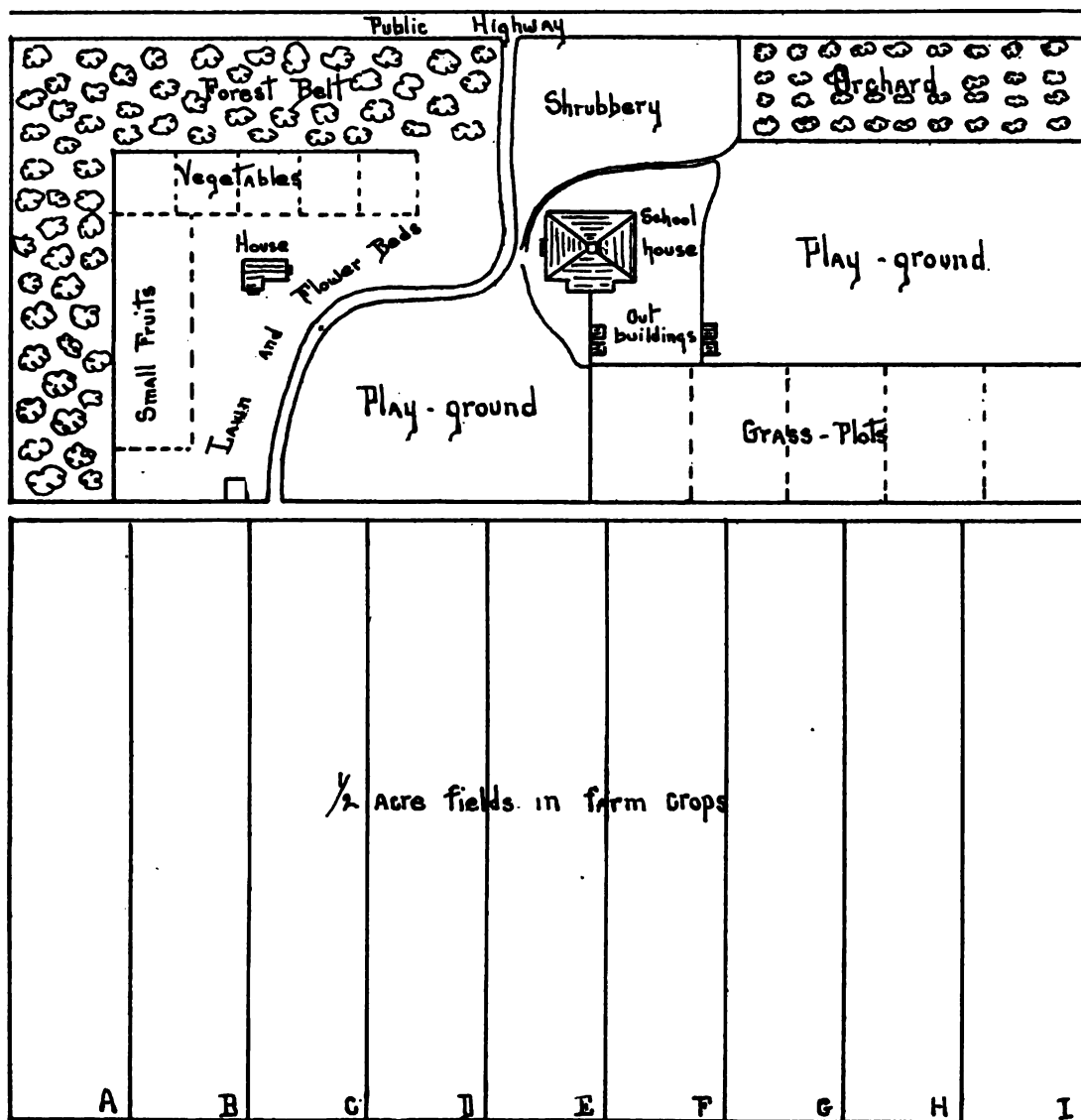
AGRICULTURAL HIGH SCHOOLS.

The agricultural high school, such as has been established in each Congressional district in Alabama, will serve as the secondary high school for farmers, as the city high school serves the city people. Necessity, "the mother of invention," is largely responsible for the first experiment in the line of an agricultural high school,—the Minnesota School of Agriculture. The home requirements of the boys and girls, as gradually

unfolded to the teachers in that school, have largely determined the direction in which the instruction has developed. The course covers three winters of six months each, leaving the student on the home farm during the six crop months, where the industrial, business, and social position is retained unbroken. Eighty-two per cent. of the graduates remain in agriculture, 70 per cent. actually return to the farm. This school now has five hundred students, and the State Legislature is equipping it for double its

present capacity. About one-third of the course of study in this school is devoted to common high-school studies, one-third to sciences related to agriculture, and one-third to the sciences and arts of agriculture. The equipment consists of two hundred and fifty acres of land, fine buildings, live stock, implements, laboratory apparatus, etc. A force of more than thirty instructors give all or part of their time during the six winter months to instruction, which makes of this a strong school. A large, thoroughly equipped agricultural high school, such as can

be easily supported by ten counties in coöperation, as is being arranged for in Alabama, will surely succeed, while a small agricultural high school, supported by a township or county, would be at a disadvantage. Neither the equipment nor the force of teachers in the county agricultural high school could be such as to satisfy so well the vigorous farm boy or girl. Since the students must be away from home, boarding in private families, or in dormitories supplied by the State, they can better afford to travel a little farther and have the advantages of the well-

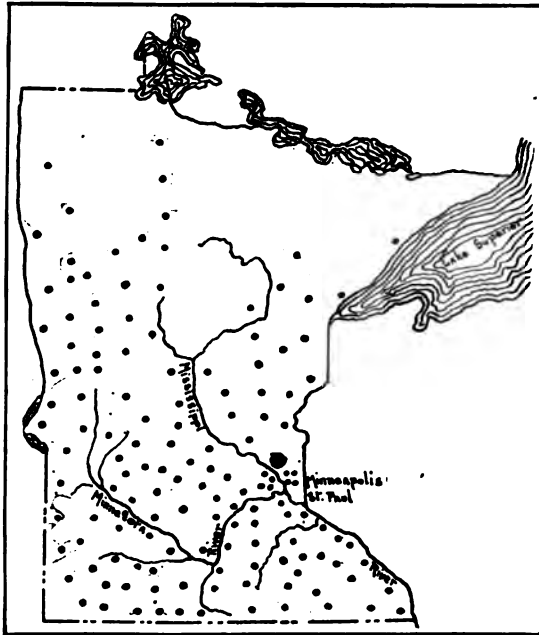


PLAN FOR CONSOLIDATED RURAL SCHOOL GROUNDS.

(Ten acres in area. Field A, permanent pasture; fields B, C, D, 3-year rotation,—grain, clover, corn; fields E, F, G, H, I, 5-year rotation,—grain, grass, grass, grain, corn.)

equipped school supported by a group of counties, and the expense per county will be less if ten coöperate in supporting the large school. The North Dakota Agricultural College, at Fargo, and the University of Nebraska, at Lincoln, have followed the Minnesota plan, and each now has an agricultural high school, with several hundred students.

While the School of Agriculture holds an annual session of six instead of nine months, nearly all of the students work the other six months in practice work in farming and home-making, gen-



MINNESOTA.—STATE UNIVERSITY AND ARTICULATING HIGH SCHOOLS IN CITIES.

(State University, near Minneapolis.)

erally at home, and get more of real education per year than does the average city boy or girl who attends the city high school for eight or nine months. The improvement made in the young man or woman by this three years' course of study and training is so rapid as to cause constant comment from observers. A large part of the students who enter this school expect to remain on the farm, and would not be so much attracted to other schools, and probably would not go beyond the rural school. Common experience proves that the city high school, with its nine months' work in general studies, weans country youth from the farm. It emphasizes other things, does not give special preparation for farming, and the business position in the home farm is often disarranged, the result being that the student is educated away from the farm.

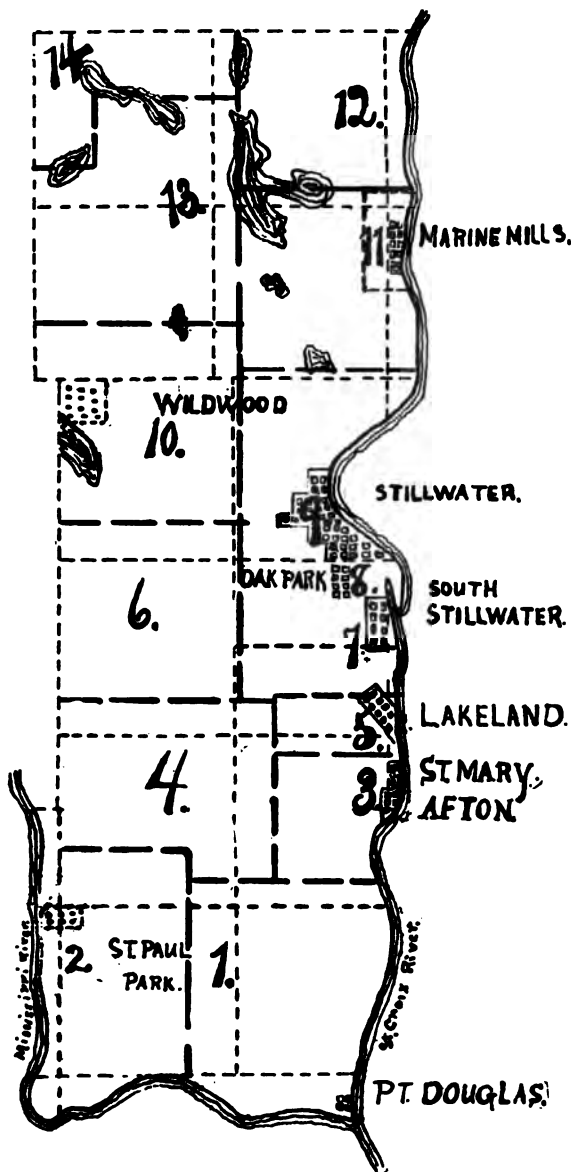
The agricultural high school, on the other hand, has been found adapted to educate toward the farm and into good farming. Agricultural high schools will provide our rural schools with teachers, trained to carry inspiration for country life into our rural schools, while teachers trained in city high schools too often have the opposite influence.

THE COLLEGIATE COURSE IN AGRICULTURE.

The collegiate agricultural course in the University of Minnesota, with which the agricultural high-school course articulates, is, in turn, made up of about one-third general and humanizing studies, one-third sciences related to agriculture, and one-third technical agricultural subjects. Graduates of college courses are in great demand as teachers of specialties or for research work in experiment stations or in the United States Department of Agriculture. Graduate courses are also provided for graduates waiting for a position, for graduates of other agricultural colleges, or for graduates who, after some years, wish to return and further pursue a specialty. The organization of the State experiment stations as a part of the agricultural colleges in most States gives added facilities for instruction. Positions as assistant investigators in experiment stations, and in the National Department of Agriculture, serve as excellent post-graduate training for many.

AN ARTICULATED SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

The proposed plan of articulating consolidated rural schools, each of which will cover an area from three to five miles square; agricultural high schools, each to cover nearly a dozen counties; and the agricultural college course in the State university or State college of agriculture and mechanic arts, will meet the needs of four factors,—namely, the pupils, the teachers, the courses of practical instruction, and the subject matter to be taught. The fact that nearly every farm boy and girl who has had the advantage of a course of study in the Minnesota Agricultural High School is not only enthusiastic in its praise but desires to live on a farm, is proof that the school has a faculty of instructors peculiarly adapted to its work, and that the plan of the school and the available subject matter are such that agricultural high-school education succeeds and meets the need. While the home, the consolidated rural school, and the agricultural high school train for the farm and the farm home, there is large need for teachers, experimenters, writers, and other specialists with higher training, such as is supplied in the college course in agriculture. The proposed system of three



WASHINGTON COUNTY, MINNESOTA.

(From 34 rural school districts pupils could be transported to 14 consolidated rural schools and village schools located in places indicated by figures.)

articulated classes of schools needs all along the line teachers broadly and technically trained. No doubt many of these teachers must be educated in existing high schools, academies, and normal schools, which more or less closely articulate with agricultural colleges.

A large class of farmers, educated in their specialty under a common system, where each

student gains a wide acquaintance with his fellows in primary, secondary, and collegiate schools, will be able to overcome the present difficulties in coöperative effort in rural affairs. That colleges can do much to promote extensive coöperation is shown in Minnesota by the influence the college and station exerted in bringing about a magnificent system of coöperative creameries. The Minnesota and Illinois stations have successfully inaugurated systems of coöperation in the breeding and dissemination of varieties of wheat and corn which yield from 10 to 20 per cent. more value per acre without additional cost of tillage. With the assistance of a large body of ex-students, organized to promote coöperative business, social, and other merged efforts among farmers, the agricultural college, agricultural high schools, and experiment stations would be profoundly influential in civic as well as in educational affairs. The rural delivery of mails, country telephones, experimental research in agriculture, and coöperative enterprises in dairying, and in fire and hail insurance, are doing so much for the farmer that he is more than formerly ready to have faith that even country roads and education for farmers may be greatly improved. These two last-named difficult problems are worthy of still more discussion and experimentation.

A prominent lecturer on economics truthfully stated to his class that to conduct a farm in a proper manner requires a knowledge of more facts and more principles than to successfully conduct a bank. An educator who was brought up on a farm truly said that the boy who goes from city life to live in the country has much more to learn than the boy from the country has to learn upon entering city life. Our educators are commencing to see that the book of nature, and especially the volumes containing the stories of the industries and of our homes, are gaining a place of great interest in our public education. The body of thought along these lines is being put into pedagogical form, and has already gained a strong place beside the accumulations of general subject matter. Our stores of literature are gaining a wider audience, because our industrial classes are bringing their vocations and their lives up where time and means can be afforded for general culture. Most of the poetry of life has not been transcribed from nature to books. More of the practical and scientific in our education aids us to read nature and to understand the interpretations of nature written by man. Life on the farm is growing sweeter, broader, and truer. The farm home is becoming stronger.

"LEARNING BY DOING" FOR THE FARMER BOY.

BY O. J. KERN.

(County Superintendent of Schools, Winnebago County, Illinois.)

THIS brief paper is a plea for a more practical education for the farmer boy. It is not the belief or wish of the writer that we should educate country boys to be farmers merely, any more than that we should educate boys to be blacksmiths, carpenters, or electricians. We should aim to train boys to be men in the highest sense of the term. But why not a course of training in the country school for the country boy which shall teach him more about the country life around him? Along with his study of the kangaroo, the bamboo, and the cockatoo, why not study the animals on the farm and a proper feeding standard for them, the care and composition of the soil of the farm, the improvement of types of grains and vegetables, and the protection of birds beneficial to the farmer? Instead of all of the boy's arithmetic being devoted to problems, more or less theoretical, on banking, stocks, exchange, brokerage, alligation, and partnership, why not some practical problems with reference to farm economics? For the boys who will remain on the farm (and 85 per

cent. perhaps will) the course of instruction should be such as will be an inspiration and a help in their future life work.

A NEW EDUCATIONAL IDEAL.

It is very difficult to reach the average farmer and genuinely enlist his active cooperation for the betterment of school facilities for his children. There must somehow be created a new educational ideal. The farmer must be met on his own ground. It is not enough to tell him of the shortcomings of the country schools. One must be able to tell him what is better, and, more important still, why the proposed thing is better. And the reasons must appeal to the farmer from his own point of view. In the creation of this new ideal, tact, sympathy, patience, enthusiasm, and a tireless energy are factors that must obtain.

FARMER BOYS' EXPERIMENT CLUB.

In Winnebago County, we have begun with the children in our effort to create a new ideal with reference to country school training. The Farmer Boys' Experiment Club was organized by me on February 22, 1902. The charter members of the club number thirty-seven boys, who met that morning in the office of the county superintendent of schools, and listened to brief talks from Professor Shamel, of the Illinois College of Agriculture, and Superintendent Fred Rankin, of the Agricultural College extension work. The club is growing, and now numbers three hundred and forty boys from nine to twenty years old. The expectation is to have a steady increase in interest and numbers.

The machinery of the organization is very simple. There is no elaborate constitution and by-laws to set forth in high-sounding terms what the boys are on earth for. The county superintendent has a list of the names of the boys, with the post-office address of each. Superintendent Fred Rankin, of the Agricultural College extension work, has a duplicate list, and from each office go circulars, bulletins, and literature of various kinds, the main object being to keep in touch with the boys, and to interest them more deeply in the beauty of country life and the worth, dignity, and scientific advancement in agriculture.



A THIRTEEN-YEAR-OLD BOY OF DISTRICT NO. 113, WINNEBAGO COUNTY, ILLINOIS, AND HIS PRIZE CORN-FIELD.



A CLASS IN AGRICULTURE OF KINDERGARTEN GRADE.

EDUCATIONAL EXCURSIONS.

After the organization of the club it occurred to me that it would do a great deal of good to have the boys and their parents go on an excursion to the Agricultural College and experiment station connected with the University of Illinois, at Urbana. Rockford is two hundred and fourteen miles from Urbana, and we secured a rate of \$2.50 for the round trip. On June 5, 1902, one hundred and thirty boys and one hundred and fifty adults,—nearly six coaches full,—left Rockford for Urbana. And on June 1, 1903, a second excursion, numbering two hundred and four persons, was run to the same place. Only thirteen persons of the second excursion were members of the first. The expectation is, if proper arrangements can be made, to continue these excursions to the colleges of neighboring States. We hope to arrange for an excursion to the St. Louis Exposition of 1904.

While at the College of Agriculture and experiment station the boys were shown the laboratories where the work of testing and improving types of corn, treatment and analysis of soils, propagation of plants, etc., was done. On the experiment farm the boys were shown the growing crops, and were told how they were being cared for, and what experimental work was being done. They inspected sugar beets, oats,

corn, soy beans, cowpeas, wheat, and alfalfa. Some roots of the last-named plant were pulled up, and the boys were shown where the bacteria deposit in the ground the nitrogen taken from the air.

The live-stock department of the farm appealed strongly to the boys. They inspected a model dairy barn. At the feeding yards they saw a bunch of steers that were being fed a balanced ration that would make it possible for the cattle to bring the top price in the Chicago market. The Horticultural Department was of more than passing interest.

To be sure, it is too soon to say what the effect of these excursions will be. Some of the boys had never been on a railroad train. Many more had never been out of the county. We will wait patiently for time to show results in quickened aspirations, stronger characters in growing boys, and a general uplift in the educational interests of Winnebago County.

EXPERIMENTAL WORK OF THE BOYS.

The experimental and observation work of the boys, thus far, has consisted in testing the vitality of various seeds, planting corn and noting growth, testing for smut in oats, experimenting with sugar beets, etc. In making investigations with reference to smut in oats, each boy was directed to go into four different fields and make

three counts in the same field by placing a barrel hoop over as many stalks of grain as the hoop might inclose, and then counting and recording results. The percentage of smut was determined by the boys. Some of the work that came under my personal direction showed a percentage

per cent. sugar and 86.7 purity coefficient. This was practical work for the boys, and many of them are keeping note-books on the present year's work.

At present, in Illinois, the breeding of improved types of corn is attracting the attention



A FOURTEEN-YEAR-OLD SUGAR-BEET GROWER OF DISTRICT NO. 104, WINNEBAGO COUNTY, ILLINOIS.

of smut from 3 per cent., the lowest, to 23 per cent., the highest. This was practical work in arithmetic.

Each boy, last year, was given two pounds of sugar-beet seed by the experiment station at Urbana. The department wanted to interest the boys and see at the same time whether sugar beets could be grown with profit in this dairy region of northern Illinois. The illustrations with this article show some of the boys with their plats of sugar beets and prize-growing corn. Some very fine beets were raised by the boys. They selected specimens and sent them to the experiment station to be analyzed. The remainder were fed to the stock on the farm.

The boys concluded that if sufficient help could be secured at a reasonable wage, sugar beets could be grown here with profit. One boy kept an exact account of labor, rent of ground, etc.,—in short, the first cost of raising his beets. His plat comprised forty-five square rods of ground. The total cost of cultivation, harvesting, and rent of ground was \$19.75. The number of bushels raised was one hundred and eighty-three, thus making the cost a trifle over ten cents per bushel. These beets tested the best of those received at the experiment station, showing 18

of the farmers. Professor Hopkins, of the Illinois College of Agriculture, is able to show results from experiments over a number of years that corn may be bred to produce a high percentage of oil, thus making it more valuable commercially, or it may be bred to produce a high percentage of protein, making it more valuable for feeding purposes. The Illinois State Farmers' Institute gave to every boy of Winnebago County who sent four cents in postage five hundred grains of this high-bred corn. Nearly two hundred boys of the experiment club sent for the corn last spring and planted it. Each boy is expected to note all interesting facts about the growth of the corn and make an exhibit of the ten best ears at the County Farmers' Institute next January, and enter in competition for prizes already offered by the officers of the institute. This is practical work, to get them interested in improved types of grains and in touch with that great educational movement,—the Farmers' Institute.

The boys also make observations as to barren stalks of corn in plats one hundred hills square and compute the percentage. The time the tassel and the silk appear on a stalk of corn is noted. It is not expected that a ten-year-old

boy be equipped with a compound microscope of 10,000 diameters and have him know the whole mystery of life from the study of a cross-section of a grain of pollen, and that at a single sitting. Nay, rather have him use his eyes,—a little observation this week, more next week, more next year,—until the habit of observing is fixed, and silently there grows within him the power to judge, and he becomes educated because he sees things with his eyes.

LOCAL MEETINGS OF THE CLUB.

During the past summer, the boys have held meetings at various farms. It has been my pleasure to attend some of these, and give to each boy a copy of the new course of study for the common schools of Illinois. This course has most excellent outlines and directions for experimental and observation work, prepared by Dean Davenport, of the Illinois College of Agriculture. We are trying to create a sentiment among the farmers in favor of the teaching of agriculture in the district school before a law is enacted requiring teachers to be examined in the subject before attempting to teach it. This course in agriculture, prepared by Dean Davenport, if rightly used with the boys, will go far toward creating a new ideal with reference to country school education. The following is quoted from the course.

Make a collection of all the different soils in the neighborhood. Pulverize well and pick out all the

sticks, stones, or other foreign matter. Fill some quart fruit cans with these soils within an inch of the top. Leave the covers off and set where they will become very dry. Then weigh each very carefully and deduct the weight of the can. Then add, a little at a time, all the water each will take up without standing on top of the can. Weigh again and compute the percentage of water each soil is able to hold.

Make a plat of some farm in the school district. Write a description of its fields, fences, and buildings, with the crops produced and live stock kept, and a history of its settlement and changes in ownership.

What does it cost to raise an acre of corn? How much for rent or use of land? How much for labor? How much for seed?

The devotee of the old order of things will take note that with the above, language work, drawing, history, and arithmetic may be correlated in a very practical manner.

THE BOYS' CLUB AND THE FARMERS' INSTITUTE.

Last winter, during the annual meeting of the County Farmers' Institute, a half-day session was devoted to the interests of the boys. Several members of the experiment club gave an account of their work, some of the fathers suggested how they might help along the work of the club, while a few teachers told how the district school might assist such an organization of boys. Too often it happens that a farmers' institute is made up of a few retired farmers. It is estimated that five hundred thousand farmers attended the farmers' institute meetings through-



TWO YOUNG BEET GROWERS OF DISTRICT NO. 113.



A TEN-YEAR-OLD MEMBER OF THE BOYS' EXPERIMENT CLUB, OF DISTRICT NO. 62, STANDING BY HIS PRIZE CORN, AUGUST, 1902.

(During July and August, he watered his corn twice each week with a rake. That is, he took Professor Bailey's advice and raked the ground twice each week to produce a surface mulch of fine soil to prevent evaporation of moisture. He went on the educational excursion to the College of Agriculture and the experiment farm, at Urbana, Ill.)

out the United States last year. But who takes notice of the boys?

Mr. John Hamilton, farmers' institute specialist of the United States Department of Agriculture, in a recent letter to me said:

I now think that the farmers' institute movement must take hold of the country boy and the country girl. We have been dealing with the fathers and mothers thus far, which was a necessity until the value of the institute was demonstrated; but we have come now, in my opinion, to a time in which it will be possible for us, in many States, to go a step further and take hold of the young people who are living on the farm.

Your success in interesting those in your county is proof of the practicability of the plan if it is properly organized and enthusiastically conducted. There is no reason why we cannot change the whole sentiment of our country in comparatively few years, if we go about it in a systematic way. Agriculture can be made popular as well as profitable, if those of us who are interested in country life take hold of the work in the right way, and present the features that appeal to young minds in an attractive way.

FUTURE OUTLOOK OF THE CLUB.

We are arranging a monthly lecture course, on one Saturday of each month during the com-

coming fall and winter months, for the Boys' Experiment Club, the Girls' Home Culture Club, now being organized, and the parents of Winnebago County. This is made possible by a small appropriation from the county board of supervisors toward the expense of securing speakers. The deficit will be made up somehow. The lectures are all free, and held in the beautiful auditorium of the New Memorial Hall erected by the people to the memory of the soldiers and sailors of Winnebago County, and dedicated by President Roosevelt last June. The course, so far, includes:

October—"Corn-Growing," by Professor Holden, Iowa College of Agriculture.

November—"Stock-Feeding," by Dean Henry, Wisconsin College of Agriculture.

December—"The Kind of School for Country People," by Dean Davenport, Illinois College of Agriculture.

The remaining numbers will be provided for. It is the expectation to close the course in February with a lecture on the value of birds to the farmer, illustrated with a stereopticon.

The experimental school-garden movement was inaugurated in Winnebago County last spring as a factor in the missionary work for the cause

of agriculture. The results will be set forth in the new report of the county superintendent of schools.

FIRST CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL IN ILLINOIS.

This gives promise of being a great force in creating a new educational ideal relating to the education of the farmer boy and his sister. Last spring, on petition to the school trustees, districts 90, 91, and 93 of Seward Township, Winnebago County, were consolidated. This is the first school of its kind in Illinois. It took me four and one-half years to create this new ideal here.

The electors of the consolidated district, by a vote of 38 for and 15 against, bonded the district for \$7,000, ten years' time at 4 per cent., to purchase a site and erect a union school building. By a vote of 47 for and 1 against, the directors were authorized to purchase a certain site for the new school grounds. This consists of 3.6 acres of some of the finest farming land in northern Illinois. The amount paid for it was \$1,000.

Professor Blair, chief of horticulture of the Illinois College of Agriculture, has designed the landscape arrangement of this ground. It provides for the artistic arrangement of many kinds of trees, beautiful groupings and massing of nu-

merous varieties of shrubs and flowers, a boys' athletic field, a girls' athletic field, little folks' playground, and experimental gardens for all the children.

The new building, being erected at a cost of about \$6,000, has a room which in time may be utilized for a boys' workshop, and also a room for a girls' gymnasium. This possible enrichment of the course of training for country children will be a certainty here if the right kind of teachers are secured. The new building will have an assembly room and a laboratory. And all this for country children! Why not? Why continue to cheapen life and opportunity for the country child?

This school promises to be the connecting link between the farm and the college of agriculture. If rightly managed, it will hasten the fulfillment of the prophecy of Dean Bailey, of the College of Agriculture at Ithaca, N. Y.:

It is not necessary, and perhaps not even important, that the child be taught these things with the idea of making him a farmer, but merely as a means of education and of interest to him in the out-of-doors. The day is coming when agriculture,—under other names, perhaps, and not as a professional subject,—will be taught in public schools as a "culture subject."



A COUNTRY SCHOOL GARDEN, WINNEBAGO COUNTY, ILL.

THE FUTURE OF CANADA AND RECIPROCITY WITH THE UNITED STATES.

BY EUGENE G. HAY.

THERE was but little difference in time in the settlement of the Canadian provinces and the colonies that in 1789 became the United States of America. They were settled by substantially the same race of men. In 1867, when the Dominion government was formed, the United States had become a great, mighty, prosperous nation, stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, while the Canadian provinces had progressed but slowly. Since the formation of the Dominion government, the growth of the Canadian provinces has been far more rapid, yet how insignificant when compared with the mighty strides the United States has made during this period. The acceleration which came to Canada with the formation of the Dominion government was the result of that unity of action which was thus made possible; that it has not grown and developed as the United States has, is the result of the impossibility of independent action that is inherent in its colonial existence. It is possible that colonial government may be wisely administered, that it may be honestly administered, that it may be economically administered, yet under it a people can never become great. Their resources can never be fully developed, their enterprise and their energy can never have full play, and their inventive genius can never reach its full limit. Their commerce, which is the chief factor in national greatness, is necessarily held by the same leading strings that guide their political existence. A people to become truly great must live under a government that can do business with other governments; a government that can have a foreign policy of its own, and diplomatic and commercial relations with the other governments of the world.

CANADA HAMPERED IN TRADE RELATIONS.

The industrial, commercial, and political interests of Canada are essentially Canadian, essentially cisatlantic; yet under the anomalous governmental conditions under which the Dominion exists, its interests are necessarily bound up with British interests, scattered as they are over every continent. Canada has now reached that point where its relations with other countries require individual treatment. This, under existing conditions, is difficult if not impossible.

In the great political centers of the world, Canada has no diplomatic representative; in the great commercial cities, it has no consuls. An army of trained men are reporting to Washington, each day, the conditions of commerce in the great centers of population; these men are constantly alert to extend American commerce in the cities and countries where they are stationed. Canada must secure all information from London, and every move to extend her commerce must be through a British representative. His duties require him to have first in mind the interests of the mother country, and in looking after Canadian interests he must do it with reference to the interests of Australia, of South Africa, of India, and of the islands of the sea.

AN EMPIRE OF GRAIN FIELDS.

This was all well enough when Canada was composed of a few fishing settlements that fringed the Atlantic coast, and Quebec and Montreal were on the frontier. Now it stretches three thousand miles west from Montreal, and northwest to the far-distant head waters of the Yukon. Locked in the mountains of the Canadian possessions is mineral wealth second only to that of the United States, while her agricultural possibilities can scarce be exaggerated. Between the Lake of the Woods and the Caribou Mountains the forces of civilization are building a mighty empire, destined soon to become the granary of the world. The province of Manitoba and the districts of Assiniboia, Alberta, and Saskatchewan extend 400 miles north and south and 900 miles east and west, embracing an area of 359,000 square miles. Add to this Athabasca, with its 122,000 square miles, in which is situated the beautiful Peace River Valley, said to be as fertile and productive as the valley of the Red River of the North, and we have an area of almost half a million square miles. In the light of the development of our own great Western prairies, is it too much to say that one-half of this is arable, and will eventually come under the plow. More than one-third of it lies west of the one hundred and fifth meridian. Forty years ago, the man who would have predicted that the time would come when 200,000,000 bushels of wheat would be raised in the United States north

of the forty-fifth parallel, and between the continental divide and the Rocky Mountains, would have been set down as insane. Yet that is what has happened. Is it not, then, within the bounds of conservative statement to say that within the lives of the present generation 200,000 square miles of this Canadian territory will be under cultivation? Scarce 2 per cent. of this land was cultivated last year, yet they raised 60,000,000 bushels of wheat and sufficient other small grain to bring the total grain production to more than 100,000,000 bushels. Seventy-five thousand settlers entered this territory last year, and more than one hundred thousand more will make their homes there this year. When settled as thickly as our own Western prairies are to-day, it will afford a market for everything required in a grain-growing country unequaled on this continent. Unless her progress shall be arrested by political conditions, the next generation will see the center of Canadian population and power in the basin of Lake Winnipeg. Canada must then have a population of more than twenty millions of people.

CANADA MUST WORK OUT HER OWN SALVATION.

Will such a people, possessed of such boundless wealth, permit it to remain undeveloped, and their progress retarded by outgrown political institutions? If they do, they will prove false to Anglo-Saxon traditions! Could twenty millions of people, possessed of such diversified interests, respond to the leading-strings of colonial government? This question carries its own answer. What, then, is the ultimate destiny of Canada? Those Americans who talk of the United States annexing Canada, either by force of arms or by a tariff policy that excludes Canadian products from our markets, woefully misunderstand the temper and the spirit of the race to which they belong. Let them remember that a country peopled by Anglo-Saxons has never been annexed. In thinking of forcible annexation they forget the "Spirit of Seventy-six" and the race in which it was aroused. The policy of commercial exclusion has proven a dismal failure. When, in 1866, our government annulled the reciprocity treaty of 1854, it was thought that the United States was Canada's only market, and from time to time, as our tariffs have been raised, misguided statesmen have expected to see Canada forced into suing for annexation. Not so! Our market was their natural market, but when it was denied them, they sorrowed, but not in despair; disappointed they were, but not discouraged, and like the race to which they belong, wherever found upon the round globe, they turned their energies to making the best of the opportunity

that was left them. They have found other markets for their products, and prospered. What, then, of the future? That the people of Canada will work out their own destiny there can be no doubt. That they may be helped or hindered by the action of our government is equally certain. Canada must eventually either become an independent nation, or by the free, voluntary act of her people and the consent of the people of this country, become a part of the United States, as Texas did, upon terms of full and complete equality. As to which is the more alluring; as to which presents the best opportunity for the development, progress, and prosperity of Canada; as to which will most accelerate the solution of those ethical and moral problems in which the people of each country have a common interest, it is idle for us on this side of the line to discuss, for it is a question that must and will be settled by the Canadian people.

THE TARIFF WALL.

But whether Canada's future is to become a free and independent nation, or a part of the American Union, the commercial relations between the two countries should be as free and unrestricted as it is possible to make them. Experience has demonstrated that the easiest and least burdensome method of providing for public revenues is by tariff duties. But aside from making provision for fiscal necessities, our justification for a protective tariff is the protection of our high civilization by upholding the American wage standard. As between the United States and Canada the reason for this does not exist, and our tariffs against the products of Canada operate as an unnecessary and harmful restraint of trade. All will agree that no harm could come to the great commercial interests of New York or New England if Ontario and Quebec should be admitted as States of the American Union. The freedom of trade between the States and the vast territory over which our commerce extends without restriction or hindrance has been the most potent factor in our prosperity; to increase that territory by adding contiguous States, peopled by the same class of people, maintaining the same civilization, with similar political institutions, would therefore increase that prosperity. Measurably the same results may be attained without a political union. To abolish all tariffs between the United States and Canada would greatly enhance the commercial interests of both countries. This condition, however, cannot be brought about at once, owing to the fiscal necessities of the Dominion government, as for some time to come Canada must derive a large part of her necessary revenues

from customs duties on commodities that could be bought in the United States.

THE BRITISH ZOLLVEREIN PROPOSITION.

Secretary Chamberlain's proposition to create a British tariff for the purpose of establishing colonial reciprocity is an attempt to save the empire which the elder Pitt created. But his task is greater even than was that of Lord Chatham. The problem that confronts him in the twentieth century is entirely commercial, while in the eighteenth century, in the establishment of England's colonial empire, her great prime minister had the powerful aid of war and military conquest. That momentous tragedy on the heights of Abraham, which changed the history of this continent, could not be enacted with the same results in the twentieth century. The mighty currents of commerce cannot be permanently diverted from their natural channels, and had Chamberlain the genius, the wisdom, and the undaunted spirit of him who by common voice was the most powerful minister that ever guided the foreign policy of England, his efforts would yet be foredoomed to failure. His proposition, stripped naked, is to tax the breakfast table of every man in England, be he rich or poor. For what is he asked to pay this tax? No benefit will inure to him, for the duty is to be placed on articles which England consumes, but does not produce. Its sole purpose is to hold the colonies to the mother country, for Secretary Chamberlain doubtless sees, what men less wise than he have discerned, the impending danger of the dismemberment of the British Empire, not through any desire of the colonies to throw off an oppressive yoke, but that they may expand and grow to the commercial importance their natural advantages give them. It is asking more than patriotism has yet been credited with to expect the people of England to impoverish themselves in order that it may continue to be said that "England's drum-beat follows the sun in its course."

RECIPROCITY WITH THE UNITED STATES MORE DESIRABLE.

But what is Canada's interest in this English preferential? To have her grain given a preference in the English market, she is to continue to give English manufacturers an exclusive preference in the Canadian market. Such English manufactures as can be sold in Canada, even with a preferential duty, are such as are sold chiefly in the Maritime provinces, Quebec, and Ontario. These provinces produce but little grain to be benefited by the English food-stuff preferential, and Manitoba and the adjoining grain-growing

districts would derive far greater benefit from reciprocity with the United States than any reciprocity England could give. The admission of wheat, the great staple product of this great western country, into the United States free of duty would be of far more value to them than any preferential tariff England could adopt, and this, too, without injury to the wheat growers of the United States. Liverpool, where the surplus wheat of the world is marketed, will continue to fix the price for Canada and for the United States, whether England adopts a discriminating duty or the United States tariff is taken off of Canadian wheat, or whether both of these events transpire. But the facilities for transporting, handling, and manufacturing the grain, which the Canadian farmer could avail himself of if he had free access to the American market, would be of more benefit to him than the slight tax England could place upon the grain coming from other countries. But of still greater value to the Canadian farmer would be the reduction of the duty on farm machinery, which is almost certain to be provided for in any reciprocity treaty that might be negotiated.

He now, to a large extent, buys American machinery because it is of high quality and best adapted to his needs, paying for it the American price plus from 20 to 35 per cent. duty. The rapid growth and development of the vast new country in western Canada makes this a matter of transcendent importance both to the Canadian farmer and the American manufacturer. Here, then, is an instance of genuine reciprocity. In exchange for the free admission of Canadian wheat to the American market, by which those interested on both sides of the line are to be benefited, the Canadian duty on farm machinery will be reduced, to the advantage also of those interested in both countries. If we travel along the border, observing the products that could be interchanged, we cannot help but be impressed with many instances similar to that just cited. Remove the tariff on lumber and our Western lumbermen will, by reason of advantageous transportation, contiguous territory, and other natural causes, supply the lumber to build the homes for the settlers in the new Canadian northwest, while further east the forests of Ontario will supply the demand for this commodity in our older States, from which the timber has long since been cut. Coal is another item. New England is badly in need of Nova Scotian coal and the coal miners of Nova Scotia badly want the New England market. Moving further west, the coal of Pennsylvania is wanted in central Canada, and can be placed in the yards and bins of the

consumer far cheaper than coal from any other place.

Geography and climate conspire to demand the largest possible freedom of trade between the countries. The lines of commerce run with those of longitude as surely as those of immigration run with those of latitude, and as years go by, and the countries become more densely populated, it will be more and more apparent that the products of our warmer climate can be profitably exchanged for those of "Our Lady of the Snows." Glance at the map of North America and see what geography is certain to do in making these two countries commercially one. In commerce, the transportation of commodities to market is the most important factor, and whatever conditions the machinations of men may temporarily bring about, eventually the lines of transportation will be determined by distance and resistance. Nature selects the route of least resistance; following this natural law, the commerce of the world will eventually travel over the shortest route and that which affords the least obstacles to transportation. Aside from the Maritime provinces, the shortest route from every city and all productive parts of Canada to the Atlantic seaboard is through the United States. More than half of the population of Canada lies south of an east and west line that would run through Grand Forks, North Dakota, and such a line drawn through Ottawa, the capital of the Dominion, would strike Portland, Oregon, at its western terminus and bisect the State of Maine as it approached the Atlantic. Without pursuing the subject further, it is safe to say that, with unnatural barriers removed, the sum saved in transporting the products of Canada to their best markets would go a long way toward paying the fiscal expense of the Dominion government.

THE ELGIN TREATY OF 1854.

Largely through the energy, the tact, and the skill of Lord Elgin, then Governor-General of Canada, there was negotiated and ratified, in 1854, a commercial treaty between the United States and the Canadian provinces. This treaty, by its terms, was to continue for a period of ten years, and continually thereafter until twelve months after either government had given notice to the other of its wish to terminate the same. The President of the United States, upon the direction of Congress, gave such notice in 1865, and the treaty was terminated in 1866. No provision was made in this treaty fixing the duty on dutiable articles, but it provided for the free admission from either country to the other of a long list of natural products, being the

growth and products of Canada and of the United States, embracing most of the products of the farm, the forest, the quarry, and the waters of each country.

In the light of present conditions, it is difficult to understand why the United States Congress terminated this treaty. The principal reason given was that, with the enormous debt left by the Civil War, the United States was in need of all possible revenues, and must have the revenue that would come from the duty on Canadian imports. It is possible, also, that a feeling of bitter hostility, growing out of the attitude of Great Britain and certain factions in Canada during our great civil conflict, had its influence upon Congress; but more than all this, it is probable that the great pressing problems with which the statesmen of that day had to deal were so all-absorbing that the possible growth and development of our commerce did not receive due consideration.

ITS PRACTICAL EFFECTS.

Figures which state the imports and exports do not always tell the full story of the value of a commerce. In any reciprocity arrangement that may be effected with Canada both nations would be benefited, not only by their increased sales, but by their increased purchases from the other. But, viewed entirely from the standpoint of the figures which state the exports and imports, an examination of these figures for the years preceding, during, and succeeding the period of the treaty will disclose the fact that both countries were benefited by its operation. Prior to 1854 there was comparatively little trade between Canada and the United States, and prior to 1846 scarcely any; but during this time, while the trade was insignificantly small, our exports always exceeded our imports. With the ratification of the treaty, in 1854, the trade between the countries increased at a bound. Our exports grew from \$12,432,597 in 1853, the year preceding the ratification of the treaty, to \$34,362,188 in 1855, the first year in which the treaty was in force, and our imports during the same period from \$6,527,559 to \$15,118,289. This rapid increase continued, preserving almost the same ratio, during the first few years the treaty was in operation. During our Civil War the exports and imports grew nearer together, owing to the curtailing of our production and the increase of our consumption, until, in 1864, the imports exceeded the exports, and so again in 1865 and in 1866. The treaty terminated in 1866, and the excess of imports over exports, which began in 1864, continued until 1874, or for a period of seven years after the termination of the treaty.

THE PRESENT VOLUME OF COMMERCE.

The years when this treaty was in force were far more prosperous for the commerce between Canada and the United States than had hitherto been enjoyed. In fact, it was the very beginning of what has since developed into an enormous commerce between these two neighboring peoples. During the period of a little less than twelve years that the treaty was in force the balance of trade in our favor was \$37,479,531, being more than double the entire trade between the countries during any year prior to the ratification of the treaty, and the total commerce grew during that period from \$18,000,000 per annum to \$76,000,000. As these countries have prospered and increased in importance the commerce between them has continued to grow until, in the fiscal year just ended, the total commerce reached almost to \$180,000,000, the balance of trade being greatly in our favor. The present condition cannot, however, long continue. Our average tariff on dutiable goods coming from Canada to the United States is 49.83 per cent., and the Canadian average tariff on dutiable goods going from the United States into Canada is 24.83 per cent. Unless commercial reciprocity is soon attained, Canadian tariffs will undoubtedly be raised to approximately the level of our own, which will practically destroy commerce between the countries.

THE PROPOSED "BROWN DRAFT" TREATY.

In 1874, a treaty was negotiated between the United States and the Dominion government which is known in Canada as the Brown Draft Treaty. This treaty contained three schedules, and by its terms it was agreed that the duty on articles named in these schedules, being the growth, products, and manufacture of the Dominion of Canada and of the United States, on their importation from one country to the other, should, from the first day of July, 1875, to the thirtieth day of June, 1876, inclusive, be two-thirds of the rate paid at the date of the treaty, and, from the first day of July, 1876, to the thirtieth day of June, 1877, inclusive, be one-third of such rate, and on and after the first day of July, 1877, for a period of twenty-one years, all such articles should be admitted free of duty into each country respectively. Schedule

"A" of this treaty contained a long list of natural products, embracing almost every article produced in either country that could be so classed. Schedule "B" was of farm machinery, and contained forty separate articles, while Schedule "C" contained a long list of other manufactured articles embracing most of the commodities consumed by people of this latitude. This treaty failed of ratification in the United States Senate, and hence was never passed upon by the Canadian Parliament.

RECENT NEGOTIATIONS.

The Joint High Commission, of which Sir Wilfrid Laurier is the Canadian chairman, and Senator Fairbanks, of Indiana, the American chairman, and which is still in existence, was created in 1898. It met first at Quebec in the summer of 1899, and again at Washington in November of the same year, where it was in session until the following February, and while much progress was made in considering a commercial treaty, no definite result was attained. The commission being unable to agree upon the Alaskan boundary dispute, which was also before it, the commissioners from both sides were unwilling to proceed with the consideration of a commercial treaty. This troublesome question being now removed by the creation of a special tribunal, to which it has been referred, negotiations for the reconvening of the Joint High Commission have been for some time in progress.

Any reciprocity arrangement between these countries must be negotiated and put into effect by the Republican party in the United States and the Liberal party in Canada,—at least such must be the case unless the opposing parties reverse their more recent policy; and while these parties are so thoroughly intrenched in power in their respective countries would seem a desirable time to renew negotiations. In any reciprocity agreement that could be made some small interests on both sides of the line would have to suffer. But such interests are prospering to-day at enormous cost to far greater interests and to the masses of the people of both countries, and the time must surely come when unnatural barriers will not be maintained at such a tremendous sacrifice of the well-being of the people for the trifling advantage a very few may receive.



THE SOCIALISTIC LEGISLATION OF NEW ZEALAND, AS VIEWED BY AN AMERICAN.

BY LUCIEN C. WARNER.

[There has been much written about the institutions of New Zealand, but perhaps nothing that has yet appeared contains so much information in compact compass as the present article from the pen of an American professional and business man of long experience, who has recently visited the New Zealanders and has observed their social and political arrangements with impartial eyes. Dr. Warner's summing up will be found most instructive.—THE EDITOR.]

NEW countries seem to have a temerity in adopting radical legislation which is unknown to nations long established. One hundred and fifteen years ago, the popular government adopted by the United States of America was thought to be radical and experimental. Now we have become a conservative people, and younger nations, like New Zealand, are leading us in new and untried fields of legislation. Woman suffrage; public ownership of railways, telegraphs, telephones, street-car lines, water, gas, and electric plants; old-age pensions; appointments for life in the civil service, with provision for support in old age; post-office savings banks; the loaning of money by the state on mortgages; a government life insurance company; a public trust office for administering and settling estates; taxation on a progressive scale, by which nearly the entire burden falls upon the rich; the compulsory division of large estates into small holdings; compulsory arbitration in the case of labor disputes, with power to fix the minimum wage,—all these form but a partial list of the innovations now sanctioned by law in New Zealand. It is no wonder that conservative men in New Zealand and elsewhere are alarmed, and that all the world is watching the effect of these laws with the keenest interest. Most of this legislation has been enacted during the past twelve years, and while it is too early to speak with certainty of the results, the experience already obtained is of great value to every one interested in popular government.

WOMEN AND THE FRANCHISE.

Woman suffrage has been in force for ten years, but it does not carry with it the right to membership in the New Zealand Parliament. At first many women did not register or vote; but they soon found that with the privilege was involved the duty to vote, and now the women register and vote in nearly the same proportion as the men. Out of an adult voting population of 171,378 in 1895, 119,550 women voted, or 70

per cent. I could not learn that woman suffrage has had any considerable influence upon the elections, either for good or bad. As a rule, the women vote in accordance with the views of their husbands or brothers, so that the results are not essentially changed.

PUBLIC OWNERSHIP.

Public ownership of railways, telegraphs, and telephones seems to be giving good satisfaction. The railways, in 1902, earned a net interest of 3.425 per cent. on the investment. In a new, and not very wealthy, country the ownership of railways adds very much to the public debt, and makes it difficult for the government to borrow the money needed for development, but the general injury to the country from this delay is not greater than it was in our own country during the period of wreckage and reorganization which followed the too-rapid construction of railways.

All the cities own and operate their own street-car lines, water, gas, and electric plants, and the general results are highly favorable. The service is good, and the rates much lower than in the United States, with private ownership. The usual fare on street cars for rides within the limits of the city is one penny, and the longer rides extending to the suburbs are not more expensive than they are with us. Improvements in the service are sometimes held back for lack of funds, but that might be true in a new country with private ownership.

TENURE OF OFFICE IN THE CIVIL SERVICE.

Appointments in the civil service are made upon the merit plan, and are for life. Formerly, a pension was given upon retirement at the age of sixty years, but now a certain part of the salary is withheld, as an insurance fund, to be paid to the estate in case of death, and to establish an annuity on retirement from the service. The amount retained for insurance varies from five pounds, on a salary of less than one hundred and

fifty pounds, to forty pounds on a salary of eight hundred pounds or more. There can be no doubt that this plan secures much better service and is a more liberal treatment of the civil servant than the plan of rotation in office, which is still too prevalent in this country. Office-holding throws a man out of the regular channels of employment, and makes it difficult for him to support himself again in business pursuits. No railway or corporation would think of conducting its business on the principle of rotation in office, and such a course is no more defensible in the government than in the case of other employers. When the government engages in larger enterprises, such as conducting railways and telegraphs, it becomes increasingly important that there should be permanence in the tenure of office of its servants. There is some criticism of the civil service from the opposition party, who claim that the tenure of office is not secure unless the appointee renders political service to the government. My observations were not sufficient to judge of the correctness of this criticism.

SAVINGS-BANK AND GOVERNMENT LOANS TO INDIVIDUALS.

Post-office savings banks have met with marked success. In 1901, 50,046 new accounts were opened and 35,018 closed. The total deposits at the close of 1901 were £6,350,013, giving an average of £29 17s. 10d. to each depositor. Business is steadily but not rapidly increasing year by year. There are also six private savings banks that aggregate deposits of £918,089. The newness of the country and the demands of settlers for funds to improve their property prevent as large a use of savings-bank facilities as would be made in a country longer settled.

Loaning money on mortgages to settlers is, so far as I know, a new feature in legislation. It was undertaken in 1894, ostensibly because the rates of interest by private lenders were so high that the development of the country was retarded. The government rate is 5 per cent., reduced to 4½ per cent. in case of prompt payment, and an amount is loaned equal to one-half, and in some instances two-thirds, of the appraised value of the property. The smallest loan made is £25 and the largest £3,000. Loans are also made at 6 per cent. interest, payable semi-annually, in which case the extra interest cancels the principal at the end of thirty-six and one-half years. These loans are made not only in the selling or leasing of land by the government, but also directly to settlers for the purpose of improving and developing

their property. The business men of New Zealand claim that the rate of interest was already being reduced, and would have come down without the government competition, and they feel that this act of the government is an unwarranted invasion of the field of private capital. I somewhat doubt this theory, as the rates of money on farm mortgages in this country, where money is much more plentiful than in New Zealand, are not as low as the New Zealand government rates. Inasmuch as the effect, and apparently also the purpose, of the general scheme of the New Zealand laws is to gradually eliminate private capital, this act seems to be a logical part of the general scheme.

LIFE INSURANCE AND CARE OF ESTATES.

The life insurance business is not a government monopoly but is conducted in competition with the regular insurance companies, including some of the larger companies of the United States. The government companies advertise very much like the other companies, making a special point of the government security behind the policy, and they offer a very large variety of policies,—straight life, endowment, accident, etc.,—in the same manner and upon about the same terms as other life insurance companies. This department was started in 1870, and shows a gradual growth from year to year, now including nearly one-half of the insurance business of New Zealand. The number of policies outstanding in 1900 was 140,368, and the total amount of insurance £9,697,036.

The Public Trust Office is a department for the settlement of estates, and for the care of the property of minors, lunatics, or other persons who wish an agent to administer their property. The department also offers its services free of charge in the drawing up of wills and in their custody where the public trustee is made the executor. The property thus held by the Public Trust Office is invested in government and city bonds and in real estate mortgages for the benefit of the estate. In 1902, 3,049 estates were in charge of the department, the total value of which was £2,467,614.

OLD-AGE PENSIONS.

The law establishing old-age pensions was passed in 1898, and has been twice amended since. As it now stands, a person to draw a pension must be sixty-five years of age, and must have resided in New Zealand for the previous twenty-five years, must not have been imprisoned for a period of four months during the past twelve years for any offense punishable by imprisonment for one year, and must have led

a sober and respectable life for the previous five years. His yearly income must not exceed £52 or his net capital £270, and he must not have deprived himself of property or income to qualify for a pension. The full amount of the pension is £18 per year, payable monthly, but this amount is diminished £1 for each additional pound of income he receives above £52, or for each £15 of capital he possesses in excess of £270. The amount paid out since the law was adopted has increased much more rapidly than the increase of population. The payments have been as follows :

1899.....	7,433 pensions.	£128,082
1900.....	11,285 "	193,718
1901.....	12,405 "	211,965
1902.....	12,776 "	217,192

These figures would seem to indicate that the people are each year learning how to qualify for the receipt of a pension. If the possession of a little property prevents receiving a pension, why economize and save ; or, if one already has property, why not seek to dispose of it in such a way as not to forfeit the claim to a pension ? Such a course is no doubt opposed to the spirit of the law, but human nature being what it is, there are very few communities where the people will not assist a needy neighbor to get support out of the government.

There is much theoretically to commend the principle of old-age pensions, but will it be possible to work it out in such a way as not to destroy the incentive for thrift and saving among the poor, and especially among the wage-earning classes ? The present New Zealand plan is little better than outdoor charity, and cannot fail to have a demoralizing effect upon the people. One way to avoid this evil would be to grant a moderate pension to every person sixty-five years of age without regard to his income. This would at least avoid offering a premium upon poverty. Another plan would be to organize an insurance fund, and to require a moderate weekly or monthly payment from those who wish to share in the pension. There is no doubt an urgent demand for some better system of support for those who have passed the age of efficient work, and it is probable that the New Zealand experience may contribute to this result, but the system will need large modifications in order that its evils shall not exceed its benefits.

LAND AND INCOME TAXES.

The system of taxation in New Zealand presents many novel features, some of which are commendable, while others appear to inflict rather severe penalties on the man who by hard work and thrift has secured a larger competence

than his neighbors. The land tax is assessed on the unimproved value of the land ; and the present rate of taxation is one penny on every pound of valuation, which is equal to about four-tenths of one per cent. Mortgages are taxed as real estate in the hands of the holder, and their value deducted from the assessed value of the land. Land to the value of £500, after deducting improvements on it, is exempt entirely from taxation, and an allowance of £500 is made on any assessment up to £1,500. Above that amount the allowance diminishes £1 for every £2 of valuation, so that no allowance is made on property assessed at £2,500, or above. It is also within the discretion of the commission to remit the taxes to any landowner whose income from all sources is not in excess of £200 per year. The result of these laws is that, with more than 110,000 landowners, only 17,500, or less than one-sixth, pay any land tax. But this is not the full measure of the inequality. When the land held by one person is assessed at £5,000 or more, an additional graduated tax is levied, varying from one-half of a penny on £5,000 to twopence on £210,000. This graduated tax is increased by 20 per cent. in case the owner has not resided within the colony for one year.

The land tax is supplemented by an income tax. Each person's income is exempt up to £300, and also the amount that he is paying for life insurance premiums up to £50. On any income in excess of this the rate is sixpence on the pound for £1,000, and one shilling on the pound for any amount in excess of this. Corporations are charged one shilling on the pound on their entire income. The income from land mortgages or stocks is deducted in making up the schedule, as these have already been included in the land tax. In this respect the law is commendable, as it avoids the double taxation which occurs in many of our states where mortgages are taxed and not deducted from the value of the real estate.

The amount derived from the land tax for 1901-02 was £312,836, and from the income tax £179,397. The total revenue from taxation for this period was £3,113,079, of which the land and income taxes furnish £468,393, or 15 per cent. Nearly all the balance came from customs duties. It is evident, therefore, that as a source of revenue the land and income taxes are not a great success. One source of revenue in New Zealand is a license tax of threepence on the pound on all money spent in betting on horse races. The income from this tax in 1902 was £19,040, and the total amount spent by the public was £1,275,813, or nearly three times as

much as the total amount of taxation on land and incomes.

DIVISION OF GREAT ESTATES.

The dividing up of large estates into small holdings is an attempt to correct a great mistake made in the early settlement of the country. The early settlers acquired, through purchase from the native tribes and otherwise, large tracts of the best agricultural lands in the islands. A small part only of this has been tilled, the larger part being kept for grazing. As the islands increased in population this land was needed for agricultural purposes, and for lack of it the development of the country was greatly retarded in population, railroads, highways, schools, and in everything that makes for a prosperous state. Accordingly, in 1892, a law was enacted by which the government could take these estates, either by purchase at an agreed price or by appraisal, and develop them by laying out roads and dividing them into farms and villages. The land is then sold or leased to actual settlers at an appraised value that is sufficient to pay the cost of purchase and development. No person is permitted to acquire more than two hundred acres of land in the division of these estates. Under no condition can a person in New Zealand own or lease from the government more than six hundred and forty acres of first-class farming land, or two thousand acres of second-class land. First-class grazing land owned or leased by one person is limited to five thousand acres, and second-class grazing land to twenty thousand acres, or sufficient to carry twenty thousand sheep or four thousand cattle.

The effect of these laws has been highly beneficial to the country. One hundred and seven such estates, containing 448,349 acres, have already been opened up for settlement, and the process is still going on. In most cases the amount the government shall pay for the land is arranged by mutual agreement, though occasionally it is determined by appraisal. Fortunately, in our own country the land has mostly been taken up by actual settlers and is owned in small holdings, so that we have no need for such radical legislation. It is probable, however, if the State of California had had such a law forty years ago, compelling the division of the great Mexican grants among actual settlers, the State would to-day be much further advanced in population and general development.

ARBITRATION OF LABOR DISPUTES.

Compulsory arbitration was first adopted by New Zealand in 1894, and since then the law has been several times amended. The law pro-

vides first for a Board of Conciliation, which endeavors to settle the disputes by arbitration. If it fails, the matter is brought before the Court of Arbitration on the application of either party, and the decision of the court is binding upon both parties. The rate of wages and the general conditions of labor established by the court become binding upon all similar industries located within the jurisdiction of the court.

Opinions in New Zealand differ very much as to the workings of this law. All agree that it settles strikes and prevents their recurrence, but many claim that it produces other evils much more harmful than the original labor troubles. The islands of New Zealand have a population of only 830,800, and as manufacturing is almost entirely limited to the supply of domestic wants, it is not of large dimensions. Since the introduction of this legislation, the volume of manufactured products has not kept pace with increased importations, and the manufacturers of New Zealand generally attribute this relative falling off to the interference of restrictive legislation. The following statistics of imports seem to substantiate this theory. In 1865, the population was 573,362, and the total imports (excluding specie) £7,479,000. In 1894, the year in which the arbitration act was passed, the population was 679,196, but the imports had decreased to £6,788,120. During the seven years from the passing of the act to the latest returns (those of 1901) the imports had increased to £11,817,915. The arbitration act may not be entirely responsible for this result, but it is a significant fact that on all articles manufactured in the colony, with one exception (beer), the importations have increased enormously since the passing of the act.

THE MINIMUM WAGE.

One somewhat curious result has been caused by the establishment of a fixed minimum wage. A minimum wage is for all practical purposes a maximum wage also; for, except in the case of a few foremen, or of persons of very unusual ability, it is the wages paid to all the employees doing the same work. It must, therefore, represent the wages of a healthy, able-bodied man. This shuts out of employment all who are not able to do full work. Several cases came to my knowledge of men who were anxious to secure work at lower rates of wages, and who stated that they were not able to do a full day's work, but the manufacturers were not permitted to employ them except at full wages. There is a provision in the law by which, with the special permission of the court and with the approval of the labor

unions, a man may be employed on special wages, but practically such permission is rarely given. In this way industrious and willing men are shut out of employment, or are compelled to apply to the government relief works, which are maintained to meet the wants of those who cannot find other employment. It ought to be possible to settle labor disputes in such a way as not to cripple the industries affected or to shut out of work men with willing hands and feeble bodies, but it is evident that New Zealand has not yet solved this problem.

LEGISLATION APPROVED BY THE VOTERS.

Opinions in New Zealand differ very much as to the general effect of all this radical legislation upon the colony. The government party points to the prosperity of the country, to the increase in population, wealth and general public improvements, and say this is the fruit of their progressive laws. The opposition party says that the prosperity is the result of good soil, good climate, and good markets, and is in spite of socialistic laws and not because of them. The present premier, the Rt. Hon. R. J. Seddon, has been in office continuously for ten years, and at a recent election his policy was sustained by a large majority. It is evident, therefore, that a majority of the people approve of this legislation. With a change in economic conditions as a result of drought or of a financial crisis, there will no doubt be a change of the

party in power, but I do not believe that there will be any general reversal of the reform legislation enacted during the past twelve years. Modifications and improvements will be made, but the main features will remain, for good or bad, without essential change, and the government will continue with its great centralized power.

APPROACH TO THE SOCIALIST IDEAL.

One effect of government ownership and management of the chief industries of the land is that government employment, or a "government billet," is the chief ambition of nearly every man. Aside from farming, almost the only lines of business open to private enterprise are navigation, manufacturing, and mercantile pursuits. About one man in every six throughout the islands is in some form of government employ, or is in receipt of a pension from the government. New Zealand has probably gone further than any other nation in realizing the ideal state of the socialist, where the government owns all the land, manages all the industries, and is the only capitalist in the community. It is doubtful if this extreme ideal will ever be realized, but if the New Zealand experiment continues successful, other nations will almost certainly enact similar laws, and the state, instead of private corporations, will become the great capitalist and the great employer of labor. When this occurs, it is needless to say, the days of the multi-millionaire will be numbered.

TRADE-UNIONISM AND DEMOCRACY IN AUSTRALIA.

BY "A TIRED AUSTRALIAN."

[The preceding article by Dr. Warner is objective, dispassionate, and scrupulously fair. The present one, by an Australian, does not attempt to state a situation in any such spirit, but is the outburst of a clever and able writer, who has lost his patience with the methods of organized labor, and who believes that labor's dominance in the affairs of Australia and New Zealand is becoming tyrannical and intolerable. We print this because it seems valuable as setting forth the point of view of men who are likely, in the near future, to make a very serious attempt to diminish the potency of trade-unionism in the Antipodes.—THE EDITOR.]

IF there is one thing about which all Australians and New Zealanders are cocksure, it is that the purest type of democracy the human race has ever known flourishes to-day beneath Australian skies. From the eminence of that delightful conviction we look down with mild pity upon the rest of mankind who have not yet reached our level of political beati-

tude. And we have, at least, some show of reason for the faith which is in us on this matter. We have the freedom of independent states without their risks. Our parliamentary constitution is the latest, not to say the loftiest, word of political wisdom. Five out of the six points for which the Chartists in Great Britain fought in 1838 are with us crystallized into law.

and form the constitution under which we live. It is true we have not yet got annual parliaments; but we have many political luxuries of which the unfortunate Chartists did not venture so much as to dream.

WHAT IS DEMOCRACY?

Yes! the latest and most highly developed form of democratic government is that under which happy Australians and New Zealanders live. But names and things do not always agree. A name in this imperfect world is sometimes only a mask which hides a fact in utter quarrel with the name that covers it. What are the essential characteristics of a democracy? The essence of a democracy consists of two things: First, as regards the state, it is the rule of the people as a whole, and not of any class or section of it; and second, as regards the individual, it insures the largest measure of private freedom consistent with the welfare of the public as a whole.

Now, "A Tired Australian," for many delightful and complacent years, shared the belief of all his fellow-Australians that we were the freest people under the sun. But that delusion, alas! is *in articulo mortis*. It is past praying for. We keep the form of a democracy, we talk its language, we soothe ourselves with its rhetorical commonplaces. But, as a matter of sober and literal fact, personal freedom is narrowing among us until it threatens to be non-existent. We are developing what may be called a one-legged democracy. Democratic forms are employed to accomplish the most undemocratic results. The outstanding, undeniable feature of Australian politics is that under solemnly democratic forms the inversion of all democracy is achieved. The minority rules the majority. Private freedom everywhere suffers confiscation. The present drift has only to be continued for another decade and the Australian or the New Zealander will enjoy a smaller area of personal freedom than any other human being outside of Russia. And as "A Tired Australian" contemplates such astonishing results achieved by such methods, is it strange that a certain emotion of astonished shame runs through his blood?

A PARLIAMENT GONE WRONG.

The rule of the minority is writ large in nearly all the Australian parliaments. It looks out, in an eminent degree, visible to universal and grinning mankind, in the Commonwealth Parliament. The labor ideal is "an independent party and a dependent ministry;" and this ideal has certainly been realized in the first Federal

Parliament. Labor members have captured it. They have used it to write their ideas on the statute-book. Their dominancy has been so absolute that, as the Labor members look back, they must, like Warren Hastings, be lost in wonder at their own moderation. Sir Edmund Barton, at their bidding, put a fool's cap on the head of Australia, in the shape of the immortal clause,—intended to paint not merely Australia but all the seas of the planet white,—which forbids Australian letters to be carried anywhere on board a ship that employs so much as a colored cook. Having done that at the bidding of the Labor party, what is there that Sir Edmund Barton, with a drowsy nod, would not have done at its whisper? And the trouble is that Mr. George Reid would probably have played Sir Edmund Barton's part if the chance had come his way! No one can blame the Labor party for their success. They may be even complimented on their moderation. What other group of politicians, if they had the same opportunity, would not use it in the same fashion? But here is the plain fact, the paradox and scandal of sane politics. that in a house of seventy-five members a minority of twenty-three practically rules. This may be democracy; but it is of a very limping and one-legged type. The few rule the many; the minority stamps its will on the majority.

And Australasian legislation, filtered in this way through labor channels, has in every detail, and at every point, the vice of its origin. It effects, though it does not professedly aim at, the establishment of class rule; the rule of a class over the nation, of an organized minority over a disorganized majority. It legislates for the few at the cost of the many. While talking the language of freedom, it abolishes freedom. It is building up the most hateful of tyrannies, an oligarchy under the disguise of a democracy. The Labor members would deny this energetically, and most of them with entire sincerity. They are honestly unconscious of the sort of tyranny they are creating. They believe themselves—with a simple faith which would be entertaining if it were not so tragical—to be THE PEOPLE! That insignificant section of the nation outside the limits of their class-horizon practically does not exist for them. *They are the People!* All rights begin with them and end with them!

THE PYRAMID ON ITS APEX!

Take a few typical facts chosen almost at random. In New Zealand, there are 55,000 registered workers, of whom only 17,000 are unionists; the non-unionists, that is, are in a majority

of two to one, and by all the principles of democracy they ought to rule. But the very suggestion of this would set all Labor members shrieking. It would seem to them flat blasphemy! They would shudder at it, as the entire College of Cardinals would shudder if any one proposed that the election of the new Pope should be referred to a committee of Orangemen! Yet, under a democratic sky, the majority must take precedence of the minority! Now, under the New Zealand Arbitration Act the court has power to direct employers to employ a unionist in preference to a non-unionist, and it has done this in not a few cases. But Mr. Seddon has promised to bring in a bill which will deprive the court of its freedom in this respect, and will *compel* all employers to give preference to unionists as against non-unionists! The majority of registered workers, in the exercise of their freedom, refuse to join the unions; as a punishment they are to be deprived of the chance of employment! The majority, that is, are robbed by the law of their right to disagree with the minority; and democratic institutions are employed to accomplish so highly undemocratic a result!

AN INVERTED RELIGION.

And the bitter humor of the situation lies in the revelation this incident makes of the inner mind of the Labor party about all workers not included in the unions. They feel toward them as high-class Brahmins feel toward pariahs. They are scarcely to be regarded as human beings; they may be justly denied the common privileges of civilization! A good unionist will, of course, refuse, if he can, to work with a non-unionist; he will also refuse to eat with him, to sleep under the same roof, to live in the same town with him. He feels toward him as a Spanish inquisitor felt toward heretics; nay, in the case of a fellow-unionist who departs from the faith and leaves the union, he feels as that same inquisitor might have felt toward, say, a converted Jew who had relapsed. His mood of feeling in this matter has the fervors, and sometimes employs the language, of a topsy-turvy religion. The hate of a unionist toward a free laborer outruns time. Here is the sort of poetry expended in Labor organs on the "blackleg":

THE BLACKLEG.

Oh, who would rob us of our bread,
Who cause our wives sad tears to shed,
And lay our children with the dead?—
The Blackleg!

Who, when the pangs of death are near,
Is choked with hell's continual fear,
Without a friend to linger near?—
The Blackleg!

Who, when the end arrives at last,
And all the shame and wrong are past,
Still finds himself in hell outcast,
In memory's blacklist posted fast?—
The Blackleg!

And the "blackleg," thus cursed with bell, book, and candle, and pursued with hate into eternity itself, is simply a free man in a free country, who claims the most rudimentary of all liberties, the liberty of selling his labor on what terms he pleases!

THE CRIME OF FREEDOM!

How relentlessly private freedom is being confiscated in the name of liberty, and by methods of law, may be illustrated again from western Australia. Mr. Justice Parker there, sitting as judge in the Arbitration Court, decided that the act did not forbid piecework. His Honor said:

With respect to piecework, his predecessors in the office of president had held that the act did not prohibit any workman engaged with an employer to work for him by piece. It would ill become him to take exception to the view so expressed. When one had a common-law right,—and it was an undoubted fact that, according to common law, every man had a right to contract as he thought proper,—when man had a common-law right like that, it was obvious that it required particular and express legislation to deprive him of that right.

Mr. Lobstein, the workers' nominee on the court, strongly condemned the action of the court in permitting unregulated piecework and freedom of contract. It was the duty of the court when it allowed piecework, to specify in the award all the terms and conditions under which work should be executed, and the remuneration to be paid for each article or part thereof. The whole thing was a huge farce.

The Labor party in western Australia pronounces Judge Parker's decision "absurd, and tending to bring the principle of compulsory arbitration into contempt." What these ingenious gentlemen want, in a word, is, in the name of freedom, to confiscate the freedom of other people; to deny the right of free contract to everybody outside their own union,—or, for the matter of that, inside that union. "A Tired Australian" refuses to quote Madame Roland's "O Liberty!" at this point, but he meditates with a sense of weariness more acute than ever on the eccentricities of human nature.

AN INDUSTRIAL CZAR.

Mr. Kingston's conciliation and arbitration bill is another example of the despotism which in the sacred name of freedom is being imposed on long-suffering Australia.

But let us imagine what the bill, if passed as Mr. Kingston has framed it, will actually accomplish. A court is to be set up of five persons,—

a judge of one of the state courts as chairman, and two representatives of the employers and two of the employees. This court will have power to fix all the conditions of labor,—the hours to be worked, the wages to be paid,—in any industrial dispute referred to it. It has power, further, to declare that the terms fixed in one trade, and at one locality, shall be enforced in that particular trade throughout all Australia. Now, human nature being what it is, it is certain that the representatives of employers and of employees will be opposed to each other, and the decision will practically lie with the chairman. In Victoria, there are seven wages boards in which a majority of seven-tenths is required to make a finding effective, and six of those boards are in a condition of permanent deadlock. Practically, each party votes in solid platoons; only where the chairman has a casting vote can results be achieved. This will certainly be the case in the Federal tribunal. So that the bill will practically create a sort of industrial Czar, who, by a single drop of ink on the tip of his pen, will be able to change the wages, the hours, and the conditions of work in every department of the complex industries of Australasia! He will be a lawyer, and not a man of business, too; and yet he will be authorized to change the business conditions of all industries. There is no other example of such despotism to be found in the civilized world. And it is to be set up at the bidding of a minority in the Federal Parliament, and, in the august name of freedom, to be imposed on the majority!

THE FUTURE OF AUSTRALIA.

What are the ultimate ideals toward which the Labor party is working, and working with every probability of success? It is toward the establishment of socialism. Mr. Watson, the leader of the Federal Labor party, defines socialism in nebulous and polite generalities, which mean nothing. It is "the humane policy of state control"—merely this and nothing more. Mr. Tom Mann, who is employed—and generously paid—by the Victorian Labor party as its apostle, is much more definite. He advocates a collectivist state, and he says:

By a collectivist state I mean a state wherein the land, mines, minerals, and machinery are owned and controlled by the people in their corporate capacity in the common interest of all alike, a state wherein there will be no room for any private receiver of rent, interest, or profit; where the total work to be done will be rightly apportioned over the total number to do it; and

therefore a state where all able-bodied persons will be called upon to do a share of work.

In one of his addresses, the heroic Tom becomes even more concrete in his ideals. He undertakes "the abolition of all private ownership of land;" he will do this by the ingenious method of "imposing taxes" which will make the unhappy landowner glad to get rid of his property.

The final goal of the Labor party is thus clear. Every employer of labor may be quite sure that it means to abolish *him*! He may be temporarily allowed to exist, but the noose is being fitted round his neck! The sole employer in the social paradise the Labor party will create is the state. And every farmer who owns the land on which he is growing wheat, or pasturing cows, may know that the aim of the Labor party is to drive him off his acres. His title-deeds are an unpardonable social offense! All private ownership of land is to be abolished. A social revolution, of course, is meant; but is it possible?

As "A Tired Australian" looks out on the political landscape, he sees clearly that it is very possible. The law which requires an employer to give preference to a unionist, as against a non-unionist, is, for the employer himself, a form of legalized suicide. It must drive all workers into the unions; and then the unions will have a voting power which at present they only pretend to have.

WILL IT COME?

It is, of course, possible that the self-respect, the common sense, the energy which belongs to Australians by right of blood, may experience a sudden awakening; and, say, at the next general election, a house may be returned which will represent a true democracy,—the rule of the people as a whole. At present the class rules the nation. Mr. Philp,—poor deluded man!—complains in Brisbane that "the representatives of Queensland in the Federal Parliament do not seem to think they owe anything at all to the state." Of course not! They represent a class, not the state! No Labor member pretends to represent anything but his class.

Now, if it is the question of a class against the nation, it is also a question of the nation against a class. If that issue is once realized, the dominancy of the Labor party will be over, and Australia will be what it pretends to be, but at present is not, a true democracy. Just now it is nothing but a one-legged democracy.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE CRY FROM MACEDONIA.

DR. E. J. DILLON contributes to the *Contemporary Review*, under the heading of "Foreign Affairs" and the pessimistic sub-heading "Finis Macedonia?" a very gloomy and sardonic account of the state of affairs in the Balkan peninsula. The gist of his article is that the present insurrection, being merely local, cannot succeed; and that Russia and Austria have determined not to interfere, or to let others interfere, but to allow the question to be settled practically by the extermination of the insurgents. When the conspiracy which prefaced the present revolt was being hatched, Russia and Austria warned the Porte and exhorted it to take time by the forelock. When M. Rostoffsky was murdered, the Russian Government, in spite of the clamor of the press, refused to take coercive measures, and demanded merely an explanation of the offense.

"Aided by the moral sympathy of Catholic Austria and Orthodox Russia, the Shadow of God will, perhaps, ultimately thwart this supreme effort of the Slav Christians to gain their independence, and will uproot the Christian population as well, and then the Macedonian question, and with it the near Eastern problem, may be consigned to the archives for a time. To open it up to-day would certainly—say the statesmen who make history there—lead to diplomatic misunderstandings and possibly even to war. And neither Muscovy nor Austria is prepared to run any such risks. Russia's policy is to gain her ends at the green table of diplomacy rather than on the costly field of battle. And what she has accomplished in the case of Manchuria she can certainly effect in Macedonia. In a few years Austria's position may, nay must, change, and with it her ability to make good her present exorbitant claims to a share in the heritage of the Sultan. The lion's share will then fall to Russia, whose only rivals will be the helpless little states of the Balkans, whom she can feed with fine words. Austria is even far less prepared for international unpleasantness than her northern neighbor. Her present internal ailments are as much as she can possibly bear, and even they may yet bring about disastrous consequences without any diplomatic troubles or armed intervention in the Balkans. Sleeping dogs had, therefore, best be left undisturbed. Consequently, come what may, the two Christian powers are determined to keep the peace and guarantee perfect liberty to the Turk to deal with the Christian

in his own traditional manner. Hence the murder of all the Muscovite consuls in Macedonia would not cause the Czar to swerve one hair's breadth from the policy of interest which his advisers have drawn up, just as the massacre of all the Christians would not move Catholic Austria to raise a finger against the Ottoman Empire."

Russia and Austria, says Dr. Dillon, are morally responsible for the present bloodshed. The only question is, How can their political interests be most effectually furthered? That problem solved, Christianity and humanity may be safely left to take care of themselves. Austria has now arranged with Roumania that a portion of the latter's army is to be held ready to neutralize a considerable portion of the Bulgarian forces in case Bulgaria should interfere. And, in short, consuls may be murdered, Christians massacred, and risings organized until the Christian population is thinned; but the *status quo* in the Balkan peninsula will not be changed this year.

A MITIGATION IN MASSACRE.

After which Dr. Dillon proceeds ironically to show how, though massacre may be encouraged by the Christian powers, they could by a slight sacrifice prevent some of its attendant horrors. He refers, of course, to the outrages on women and girls. The Porte, he says, wants only £10,000 to feed its own troops; not having this money it quarters them on the Christians, and the soldiers, as usual, subject the women to bestial indignities. By all means, says Dr. Dillon, let the massacring go on; massacre even the women, but spare them worse; it will cost only a trifle to the two great powers.

"In order sensibly to lessen the number of these abominations all that is needed is that a certain sum of money be regularly advanced to the Sublime Porte, for the sake of humanity, Christianity or prestige, by the two Christian powers whose vital interests are bound up with the success of the Turkish army. If, then, Austria and Russia between them agreed to make good the daily deficiency in the ten thousand Turkish pounds, many a Macedonian maiden and wife would receive the bullet, the dagger, or the lash of the Moslem with a blessing on her lips for the unseen but chivalrous Christian states which had sacrificed a portion of their revenues to save her from dishonor. The cost of the ransom of these unfortunate human beings would be trivial when one reflects on the enormous budgets of the two great empires; but if

the governments, from motives of strict economy, hesitate to allot the needful funds, would it not be advisable at least to allow public subscriptions to be opened by parish priests throughout the two countries, and thus, besides rescuing women and children from tortures worse than death, to shed a certain degree of luster on their respective churches, which have for a long time past been vainly longing for an opportunity of distinguishing themselves in the cause of humanity, morality, or religion?"

THE SOUL OF THE INSURRECTION.

Dr. Dillon devotes some space to a description of Damian Gruyeff, the soul of the revolutionary movement of which Boris Sarafoff is the head. Of Gruyeff, who, like most of the leaders, was primarily a schoolmaster, he says:

"Like Pompey of old, he has only to stamp on the ground to summon bodies of armed men to appear and follow him. His flow of eloquence is said to be as irresistible as were the magic sounds of the pipe of the Hamelin rat-catcher. He can lead his peasants to the jaws of death, and they march on blithely singing war songs. In this way he has persuaded thousands of very hard-headed men to leave their houses, their crops, and their families, and to risk their lives in a supreme and desperate effort to shake off the yoke of the Turk. The 'Macedonian Garibaldi' is the nickname which this demagogue has received, and he certainly has not usurped it. He possesses the invaluable gift of making his hearers see things as he himself views them, and of communicating to them the fire that burns within him. His eloquence is thrilling, his enthusiasm infectious, his appeal irresistible. He is a sympathetic, fiery-eyed, brown-skinned man of about thirty-three years, whose short career has been characterized by daring ventures and remarkable escapes. He knows his country and his people better than any of his fellow-compatriots, and is adored by the masses, who look up to him as to their savior."

The Sad Plight of the Macedonian Peasant.

The September *Fortnightly* contains an excellent article by Mr. H. N. Brailsford. He paints a sad picture of the condition of the Macedonian serf—for serf he practically is—under the hand of his Turkish taskmaster. The immediate cause of the insurrection, he agrees with the Turks, is the Bulgarian school, which turns out numbers of educated young men who refuse to return to their squalid homes. For the squalidness of the home the Turk is responsible. The average peasant has a net yearly income of only about £10, of which about £3 10s. goes on taxes. It

is a common incident for villages to cut down their fruit trees to avoid the tax on them. Mr. Brailsford says that in the most prosperous village he visited, out of a male population of five hundred and sixty no less than three hundred and seventy were obliged last year to work off their obligations for taxes by joining the *corvée*. The Turkish bey landlord gets half the farmer's produce. Every village supports a number of Turkish policemen who are really parasites, the average household paying them £1 10s. out of its income of £10,—not for protection, but for a precarious immunity from outrage.

Mr. Brailsford says that the average Macedonian peasant has no idea whatever whether he is a Serb, Bulgar, or Greek, but joins whichever party pays him most.

The result of the Bulgarian agitation is that the Serbs have been confined to the extreme northwest. Mr. Brailsford has a poor opinion of Hilmi Pasha, whose capacity for administering a country like Macedonia may be judged from the following anecdote:

"A consul brought to his notice the fact that medieval tortures were being applied to the Bulgarian suspects in the jail at Doiran. On the spot he drafted a telegram to the prefect of Doiran and showed it to the consul in question. It ran thus: 'Is it true that you have employed torture in your prison? If so, I must send a commission of inquiry.' Next day he produced the official's reply, adding complacently, 'You see, there was not a word of truth in the story!'"

Emancipated Crete.

Mr. D. G. Hogarth, writing in the same review on "Crete, Free and Autonomous," does not confirm the belief that emancipation from the Turk is the only condition of progress in Eastern countries. One looks in vain, he says, for indications of material progress. The general impression is stagnation and decay; the roads are bad, or non-existent, and the towns still in ruins. The fact is, that the Cretans, though they have now nominally excellent institutions, are dissatisfied with their lot. The desire for union with Greece is universal.

"No one who knows the measure of success attained by the Hellenic kingdom can believe that incorporation therein will directly add to the well-being of Crete; but increased well-being will follow nevertheless, for the union will introduce a feeling of satisfaction and finality which can never be obtained without it. It will remove a grievance of some seventy years' standing, which has often disturbed the peace of the Levant. It will harmonize Prince George's real position with his nominal character, and dispose

of many anomalies of detail. Difficulties of a new sort will doubtless arise over the settlement, but they will be of infinitely less importance than this present fiction, which disturbs the whole machinery of society."

A Lady in Old Servia.

The *Monthly Review* for September contains an interesting little article by M. Edith Durham, describing recent experiences in Old Servia, from which she returned only a fortnight ago. Miss Durham says that the Macedonian rising was planned well in advance, and that she was warned of the fact at a time when the European press was declaring that things had quieted down. She says:

"Few English people are aware of the immense strides that have been made in the lands released from Turkish rule in 1878. It is no exaggeration to say that in that short space of time more has been done toward improving all the conditions of life than in the previous four centuries. There are good roads, well-appointed schools, the towns have been largely rebuilt, and they are clean and tidy; far cleaner than those, for example, of Normandy. The free Balkan states are supposed by the average Briton to be wild and dangerous places. I can only say, from experience, that both Servia and Montenegro have treated me exceedingly well, and that to go from either of them into Turkey is to plunge from safety and civilization into danger; from the twentieth century into the Middle Ages; off the pavement into the sewer."

Austria and the Balkan Situation.

Austria's relation to the Eastern Question is discussed at some length in a paper on "The Problem of the Balkans," contributed to the *North American Review* for September by Mr. A. L. Snowden, formerly our minister to Greece, Roumania, and Servia. After showing that no class in the Turkish empire, Mohammedan or Christian, is satisfied with the fourteenth-century system of government under which they are compelled to live, this writer proceeds:

"The occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria after the war of 1877-78 might be regarded as a portion of the standing protest against the undue aggrandizement of Russia at the expense of her neighbors. In fact, in the present phase of the Balkan question, Austria might be considered to have fallen heir to most of the anti-Russian feeling and obligation. Austria is growing weaker as Russia grows stronger. The very progress of the imperial Hapsburg realm in the direction of local self-government, and toward the democratic ideal,

has been her undoing, in so far as relates to her capacity for united effort and for the carrying out of any consistent policy, either at home or abroad. There is also a large element in her population that is affected with Russianism, or, as it is sometimes called, 'Pan-Slavism,' the movement which seeks to draw into one political union all the Slavic peoples of the southeastern part of Europe.

DIVISIONS OF RACE AND LANGUAGE.

"No strong modern state has suffered from race hatreds so much as Austria. The German element has never succeeded in winning the friendship of any large portion of the other races inhabiting the empire. The long-standing feud between the Germans and the Hungarians is to-day keener than ever, notwithstanding the concessions to the Hungarians of autonomy and of a parliament of their own. Slavs against Germans and Hungarians, Hungarians against Germans, Bohemians against both Magyars and Germans, are a few of the historic feuds darkening the closing years of the reign of Francis Joseph. The other subject races,—Italians, Croats, Bosnians, Herzegovinians, Slovaks,—contribute nothing to the stability or coherence of the empire, and are unfelt except as their members occasionally make themselves heard in the Imperial Parliament.

"In Austria, indeed, nearly every existing tendency seems to be at war with the stability of the state, and this at the very time when the need for firmness and stability is becoming daily more imperative. Trade, usually deemed a bond of union, is turned by the Austrian form of internal tariff laws into a culture-bed of dissensions. Language, once the badge of servitude to Austria, is now cherished as a mark of defiance to the ruling caste. Race antipathy, another distinction fruitful of cruelties and misunderstandings, needs no explanation in a country which, like the United States, has a gigantic and unsettled race question on its hands; but nothing in this country can supply a parallel or any fit illustration for the array of disorganizing questions,—racial, commercial, and linguistic,—that confronts the Hapsburg empire. It is the generally accepted view, among educated men on the Continent of Europe, that the personal loyalty of the people to Francis Joseph is practically the one bond that really makes for unity and order in Austria. Every hour of life granted the venerable ruler means the postponement of the cataclysm which, it is generally feared, must come sooner or later. What it may mean, for the happiness of millions in eastern Europe, it is impossible now to forecast."

A POSSIBLE OUTCOME.

Despite this gloomy picture, Mr. Snowden suggests a possible way out of the darkness :

"Out of the seething mass of discord, rivalry, and hatred, solutions are possible which might conserve the real welfare of all parties whose interests are concerned. Should the heir-apparent to the Austrian throne manifest, upon his accession, some measure of appreciation of the vast responsibility of his position, the larger misfortunes may be delayed for an indefinite time, and the partition of Austria be long averted. In such an event, Austria might survive the Turkish Empire in Europe, and fall heir to some of its possessions. Salonika, a seaport the Hapsburgs have long desired, would almost surely come to them, and Austria would become a maritime power to an extent that is impossible with only her present harbor of Trieste. Greece, with almost equal certainty, would gain Macedonia. She may even become the nucleus of a new Christian nation on the Bosphorus, to replace the Asiatic anachronism of the Sultan. With the Dardanelles made free to ships of every nation, and with the new commonwealth guaranteed by the great powers, all would gain. Russia would have access to the oceans by ice-free ports, instead of being bottled up, as I feel unjustly, at all points throughout the western world. The granting of permission to her to traverse the Bosphorus and use her fleets in the Mediterranean would be robbed of its terrors to the western nations, since they would be on equal terms. England would reap rich advantage. Her tremendous naval preponderance, which is likely to be maintained for generations to come, would then be available for attack and reprisal upon Russia in a way now impossible, except in the extremely improbable contingency that she could have Turkey for an ally, as in the Crimean War.

"Surveying the whole field of probabilities, it is difficult to see how any one of the nations in interest could fail to benefit. In the meantime, everything would seem to depend upon the capacity of Austria, not only to meet the existing emergencies and maintain the present status, but so to consolidate her people as to preserve her unity until the Turkish overthrow in Europe and thus prevent overwhelming preponderance by Russia. Until that time, Austria must remain the only real barrier to Muscovite aggression in southeastern Europe. Every one who desires happiness for the millions in the Balkan states, and believes in popular government, must devoutly wish well to the house and empire of the Hapsburgs."

"SOCIAL EQUALITY": A NORTHERN PROTEST.

SOUTHERN white opposition to social equality between the races has found a vigorous champion where least expected,—in a Northern magazine. The leading editorial article in *Gunton's Magazine* for September is devoted to a frank discussion of "Race Social Equality." In this article the writer not only recognizes the truth and justice of the Southern contention that social equality between the races violates a sound sociological principle, but he takes the Southern people to task for not emphasizing this contention even more strongly than they have done in the past.

The writer draws a sharp distinction between industrial equality and social equality. He says :

"There is no sound sociologic or economic foundation for objecting to industrial equality,—that is to say, the equality of opportunity for all, regardless of race, to have the fruits of their labor, to own and use property and acquire wealth as the result of industrial skill and enterprise. Every individual, whether negro, Caucasian, Mongolian, or Malay, is better and makes better the community in which he lives in proportion as he develops the industrial ability to produce and acquire wealth and become a consumer in the community. Nor in doing so does he in the least injure either the industrial, political, or social status, or opportunity, of any other race ; on the contrary, he contributes to the improvement of the whole, just in proportion as he accomplishes the improvement in his own industrial condition. There is no sound reason why, with a rational basis for the franchise, there should be any discrimination against races.

THE QUESTION OF INTERMARRIAGE.

"But with social equality the case is quite different. Social equality means the mixing of the races in their homes and in their social life, the natural outcome of which is intermarrying and mixing of blood. To this the white people object, and on all the grounds of race-preservation, of sociological advancement, and of civilization, they are justified. It is as important to prevent the deterioration of the superior race by the infusion of negro blood, or that of any other semi-barbarous race, as it is to protect the civilization of the nation from the deteriorating influence of inferior civilization. It is at this point that the objection of the Southern people to the negro is strongest, and it is here that their position remains unshaken. Those of them who have a philosophic conception of the subject, reason that to recognize the social equality

of the races, even for the superior negroes, is to admit the right of the negroes to obtain, wherever possible, social intercourse and association with the whites. This, of course, is the natural social basis for the right to intermarry. If the negro young man has the social right to visit the white people, he has the implied right to ask the white young lady to marry him, wherever he can individually get recognition.

THE ETHNOLOGICAL VIEWPOINT.

"All the protection to the purity of the white race disappears when race distinctions and social barriers are removed. It must be admitted that from an ethnological and sociological point of view this would be an injury to the white race, and against that society should set its face. It is the duty of civilization always to protect the higher groups against the deteriorating influences of the lower groups, and likewise to protect the higher races against deterioration by the lower races. This does not mean that the lower should be prevented from rising, but that it should not be permitted to break down the higher. The improvement and progress of the poorer classes, poorer nations, and poorer races, should all come by improving the condition of their own group; but should never be permitted to come at the expense of the higher or more advanced group, nation, or race. This is a view, thoroughly sound, which the Northern people have not recognized, and, it is fair to say, which the Southern people have not emphasized as much as they might and should.

NEGRO SUFFRAGE.

"It is encouraging, however, to note that everywhere there is a more rational attitude prevailing on this race problem. In the North, people are talking more sensibly about it. The idea that the negro is as fit for the suffrage as the white man, merely because he is a man, is disappearing. Nearly forty years of experimentation has shown that the suffrage in his hands has been a failure; that he has done nothing for himself with it, and done much to injure the community; that at no time has it been used by the negroes to promote any idea or political measure for their own improvement, or, for that matter, for the general improvement of the community. The negroes have been used mainly as political tools,—purchasable material for packing conventions, or to wreak vengeance on their white neighbors at whose hands they have received political and sometimes personal persecution. This generation of experience is gradually modifying the erratic idea of absolute rights regarding the negro so

prevalent in the Northern and Eastern States, and it is fair to say that there is a correspondingly moderated tone of antagonism to the negro in the South. But there is one great mistake still prominent in the policy of Southerners toward the negro, and that is the manner in which they are seeking to bring about his disfranchisement. It may practically be assumed that in objecting to the negro having the suffrage, the South has the substantial endorsement of the nation in general; provided, however, that it will put the exclusion of the negro on more broad and rational ground, the ground of unfitness to exercise the suffrage. In order to do this, however, the standard of fitness must be made the same for black and white. If it be ignorance, then the ignorant white should be excluded also; if it be property qualification, then it should be alike for both races.

SOCIAL DISTINCTION THE ESSENTIAL POINT OF THE RACE QUESTION.

"If the South would really formulate its position and rest its doctrine of race distinction upon the principle that is so clearly and philosophically understood by some Southern people (and not the less clearly by some Southern women), and take the position that for ethnological and sociological reasons race social equality is impossible and will not be tolerated, and that industrial equality shall be recognized, and that the right of political suffrage shall not rest on race distinction, but on a basis of individual and economic fitness that shall apply to all, the sectional differences regarding the problem would disappear. The South would then have the cordial endorsement of the whole nation in maintaining the essential point in the race question,—namely, race social distinction; and the race question in the South would be in a fair way toward a peaceful and rational solution under the guidance of, and entirely consistent with, the ideas of the Southern people themselves."

SOUTHWEST AFRICA AS A HEALTH RESORT.

THE climatic conditions that make the tablelands of Southwest Africa an ideal health resort, especially for the consumptive, are set forth by Professor Dove in the August number of the *Deutsche Monatsschrift*. These conditions are the result of the physical conformation both of the southern hemisphere, and of the southern part of Africa in particular. In the first place, the preponderance of water in the southern hemisphere produces a much more equable temperature than is found in countries north of the equator, the relatively cool summer here being followed by a very warm winter. On the 35th

degree northern latitude, for instance, the mean temperature of the hottest month is 25.8 degrees Celsius, while in the corresponding degree southern latitude it is only 19.3 degrees Celsius; similarly, the mean temperature of January in the same degree northern latitude is 8.8 degrees Celsius, as against 12.4 degrees Celsius for the coldest month in the corresponding degree southern latitude. In the second place, entire South Africa, unlike South America and Australia, is composed of a series of plateaus, piled in terraces one above the other, and rising to a considerable level above the sea, without intervening lowlands. The rarified air at this elevation compels a person to breathe more deeply and freely than in lower altitudes. Hence follows the enlargement of the chest that has been observed even in healthy adult Europeans after having lived here for some years; it has been noted, also, among army officers stationed in South Africa, although these men generally get sufficient exercise at home to expand their chests.

There is little humidity; hence the hot days of summer seem less unbearable than an oppressive summer afternoon in central Europe, and are generally followed by a cool night, affording refreshing sleep. "A Kaffir chief, on being taken to London, complained bitterly of the heat there; and the Ovaherero and Withoos, at the Berlin Colonial Exposition, also complained of the oppressive atmosphere. In both cases the temperature was much lower than that to which these people were accustomed in their South African home, but the high degree of humidity of the northern climate produced the sensation of much greater heat." Although the nights are icy cold in winter, the pure, clear air is not nearly so unpleasant to breathe as the damp, cold air of the European winter.

Another characteristic of these plateaus, finally, is the flood of sunlight warming the atmosphere and the ground. "Aside from portions of the great desert regions, there is, perhaps, no other country where the sun shines longer and more uninterruptedly than in the interior of South Africa.

OUTDOOR LIFE.

These characteristics,—the rarified air, the absence of humidity, the even temperature, varying little from day to day, and the wealth of sunshine,—furnish ideal conditions for outdoor life. One can spend, practically, day and night in the open air without taking cold. The primitive houses affording little protection. The writer recorded only three days during a winter in southern Hereroland, in German South Africa,

on which it was impossible to sit outside on account of the cold. Even a person unable or unwilling to take much exercise can sit at least from eight to ten hours in the open air. A really unpleasant temperature,—raw, damp, cold weather,—which is not unknown in southern Europe, seldom occurs in South Africa; nor are there any sudden changes inimical to health on these plateaus, as found in central Europe.

A REFUGE FOR CONSUMPTIVES.

Professor Dove, although not a physician, noted, during his visit, various interesting cases regarding the benefit consumptives derived from a sojourn in this country. Several of his acquaintances, who settled in South Africa on account of tuberculosis, could take rides of eight hours (forty miles) and longer without fatigue. Consumptives suffer less here than elsewhere, and all praise the extraordinary effects of the climate. This fact has been attested by physicians. Dr. Bachmann, who practised for several years in South Africa, is quoted as saying: "The patient is not visibly affected even by advanced destruction of the lungs; consumptives generally feel well in this climate, and often live to old age."

DIRECT LEGISLATION IN NEW ZEALAND.

THOSE who have read Dr. Warner's survey of New Zealand's socialistic legislation, which appears in this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, will be interested in the account of the direct legislation movement in that country which is contributed to the September *Arena* by the Hon. H. G. Ell, a member of the New Zealand Parliament. To quote from this writer:

"Public opinion in New Zealand is rapidly ripening in favor of placing the initiative and the referendum in the hands of the people in both general and local government. The referendum is in operation in New Zealand in a restricted form in general government. We take a referendum of the electors every three years on the subject of the sale of alcoholic liquor; for this purpose every male of twenty-one years and every woman of twenty-one years, whose name is on the roll of those entitled to vote, may vote. The licensing district is each electoral district, a poll being taken in each on the same day as that fixed for the election of members to represent the people in Parliament, the ballot paper for the poll on the liquor question being of a different color to the ballot paper used for the election of members.

"One-quarter of New Zealand's population is urban, three-quarters rural. Commenting on the

1899 vote, I said: It is usually supposed that the prohibitionist sentiment is stronger in the country than in the city, but in New Zealand the vote for continuance or for license is a little larger in the cities than in the country, but the no-license vote is also a larger percentage in the cities than in the country. The percentage for reduction is the only one of the three which is larger in the country than in the cities. In the 1896 vote, a slightly larger percentage of the double ballots was cast in the country than in the cities, but in 1899 this was reversed, and more double ballots were cast by nearly 22,000.

"Comparing the 1896 vote with the 1899 vote, we find a decided growth in the temperance sentiment. Thus the votes for continuance, which is really license, decreased from 42 per cent. to 38½ per cent.; of the 3½ per cent. lost, nearly 1 per cent. went to reduction of licenses and 2.6 per cent. went to no license, thus showing a growth of the more radical sentiment.

A LARGE FEMALE VOTE.

"The 1902 vote shows a strengthening of the tendencies shown in 1899. The percentage for continuance has decreased, and the percentage for reduction and prohibition have increased about equally in the rural, urban, and total vote. Three years ago, only one district, Clutha, polled the requisite three-fifths majority to get prohibition. This year, six out of the sixty-two districts get it, and two of these adjoin Clutha, the prohibition district. But in two of these districts the vote has been declared void because of irregularities, but on revote they will probably vote the same way. Nine voted for reduction. It is significant that of the 318,859 votes cast 180,294 were by men, or 56 per cent., and 138,565 were by women, or 44 per cent., and there were 415,789 persons on the poll, so that 77 out of every 100 voted. This percentage was practically the same in the country as in this city."

THE BRITISH TARIFF DEBATE.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN'S Zollverein proposition continues to be one of the chief topics of discussion in the British reviews. The sentiment of Australia on the question is expressed by the *Review of Reviews for Australasia* as follows:

"On the great question of preferential trade Australia, at the present moment, has certainly not made up its mind. It watches the Titanic debate on the other side of the sea, on the whole, with uncomprehending eyes. A number of authorities, indeed, have undertaken, with more or less success, to interpret Australian sentiment,

and in sundry rash cablegrams they have conveyed their guesses to the English press. But at present Australia has only looked at the question from what may be called the local-partisan standpoint. Free-trade organs discharge much angry rhetoric against Mr. Chamberlain because they think he has turned traitor to free trade. Protectionist organs, on the other hand, bless him because they fondly imagine he has become a sudden convert to the gospel of protection. Most people are awaiting the arrival of their opinions on the subject; at present they have none. To bind within one tariff the infinitely complex and varying productions and interests of all the provinces that make up the amazing British Empire is a feat which seems beyond the wit of man to accomplish. When such a tariff emerges, Australia, it may be shrewdly guessed, will judge it chiefly by the single test of how it will suit Australian interests. Free trade within the empire could not, for Australia, be realized without an amazing surrender of local protection; and even the local protectionists, who are now busy putting a nimbus on the brows of Mr. Chamberlain, would contemplate the proposal with quite changed eyes under such conditions. Australia and New Zealand will cheerfully take part in any 'inquiry' it is proposed to undertake; but they will enter into that inquiry, and will emerge from it, uncommitted!"

The Views of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach.

The *Monthly Review* contains an important article from the pen of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach on the fiscal controversy. Sir Michael, as might be expected from a late member of the government, writes moderately, but he puts his opposition to Mr. Chamberlain's schemes just as resolutely as in his speeches in Parliament. He begins by declaring that there is no cause for the panic over England's commercial position. "For example, can it be true that our iron trade is being ruined if the profits of it assessed to income tax have increased from £1,840,350 in 1896-97 to £5,380,418 in 1900-01! The statement that our import of raw wool for manufacture increased from five hundred and ninety-eight million pounds in 1886 to seven hundred and fifteen million pounds in 1901 seems incompatible with decay in our woollen manufactures; while if we can send more than £70,000,000 worth of our cotton manufactures abroad, and find that in 1901 our exports of cotton-piece goods and yarn were more than in 1872, though values then were more than double the average of present prices, the policy of fighting hostile tariffs by free imports can hardly be pronounced a failure in the cotton industry."

THE THIN END OF THE WEDGE.

Sir Michael does not believe that it is possible to be contented with small duties. The Chamberlain policy involves duties high enough to give a real advantage in the English market to colonists against foreigners; and any readiness on the part of the colonies to accept small duties at first is certainly no proof that the object of the new policy would be satisfied by such a duty, and the adoption of the principle would pledge the government to any subsequent increase of duties that might be found necessary to carry out the object of protection. Moreover, England cannot show special favor to Canada; and equity to the other self-governing colonies would compel the imposition of duties on all kinds of live and dead meat, fish, fruit, butter, eggs, and vegetables. Taxes on raw materials would be demanded by those interested in Canadian timber, and in wool and skins from Australia; and the preference would have to be extended to the non-self-governing colonies. Sir Michael says:

"The truth is, that any treaty binding us to admit the colonies to our markets, as now, on equal terms with our own producers, while they will not admit our producers to their markets on equal terms with their own, is so unfair in principle that it must soon become unworkable in practice. You cannot base a fiscal policy for the empire on the two opposite principles of free trade and protection. The high protective tariffs, intended to protect colonial industries against all outside competition, including our own, are the real obstacles between us, and we have been plainly told by all that this protection must be maintained. It is, therefore, impossible to see how we could gain from the colonies any great increase of trade, or any large measure of free trade in manufactured goods, which are the only articles of importance we could send them."

Lord Avebury's Argument.

The *Nineteenth Century* for September opens with a first-class paper in favor of free trade by Lord Avebury, in which the whole argument of the anti-protectionists is admirably summed up. First, Lord Avebury denies that there is any ground for despondency in regard to England's position, or any ground for changing her fiscal policy. There has been an enormous expansion of her trade, and the expansion coincided remarkably with the adoption of the free-trade policy. The income-tax and death-duty returns show how prosperity has increased. Secondly, England does not suffer from "dumping":

"We are told that other countries 'dump down' on us their surplus products. To some

extent that is no doubt true. But, in the first place, if to be 'dumped down' on is an injury, other countries suffer far more than we do. Our manufacturers 'dump down' on them far more than their manufacturers dump down on us."

It is nonsense, says Lord Avebury, to suppose that dumping can end in underselling and destroying all of England's industries, as in that case she would have nothing to exchange for the dumped goods.

THE EFFECT ON WAGES.

"It has been said that a rise in the price of food would be met by a rise in wages. That does not follow, but if so a rise in wages would necessitate a rise in prices, and a rise in prices would, of course, seriously cripple our manufactures in the competition of the world. A difference has, I see, been drawn between raw materials and food. It is understood that the government would not, under any circumstances, consent to tax raw materials. But, in the long run, a tax on food would hamper our manufactures in the same way as a tax on raw materials."

Lord Avebury gives the following instance of the effect of protection and high wages on the cost of production:

"The Atlantic Transport Line recently had four similar ships built,—two in Belfast and two in Philadelphia. The American-built ships cost £380,000 each, while the Belfast ones cost £292,000."

Lord Avebury attributes the success of the Germans almost altogether to their education and technical training and to the discoveries of their men of science; but the progress made as the result of this has been a benefit to the world at large, England included.

"A development of commerce won, and fairly won, by science and skill cannot be met by protection. To technical education Germany owes much, and if we wish to hold our own we must follow her example. But I believe her success would have been even more striking if her trade had been free, as, in the long run, Germany will inevitably find."

An American View.

Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson contributes to the *Fortnightly* "An American View of Mr. Chamberlain's Proposals." He regards the proposals as an acceptance of the American contention that no country can afford to leave its industrial interests outside the sphere of governmental care. He says:

"It is impossible to cite a single case of any commodity having been protected in America for fourteen years, without having been made

cheaper than it was before the protection was enacted. If it be merely a question of economy, could not England better afford to spend, not £8,000,000, but £80,000,000 a year on measures to promote effectively the growth of wheat than to go on increasing her ships of war on the principle that her navy must more than equal any other two navies in the world?"

The Canadian Standpoint.

Mr. John Davidson writes, in the same magazine, on the Canadian standpoint. A British duty on corn will, he declares, result in a great Canadian wheat boom; but the boom will be temporary, and when it is over will leave ruin and stagnation behind it. Canada's first thought about the proposed preference is joyous acceptance; the second will be accompanied by some gritting of the teeth.

"The voice of the oppressed manufacturer will be heard in the land, and the convinced protectionist will begin to renew his partial studies of the trade question. Two things should never be forgotten,—(1) that Canada is a great believer in Canada first, and (2) that Canada is protectionist in sentiment."

THE FUTURE OF INTERNATIONAL YACHT-RACING.

THE cry against the deplorably exaggerated type of modern cup challenger and defender is taken up in the October *Cosmopolitan* by no less a yachtsman than Sir Thomas Lipton himself. He has built three ninety-foot racing-machines, because the present deed of gift for the *America's* Cup necessitates such monstrosities. But he is sincerely hoping for a revival of ocean yacht-racing, which would greatly develop the class of schooner-yachts,—boats possessing, in addition to speed, seaworthy qualities and attractiveness as summer homes.

USELESS SAVE FOR RACING.

"The real cause of the present type of ninety-footers, which since 1895 have been steadily deteriorating as pleasure craft, is easily seen. They are extremes of a type that exhibits the factor of speed at its maximum, and the energies of the respective designers have been aimed toward that end exclusively. The boats have absolutely no other merit than that of extreme facility in traveling through the water, and for other purposes are entirely worthless. A defeated racing machine is a useless combination of steel, canvas, and hemp. It can never be transformed into a real yacht. There is danger on one at all times. Again, these great hulls,

with their pendulums of one hundred tons of lead swinging twenty feet below the troubled surface of the sea, cannot get into many harbors along the coast, and must perforce ride out the fury of the elements in the open."

A REAL YACHT IS NEEDED.

More to Sir Thomas' liking are the great schooner-yachts, of which the larger number is on this side of the water. "These craft are good sea-boats and mean something for naval architecture. In no case is their draft of water



THE "RELIANCE."

(American defender of the *America* Cup.)

so great that they cannot enter any harbor. They are yachts in all the name implies, are equipped with comfortable, even sumptuous quarters, and speed is also a factor without detracting at all from their well-appointed elegance. These luxuries would be utterly impossible under the conditions that exist among the freaks of racing-machines that have no legitimate claim to being called yachts.

"Types of craft such as the *Reliance* or the *Shamrock III.* mean nothing for marine architecture, except the development of speed. Their respective models exhibit no knowledge that could be really valuable in building the craft that makes either England or America the commercial power that it is, nor can any lesson be drawn from the light construction and deep fin with its one hundred tons of lead flirting with eels and flounders almost within touch of the bottom."

OCEAN FLYERS UNDER CANVAS.

"As a matter of history, races across the ocean have been sailed, and were splendidly satisfactory both as tests of speed and of weatherly qualities of the yachts. The names *Cambrria*, *Henrietta*, *Dauntless*, *Coronet*, *Fleetwing*, and *Vesta* are familiar to yachtsmen throughout the world. All of these were schooners that represented the best work of the designers of their



"MAYFLOWER" AND "GALATEA."

(Cup defender and challenger in 1886.)

day. They were fast, but they were not racing-machines. It is the modernized type of such vessels as these that I should like to see racing for the cup, and it must be from such as these that we will have ocean-racing in the future. The racing-machine could not live through an Atlantic storm, but an up-to-date schooner, possessing the advantages of seaworthiness of any of the above-named yachts, associated with the greater speed of the up-to-date design, could not only live, but make better weather than an ocean liner."

THIS YEAR'S CONTEST.

Sir Thomas is sportsmanlike with regard to his recent defeat. "I find no fault with my designer, my captain, or my crew. They are the best in all Great Britain, and we were beaten fairly by a faster boat, the product of the best genius in the world. My boat was not any worse, but your boat was so much better, and I am not in the habit of making excuses. Your victory was fair and square, and I must try again just

as soon as I can get a boat designed that will stand a chance of winning.

"I firmly believe that the *America's* cup will go abroad, if only for one or two years, and I would give my life to be the one who carries it back to our beloved little island. If I knew a designer who could build a boat for me that had a chance, I would challenge again before I leave America. I also want to win it over the same course where others besides myself have failed.

This designer will surely be found, however, and my belief that we shall eventually win is absolute.

"In the meantime, ocean-racing is surely being received with greater favor each year, and will do much to bring out a craft that will be desirable in every way. Then Britons and Americans will meet on the high seas, and we will have ocean contests between our nations that will bring us who speak the same language and are of one race closer than ever before. It is a grand prospect, and may the best boat win. She will have the cheers of Great Britain and the United States alike."

ADELINA PATTI.

UNDER the suggestive title "Adelina Patti's Achievement the Result of Self-Confidence," William Armstrong describes, in *Success* for October, the career of the

great prima donna who is returning for a brief visit to the scenes of her first triumphs. "Her real *début* was made in a concert at Tripler's Hall, New York City, at the age of seven years. Her *début* in grand opera was also made in New York City, when she appeared in 'Lucia di Lammermoor' at the Academy of Music, on November 24, 1859. The success that followed it was not recognized, a year later in London, until she had proved her worth there as well. Even then every great city on the Continent had to be separately convinced that her powers were of the phenomenal and not of the overrated variety, and success was made in one capital only to be disbelieved in another until it was proved there as well."

Madame Patti's career has been one of hard work and self-denial, though she was born a singer. "As far as the mere cultivation of her voice went, she seemed born with gifts that made the greatest technical difficulties a matter of natural acquirement. 'Trills, scales, chromatic scales, and all other such things come naturally to me,' she said recently at Craig-y-Nos.

'I studied and worked, but it was unnecessary for me to toil.'

Her struggles were of the exceptional kind. "Adelina Patti's childhood, if childhood it may properly be called, gave her, as did her later years, a stern schooling in the ways of self-denial. The care-free days of average children she seems scarcely to have known, for with her life meant work from almost the very outset. Once in a while, she rebelled at iron-bound routine, and she herself tells of the night when she was singing and caught sight of two little girls who took her fancy, sitting in the front row. With her born impulsiveness she called out to them, 'Wait until I get through here, and we will go out and play!' It is needless to add that she did go out and play, for with all her surrender to duty, she has always had a will of her own.

ALWAYS HAPPY EVEN UNDER SEVERE CONDITIONS.

"She may be just stepping from a train after dust-choking hours of travel, or sitting on deck after a wind-tossed voyage, but her manner is as gay as if she had had rest and quiet behind her. Another happy gift with her is not to look bored. No matter how long the visit or wearying the visitor, she listens with attention. There is no straying of thought or replies made at random. Like some politicians, she has the happy faculty of recalling faces, though the interval of separation be a long one, and she takes up the conversation with a memory for incident that makes it appear as if association were resumed just where it was left off.

"Madame Patti has, for the major part of fifty-three years, been on duty with short intervals of leisure. With her it has not been a question of what is most agreeable to do, but of what *must* be done. When others could follow pleasure there have been a thousand little duties for her to accomplish. The following of such a course has by this time become, apparently, second nature to her. She has learned to give up her own desires through habit. . . . She keeps happy interest in things about her. This course has brought with it one of the secrets of her well-sustained youthfulness. Through strong interest in the moment she has kept abreast of the times. Not the least of her hold on people has come through sympathy with those in trouble. While she has doubtless been imposed upon often enough, she is ready to give time for both inquiry and help.

"Her castle, Craig-y-Nos, in the Swansea Valley, South Wales, is a museum of mementos of her great career. The collection of jewels given her by emperors, kings, and royal personages

almost equals that of a reigning queen, her pearls and emeralds being especially noteworthy, and in her drawing-room are wreaths of gold and silver presented to her in nearly every civilized country of the globe. To-day she receives similar tokens from kings before whose grandfathers she sang when they were tiny tots in the nursery."

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH AND THE SACRED PLAY.

THE police prohibitions of Heyse's "Mary of Magdala" have been one of the leading topics of the past theatrical season in Europe, and they have provoked in the *Kultur* an authoritative statement by Dr. von Kralik of the historical position of the Church of Rome as to dramas bearing on sacred subjects.

The Passion and the miracle plays originated in the Church's desire to combat the tendencies of the decadent Roman stage, indefensible both from the standpoint of morals and of æsthetics, and were evolutions of the liturgy, enlarged by exhortations from the clergy, who, with the brotherhoods and guilds, were the actors. The altar itself was the scene of action, by degrees the entire church,—at first, the interior, especially the choir; then the nave, the portals, and, finally, the square before the church (generally the market-place). Even in the fifteenth century, when the miracle plays assumed a more worldly character, there was always involved the idea of some personal sacrifice on the part of the players, sometimes in the form of the assuming of the expenses by an individual or community.

THE PERSONATION OF SAINTS.

Dr. von Kralik insists upon the idea that the Roman Catholic Church is not opposed to the dramatization of sacred incidents, but that she holds this a part of pastoral activity of God's service in the highest sense; at the same time, believing that this sphere of artistic labor should remain exclusively under her control. Representations for mere entertaining purposes for gain, or for anything but the higher religious purpose of instruction and for charity, the Church resolutely disapproves. Still less does she approve of the presentation of sacred personages on the profane stage, and this attitude is impregnable in regard to the divine persons of the Holy Trinity and those saints who are the object of widespread devotion. With saints having more a national character, like the Spanish heroes of Calderon's quasi-sacred dramas, and also those less extensively venerated, as the *Polyeucte* of

Corneille, an unknown martyr, the rule is liable to a less stringent interpretation. The same indulgence might apply to theaters rising in aim and repertoire above the average, and to those occasions, too, of special dedication of their talents by actors and dramatist, to a charitable object, historically instanced in the *Autos* on Corpus Christi by the poets and players of medieval Spain.

SHORTCOMINGS OF THE DRAMATIC ART.

The views of the Church, says Dr. von Kralik further, are justified by the highest ideals of art, especially the requisite of a high standard for text and music and a treatment appropriate to the sublime subject. Did our modern theater stand in corresponding relation to the Church as an institution as did the classic Greek drama, all grounds for objection would disappear; the Greek drama, like the miracle plays of the Middle Ages, forming a branch of the divine worship. But it is, unfortunately, true of the stage of to-day, as of that of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, that, although the social position of the actors themselves has rightly been raised, the stage itself falls lamentably short of that ideal temple of art, a tribune whither the problems of humanity could be brought for solution, free alike from the commercial taint and the seeking for notoriety. Racine, with a flash of immortal genius, struck the perfect harmony when he gave the elevated form of the ancient Greek drama to "Esther" and "Athalia," and though the old miracle plays and the cloister dramas of the nun Roswitha are marked at times with the prevalent coarseness of the times, this incorporation of the realistic and actual to contribute to the lasting moral effect has the justification of Aristotle. On the other hand, however daring occasional situations in these products of a ruder if more fervently religious age may seem, the homely writers were at least gifted with a sense of delicacy and true artistic feeling which excludes a parallel instance of such tactless and irreverent treatment of the Saviour's human relations as that of Heyse in "Mary of Magdala," the rather doubtful artistic value of the latter work besides not warranting a lenient view of the liberties taken with the most cherished ideals of a Christian public. Were the offensive passages excerpted which have been the real cause of the prominence the play has assumed, the remaining portions would be found not greatly above the level of the unfortunately mediocre religious plays chosen by Church associations for provincial festivals. For the condemnation of such a piece the Church and the civil authorities have to speak alike. The de-

mand for the revival of religious plays, one of the most urgent and striking of the past decade, finds its true source in the increasing religious need felt even by the most indifferent among poets and public, and in the inadequacy of the art of to-day to the inspired answering of the call.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF PLAY.

NOT very long ago, play and amusements generally were looked at,—at best, as idle waste of time, at worst as immoral and even irreligious. But the desire to play is a natural instinct common to the young of all the higher animals; and modern science demands the study of all natural instincts. The *Contemporary Review* for September contains an extremely interesting article by Dr. Woods Hutchinson on "Play as an Education."

PLAY THE FORERUNNER OF DEVELOPMENT.

Play distinguishes the higher from the lower animals, and it signifies possibility of education. Fishes do not play at all; the lower mammals can hardly be taught to play, and birds are entirely devoid of the instinct. But the kitten and the lamb are essentially playing animals. The human young, however, are the true players, and, in reality, it is play that develops them into manhood. "Children," says Dr. Hutchinson, "are born little amorphous bundles of possibilities, and are *played* into shape."

THE PLAY-STAGES OF CHILDREN.

Dr. Hutchinson divides the child's life into six play-stages, corresponding to primitive civilization, which he calls the "Root-and-Grub, the Hunting, the Pastoral, the Agricultural, and the Commercial." The root-and-grub stage is the first, when the infant chiefly shows its interest in life by clutching at bright objects. A little later, the rolling spool or ball attracts him exactly as it attracts the kitten. From this he passes into the hunting stage, where he hides himself, jumps out at people from behind doors, and peoples his environment with imaginary wild beasts. Last, he emerges into the commercial stage, when he trades in marbles, and fills his pockets with schoolboy merchandise.

"In short, the school of play, in fifteen short years, has brought him from the root-digging cave-man to the 'bear' of the stock exchange, the modern captain of industry."

THE ORGANIZATION OF PLAYING.

When the child plays, it is literally organizing its brain; and we should recognize the fact that the boy or girl engaged in vigorous, joyous play

is carrying out an important part of the actual work of education and preparation for life. Dr. Hutchinson claims, therefore, that play should be organized, and that for every pound spent on a school building, ten shillings should be spent on the playground.

"Let there be organized, as an auxiliary department of the kindergarten and primary grades, a class of play-mistresses and play-masters, who shall be so distributed throughout the school district that each will have charge of from twenty to forty children. Then for each division of the district let playgrounds be provided; or, in geographically small, densely populated districts, one for each age-group of the children.

"The equipment of the grounds should be of the simplest. A rough shed-roof covering part of the space, for use in wet weather, and movable wind-breaks, either board or canvas, which could be put up on the north and west sides in winter, would be advisable. With the assistance of these, the number of days in the year on which healthy children would not be much better off playing vigorously, out of doors than cooped up in the house would be reduced to a very small minimum.

"For the younger children, a capacious sand-pit, where they can grub and dig to their hearts' content, a load of 'tailings' blocks and short boards of all sizes from a sawmill or carpenter's shop, for building purposes; a few cheap accessories for the Robinson Crusoe and 'Indians' play would suffice. For the larger youngsters, plain, strong swings, bars, ring-trapezes, vaulting-horses, seesaws, etc., could be constructed, and, of course, large spaces kept always clear, leveled, and free from mud or standing water, for hockey, football, rounders, prisoners' base, and all the running games."

WHAT THE GAIN WOULD BE.

Dr. Hutchinson says that this organization of play, though it would cost something, would result in a diminution of the staff of inside teachers, and would get rid of the difficulty which is at present met with through young children being kept too long at school, owing to the fact that there is no one to care for them at home.

"The playground would completely relieve our schoolrooms of this nursery duty, and with its powerful educational influence utilized as an ally, it would not be too much to hope that school hours could be reduced to at least one-half, if not one-third, of their present length. That is to say, children need not enter the schoolroom at all before six or seven years of age; from

six to nine, one to two hours a day would be sufficient; from nine to twelve, two to three hours; from twelve to fifteen, three to four hours."

PULSE AND RHYTHM.

ARE musical composers unconsciously guided by the beat of the pulse? This question, long a matter of curious speculation, may some day be scientifically answered by the aid of modern instruments and accumulated data. Many interesting facts bearing on the problem are presented by Miss Mary Hallock in the September number of the *Popular Science Monthly*. Commenting on the fact that the scientific study of rhythm, so far as man is concerned, has been approached almost wholly from the side of its conjunction with literature, this writer says:

"Looked at from that side, it is not strange that the testimony could never be mathematically exact and emphatic. The only data which are of sufficient accuracy to prove that the rhythmic phenomena of pulse first impressed on our consciousness that which can accurately be called rhythm, are to be found in the metronomic denotations of musical compositions. It is there, and there only, that the brain has been able systematically to externalize the rhythm most natural to it with a sense of method and order approximating instrumental exactitude, and capable of an exact expression and measure in number. These furnish only a trace, but a trace sufficient when one keeps in mind the havoc that conscious intellect can always play with things strictly natural."

THE BEETHOVEN RHYTHM.

In selecting material from which to draw statistics, Miss Hallock begins with the sonatas of Beethoven:

"Out of forty-three metronomic markings, taken straight through from the beginning of the first volume of the Beethoven sonatas,—the four standard editions as a working basis,—nineteen are set to a rhythm of seventy-two and seventy-six beats to a minute, a rate exactly that of the average normal, healthy, adult, human pulse; a pulse given by the best authorities as lying between seventy and seventy-five pulsations in the same time. According to fuller statistics, the physical pulse, varied by the time of day and the effect of meals, ranges from a little below sixty to a little over eighty. Within this limit all the rhythmic markings of these sonatas lie, three standing at fifty-six and fifty-eight beats per minute, contrary to expectation, belonging to fast movements undoubtedly marked slower on account of the difficulty

the fingers would experience in performing the notes as fast as the imagination would direct. The average of the entire one hundred and forty-seven markings given by the four editors, von Bülow, Steingraber, Köhler, and Germer, was sixty-four and four-tenths rhythmic beats per minute. The one sonata marked by Beethoven himself bearing the figures 69, 80, 92, 76, 72 for the different movements, *allegro*, *vivace*, *adagio*, *largo*, *allegro risoluto*."

THE DOXOLOGY AND "YANKEE-DOODLE."

The next induction made by Miss Hallock is one that may be confirmed by any one without special apparatus :

"If with the eye fixed on the second-hand of a watch or a clock the long-meter doxology be sung, every one of the equally accented notes entering simultaneously with the tick of each consecutive second, it will become at once apparent that the melody is delivered at a rhythmic rate of sixty beats to the minute. Should one in the same breath hum 'Yankee-Doodle,' sounding each of its accented notes at the same rate, it will be found that these two melodies, standing at the extremes of the sublime and the ridiculous,—the one in character slow, the other fast; the first combining the utmost dignity and breadth, the second ludicrously vapid and thoughtless,—are both set to precisely the same length of rhythmic time by the clock. In the same manner, the *adagios*, *allegros*, *prestos* of the great master's sonatas, unfold to pretty much the same span of a passing moment. In his sonata 'Les Adieux,' op. 81, the *adagio* or slow movement and the *allegro* or fast movement are both set to one rhythmic unit to the second. The impression of slowness or rapidity in the music is due rather to the character of the context and the number of notes to be played in the divisions within the minute than to the actual clock time it takes to perform the rhythmic unit.

"Seventeen letters were addressed to as many band-masters, asking them for the 'beat' usually used in their conducting. The answers invariably brought 'from sixty-four to seventy-two rhythmic beats per minute,' that being probably the time to which countless soldiers had found it most convenient and agreeable to march."

RHYTHMIC BEATS IMPRESSED FROM WITHIN.

To Miss Hallock it seems quite improbable that the mere physical activities and industries of primitive peoples, such as cradle-rocking, spinning, and grinding, should have been so constantly of one rhythm as to impress accidentally a beat of such uniform variation, extending within fifteen pulsations' difference a minute on

nearly all musical compositions. This rhythm must, in her opinion, have been "suggested, coordinated, and regulated by the phenomenon of pulse. The first and patent objection to this theory will be that we have no conscious cognizance of the arterial beat within us. The objection is, however, fully met by the well-known law that, 'one unvarying action on the senses fails to give any perception whatever.' For familiar examples, we have no conscious sensory impressions from the whirling of the earth, the weight of the air, or the weight of our bodies. Yet, inevitably, the recurrent arterial beat must have left its record and impress on the unconscious and subliminal brain, guiding and determining the conscious and audible expressions. Nor is it without its supporting proof that where the insect's heart-beat is 150 to the minute, the insect's chirp runs to the same speed; and where the human heart-beat is 60 to 85 to the minute, human musical rhythm runs within the same limits.

"On these principles, imagining a composer seated quietly at his desk in the act of composition, is it not feasible to suppose that subconsciously to himself, and for want of a more intimately sympathetic conductor, a physical metronome was within him deflecting his rhythm to its standard? Contrary to the other arts, music has its birth, and being entirely from within the human brain, and from within has been impressed a beat of far more rapid rate than the ictus of the recurrent industries already cited on its musical product. The suggestions all this calls forth are, of course, unlimited. To one we may give our fancy free rein. Mr. James Huneker, in his exhaustive summing up of Chopin's music, states that master's favorite metronome sign to be 88 to the minute. As 'people with considerable sensibility of mind and disposition have generally a quicker pulse than those with such mental qualification as resolution and steadiness of temper,' could one consider that the ailing Chopin's pulse helped his rhythmic tendency to 88, while the resolute, steady Beethoven's was normal?"

CHICAGO: HALF FREE AND FIGHTING ON.

IN the October *McClure's*, Mr. Lincoln Steffens opens a brighter view to the readers of his hitherto depressing series of articles on municipal corruption by a glimpse of municipal reform. Curiously enough, it is in Chicago, "tough" Chicago, that he has found "reform that reforms,"—slow, sure, political, democratic reform, by the people, for the people." This reform has gone but halfway; it has not reached

the city administration, still disgraced by mob-violence, open hold-ups, and general lawlessness. But it has caused the City Council, once the tool of Charles T. Yerkes and other exponents of "big business interests," to be purged of its grafters, and to boast a majority of aldermen who are honest.

THE GOOD-GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATION.

In 1896, the Municipal Voters' League appeared as an outgrowth of the old, inefficient Civic Federation. George E. Cole, a disinterested business man, had consented to be head and chooser of a committee of nine. It was two months before an election of half the City Council. So the committee announced that of the thirty-four retiring aldermen, all of whom were likely to be nominated for reelection, "twenty-six were rogues." The widest publicity was given to the proofs of this statement, which earnest workers were collecting from aldermanic and ward records.

FIGHTING THE DEVIL WITH FIRE.

Meanwhile, Cole and his committee were campaigning in the wards on the model of "the boss and the ring." "Like the politicians, they were opportunists. Like the politicians, too, they were non-partisans. They played off one party against another, or, if the two organizations hung together, they put up an independent. They broke many a cherished reform principle, but few rules of practical politics." Their principle was, "To let the politicians rule, but through better and better men." . . . And they won the fight. "Of the twenty six outgoing aldermen with bad records, sixteen were not renominated. Of the ten who were, four were beaten at the polls. The league's recommendations were followed in twenty-five wards; they were disregarded in five; in some wards no fight was made."

DEFEAT OF THE FRANCHISE-GRABBERS.

In 1897, the league secured one-third of the council; in 1898, a majority. In 1899, it strengthened its majority, and in 1900, with the aid of Carter Harrison, who as mayor had always opposed the renewal of street-railway franchises, it secured the repeal of the notorious Allen bill, which Yerkes, Widener, and Elkins had gotten through the legislature at Springfield in 1897, deeming the Chicago City Council no less easy to bribe. Yerkes' subsequent departure for London signaled the downfall of schemes for franchise-renewal disadvantageous to the city. Negotiations are now being carried on for these franchises; but they are in the open, and be-

tween formal representatives of the railway companies and a regular committee of the Board of Aldermen, without a whisper of bribery.

WALTER L. FISHER, POLITICIAN-REFORMER.

The present perfection and permanency of the Municipal Voters' League is due largely to the political genius of Mr. Walter L. Fisher, the rising young lawyer who has been, since 1900, secretary of its executive committee.



MR. WALTER L. FISHER.

"Fisher is a politician,—with the education, associations, and the idealism of the reformers who fail, this man has cunning, courage, tact, and, rarer still, faith in the people. In short, reform in Chicago has such a leader as corruption alone usually has; a first-class executive mind and a natural manager of men. He has raised the reform majority in the City Council to two-thirds; he has lifted the standard of aldermen from honesty to a gradually rising scale of ability, and in his first year the council was organized on a non-partisan basis. This feature of municipal reform is established now by the satisfaction of the aldermen themselves with the way it works. And a most important feature it is, too. 'We have four shots at every man headed for the council,' said one of the league,—'one with his record when his term expires; another when he is up for the nomina-

tion ; a third when he is running as a candidate ; the fourth when the committees are formed. If he is bad, he is put on a minority in a strong committee ; if he is doubtful, with a weak or doubtful majority in an important committee with a strong minority,—a minority so strong that they can let him show his hand, then beat him with a minority report.' ”

“ A politician ? A boss. Chicago has in Walter L. Fisher a reform boss, and in the nine of the Municipal Voters' League, with their associated editors and able finance and advisory committees, a reform ring. They have no machine, no patronage, no power, that they can abuse. They haven't even a list of their voters. All they have is the confidence of the anonymous honest men of Chicago who care more for Chicago than for anything else. This they have won by a long record of good judgments, honest, obvious devotion to the public good, and a disinterestedness which has avoided even individual credit ; not a hundred men in the city could name the Committee of Nine.”

“ In short, political reform, politically conducted, has produced reform politicians working for the reform of the city with the methods of politics. They do everything that a politician does, except buy votes and sell them. They play politics in the interest of the city.”

WRATH OF THE CAPITALIST.

During one forenoon, Mr. Steffens collected opinions on reform from bank presidents and others. He says : “ I was unprepared for the sensation of that day. Those financial leaders of Chicago were ‘ mad.’ All but one of them became so enraged as they talked that they could not behave decently. They rose up, purple in the face, and cursed reform. They said it had hurt business ; it had hurt the town. ‘ Anarchy,’ they called it ; ‘ socialism.’ They named corporations that had left the city ; they named others that had planned to come there and had gone elsewhere. They offered me facts and figures to prove that the city was damaged.

“ ‘ But isn't the reform council honest ? ’ I asked.

“ ‘ Honest ! Yes, but—oh, h—l ! ! ’ ”

ADMINISTRATIVE REFORM IN TIME.

Carter Harrison is characterized by Mr. Steffens as honest but without initiative, doing only what is demanded of him. “ Every time Chicago wants to go ahead a foot, it has first to push its mayor up inch by inch. In brief, Chicago is a city that wants to be led, and Carter Harrison, with all his political ambition, honest willingness, and obstinate independence, simply follows

it. The league leads, and its leaders understand their people. Then why does the league submit to Harrison ? Why doesn't the league recommend mayors as well as aldermen ? It may some day ; but, setting out by accident to clean the council, stop the boodling, and settle the city railway troubles, they have been content with Mayor Harrison because he had learned his lesson on that. And, I think, as they say the mayor thinks, that when the people of Chicago get the city railways running with enough cars and power ; when they have put a stop to boodling forever, they will take up the administrative side of the government.”

MR. JOHN BURNS ON LONDON'S FUTURE.

THE current number of the *Magazine of Commerce* contains an “ interview ” with Mr. John Burns. Mr. Burns is asked what London will be like twenty-five years hence, and he replies : ‘ It will be worth a lease of life to see London emerge in its new glory twenty-five years hence. But the evolution—as evolution should ever be—will be in slow, if delicate, detail. We shall haply be witness to most of it. It is going on to-day. It is all about us. No need, I say, to mortgage our future to be in at the finish. There's the greatness of it—the expansion that I love—the progress toward the green fields and the crisp air.

“ The East End will disappear as a home of miserable industry. It will become the true seat of industry, but the pallid dwellers of to-day will have gone to the light. The Isle of Dogs will have passed, in a sense, on to the high ground of Kent. The Blackwall Tunnel,—which, I thank God, I did something to promote,—will help this grand Armageddon over foul air and the Calibans of rank-rented rookeries. Seven Dials will have become a mere name in the Chamber of Horrors of history. It will crop up in the wicked chapters of the reproving novelist. Soho will have become an anachronism in an up-to-date drama. It will be as remote from the living present of twenty-five years hence as we are to-day from the ugly, squalid realism of the Tyburn Road and the flaunts of Edgware Bess. We shall live in cleaner air—ourselves clean. The power to breathe will be one of the supreme physical characteristics of London's emancipation.

“ A new system of fire extinction, adaptable to cleansing the streets by hydraulic pressure, will be adopted, and thus save the chief of the brigade from many of the worries that the appliance-monger knows so well how to inflict. Electrification will be our goal. The ‘ growler ’

will have disappeared; the street-omnibus of to-day will be a comic oddment of the past. Its place will be taken by the electric cab and the electric road-car. We shall be electrically trammed up to the sally-ports of Windsor Castle. We shall have fifteen hundred miles of electric roadways in London. Epping Forest will be as near, in point of time, to the Hyde Parkist as Rotten Row is to-day to the denizens of Whitechapel. The hansom cab? No; it will survive, as a sort of pet stage-doré cabriolet, to carry the last of the vanishing Verisophts and Sir Mulberry Hawks who will hobble to the memory of an improved aristocracy.

"The 'Tube' will become a storm-overflow conduit, a sewage wash-out, aided by the Thames, which also will participate in the general improvement now going on. Every one will ride in the open air. The *rationale* of open-air enjoyment is being learned. We shall have established a magnificent service of river steamboats. Cannon Street and Charing Cross railway bridges, with their red oxide abominations, will give way to 100-foot wide viaducts, with the front of the stations on the other side. We shall, in twenty-five years, have in London one hundred and fifty parks and open spaces, as against one hundred to-day, and fifty fourteen years ago. And education will be less mental and more moral and physical. Finally, we shall have dealt the liquor trade of London a smashing blow by means of new entertainments and counter attractions. We shall have a House of Commons filled with men of youth, energy, purpose. No 'palsied mashers' to direct us, and no electioneering adventurers to try their cranks upon the life of the nation. But I am solely for a great, clean, honest, beautiful, and livable London every day out of the calendar's round of three hundred and sixty-five of 'em."

THE STORY OF ROBERT EMMET RETOLD.

THE celebration of the centenary of Emmet's abortive rebellion and his execution in 1803 leads Mr. Michael MacDonagh to tell the story of his tragic career in *Cornhill*. He uses the "private and confidential" correspondence of Lord Hardwicke, the then Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, which has just been made accessible in the British Museum.

Emmet was born of an English and Cromwellian family. On the morning of his death he received the Communion from Protestant clergymen. He was a dreamy youth with patriotic passion running in his blood. He was expelled from college for participation in the rebellion of 1798.

HIS PLOT.

In April, 1803—a mere boy of twenty-six—he was left £3,000 by his father, and with this sum as his "sinews of war" he prepared his plot to seize Dublin Castle by surprise and proclaim the revolution from its walls. His great aim was to get the arms and ammunition ready; once he had the weapons he felt sure of his following. He kept his plans profoundly secret, though storing his arsenals in the very heart of Dublin. Only a very few persons were in the secret. On July 16, an explosion occurred at one of his depots, which led to the discovery and confiscation of the military stores there. Still the authorities had no idea what was brewing.

HIS MUNITIONS OF WAR.

On his fellow-conspirators from the country arriving, they were mightily disgusted at finding their self-appointed leader a mere strip of a boy. He showed them his store of arms, piles of pikes, an immense number of ball cartridges, but only eighteen blunderbusses and four muskets, and one sword, wooden cannon loaded with stones, and quart bottles filled with gunpowder to serve as hand grenades! With this equipment he was to overpower the Dublin garrison. The countrymen shook their heads and departed.

THE FIASCO.

The hour fixed for his *coup*, 9 P. M., Saturday, July 23, arrived.

"But what a disappointing consummation of his hopes and ambitions, of his months of feverish preparation for the great revolution! The Dublin men refusing to rise, the Kildare farmers gone home in disgust! But Emmet was determined that, whoever might be wanting, he, at least, should not fail. He put on his grand uniform as commander-in-chief of the forces of the Irish republic."

He sallied forth, his two generals—a bricklayer and a cotton spinner—with him, in green uniforms. One hundred men followed them, which soon swelled to three hundred. He counted his men: found them insufficient to seize the castle: bade them follow him to the Wicklow mountains. They preferred to stay for the plunder and the fun. A few officials were killed. Then the castle woke up, the soldiers came out, and the rioters dispersed.

THE LOVE EPISODE.

Emmet had escaped when his men refused to follow him. But "here the glamour of a sweet and romantic love episode is flung around the

story of this madcap insurrection. It was as a lover, not as a rebel, that Robert Emmet lingered in Dublin, while the sleuth-hounds of the outraged law were eagerly searching to run him down. On the Monday night after the insurrection, the boy and his companions fled from the house in Butterfield Lane to the Dublin mountains."

In August, he returned to the outskirts of Dublin, and contrived to meet his sweetheart, Sarah Curran, "a sweet, sly girl" of twenty-one, with rippling silky hair, and dark glowing eyes. Information reached the authorities of someone in hiding at his cottage, and he was arrested. Intercepted letters revealed Sarah as his accomplice. She was arrested, and straightway lost her reason, but was given her liberty. Her father was to have defended Emmet as counsel in court, all unaware till then of the girl's connection with the rebel. He indignantly but inevitably flung up his brief.

HIS TRIAL.

Tried and convicted, Emmet spoke for an hour—in "one of the noblest speeches that have ever been delivered under the shadow of the scaffold." His peroration, containing the words, "Let no man write my epitaph," etc., has been committed to memory by countless thousands of American schoolboys. Mr. MacDonagh proceeds:

"Emmet looked death in the face with a fortitude and serenity that would have been astounding if we did not know that he was only twenty-five. He was young, and therefore indifferent to death. He was young, and therefore vain. He desired to play to the end the part of the hero of romance; to leave the world grandly, with flying colors. He had, therefore, in his mind a magnificent speech—a speech that would thrill the country—the preparation of which had filled with delight many an otherwise dreary hour in his prison cell. It was now half-past nine o'clock at night. The trial had begun at half-past nine o'clock in the morning. For ten hours Emmet had stood in the dock. There was no interruption for refreshment; no interval for rest. The proceedings had been pushed on pitilessly by the judges to their grim and grewsome finish. . . . With exalted spirits Emmet delivered in vindication of his policy a deathless oration, which alone would have preserved his memory green in Ireland for all time."

HIS END.

The judge, who could indulge in brutal jokes over condemned men, burst into tears as he sentenced the eloquent youth. The prisoner's counsel kissed him in rapture. This same coun-

sel, who posed as a great Nationalist all his life, was found after his death to have been throughout an informer in the pay of the British Government. So, with this Judas kiss on his lips, Emmet passed from the dock. "He stayed up most of the night writing." His letters are models of lucidity, courage, and magnanimity. In the morning he was met by the news of his mother's death, "killed by the news of the doom of her son."

Unflinching and unretracting, he was hanged in the afternoon. Sarah Curran, two years later, having meantime recovered her reason, married a captain in the British army! In conclusion, the writer observes:

"In Ireland the tragic story of this youth of stainless life—martyr, surely, to a high aspiration and noble purpose—will endure forever. He is the dearest saint in the calendar of Irish political martyrology. In the humblest cabins of the land may be seen—with the pictures of the Blessed Virgin and St. Patrick—rude portraits of Robert Emmet."

THE CREATOR OF NEW IRELAND.

THE *Fortnightly Review* contains a very interesting article by Katharine Tynan on "Sir Horace Plunkett and His Work." Sir Horace, "the most unselfish man we have ever known," as his friends characterize him, is practically the creator of New Ireland, and is undoubtedly the most remarkable and most effective figure which the Irish revival has produced. What sort of a man he is is told by Miss Tynan.

PATRIOTISM TEMPERED WITH PATIENCE.

"The thing that made so huge an enterprise possible to him was as much a matter of the heart as of the head; it was his untiring, his boundless sympathy. He loves the country and he loves the people; that fact is at the root of it. It explains how intolerance, impatience with the things and the people who are the stones in the path of his great work, are impossible to him. He is a good fighter; and yet so gentle are his methods that they are easily mistaken. In the matter of that Galway election which now is ancient history, the crowds were unused to the chivalry of a man who refused to take an advantage of the enemy, as when Sir Horace declared that he would not take the seat if 'Colonel' Lynch's election were declared void. Sir Horace Plunkett is, of course, a Protestant; but he has probably done more to close the sectarian gulf between Protestants and Catholics in Ireland than any other man. His humor plays about this grave subject, as when he said at a meeting in Belfast, where he

tried to coax the Orangemen out of their sectarian cave: 'We all know that those who differ from us in matters of religion will be adequately punished hereafter. So why harbor bad feeling now.'"

And, in fact, so effective has been his unifying influence that "a society in the north, com-



SIR HORACE PLUNKETT.

posed of equal numbers of Catholics, Episcopalians, and Presbyterians, nominated a priest as its president, and is one of the most flourishing of the many hundred societies."

AN ORATOR, NOT BORN BUT MADE.

Sir Horace, like Mr. Parnell, is an orator, not born but made:

"In each case the man became an orator because he had something of vital importance to say, and said it directly to the hearts of his listeners with passion, because he felt it, with self-forgetfulness, with ease, because the message was insistent and would be delivered. Sir Horace's speeches read easily and delightfully when he is in a light vein; they carry conviction even to a hostile audience when his vein is a serious one; and instances of sudden conversions are by no means uncommon among those who listen to him.

"His sympathy for the people places him on the level of the simplest peasant. In a long vacation, when other men are on the moors or the

sea, or taking the latest fashionable cure, he may be found visiting the congested districts, tramping day after day from one wretched collection of cabins to another, stooping to enter at their low doors into the dense reek of turf smoke, sitting there among the hens and the children, while the pig, if the family be rich enough to possess one, wanders in and out of his own sweet will, encouraging, advising, striving to give hope where there was only apathy and despair."

The poverty of these districts may be gathered from the fact that the average Poor Law valuation of the inhabitants is only 10s. 6d. (\$2.62) a year.

LIBRARIES AND BANKS.

The starting of village libraries is one of Sir Horace's schemes. He has a paper, the *Irish Homestead*, which carries on a propaganda for making the Irish countryside lighter and less desolate. The Irish coöperative societies now number sixty thousand members. The coöperative banks have proved a great success, and, as is usual with such experiments, it has been found that the loans are invariably repaid. The banks have killed the "gombeen man;" they are managed by the people themselves, and this brings great opportunities for business training and responsibility.

"They are very proud of their participation in the management of the banks and kindred societies. The resident magistrate at Belmullet had a car-driver who was a director of the Belmullet bank. 'I'd be obliged to you, sir,' the car-driver would say on Mondays, 'if you'd hurry up the business of the court to-day, for there's a bank meeting to-night, an' a power of important work to be got through.'

"Sometimes the banks have odd applications for loans. It is understood, of course, that loans are only given for reproductive purposes, such as for buying a pig, or seeds or manure or farm implements. One evening, a young man came before the committee of a bank in the County Mayo, and requested a loan of £2. He was asked for what purpose he required it, and answered that it was to buy a suit of clothes. The committee demurred at first that they had no money to lend for this purpose. 'Well,' said the applicant, 'the case is this. I'm fond of Nora Carty, and she has a nice little farm as well. I'm going to ask her to-morrow, and if she says no to me I'll be off to America. Now, I'd have twice as good a chance with her if I had a decent suit of clothes to my back instead of these rags.' The committee reconsidered the matter, advanced the money, and the boy won Nora Carty and her farm."

MR. WINSTON CHURCHILL, M.P.

A VERY interesting sketch of Mr. Winston Churchill as a "master-worker" is contributed by Mr. Harold Begbie to the September *Pull Mall Magazine*. "The Boy," whom a year or two ago Lord Rosebery quizzed—somewhat unmercifully—when his guest at Dalmeny, has always been supposed to have a very old head on young shoulders. But "the shoulders are growing old now, and certainly in appearance there is nothing of 'the Boy' left in the white, nervous, washed-out face of the member for Oldham. He walks with a stoop, the head thrust forward. His mouth expresses bitterness, the light eyes strained watchfulness. It is a tired face: white, worn, harassed. He talks as a man of fifty talks,—a little cruelly, slowly, measuring his words, the hand forever tilting the hat backward and forward, or brushing itself roughly across the tired eyes. Essentially a tired face, the expression one of intellectual energy which has to be wound up by a rebellious consciousness. There is, indeed, little of youth left to the member for Oldham, if we except a waning vanity—common enough among gray heads. There is in his talk nothing of that rush and carelessness and eagerness and enthusiasm which we expect in youth, and for which in these grim days we are becoming even grateful. Thoreau, I think, might have cited Mr. Churchill as a witness against empire, civilization, and business."

And yet, Mr. Begbie reminds us that it is only ten years since Mr. Winston Churchill left Harrow for Sandhurst.

"He is twenty-nine—separated from his boyhood by five campaigns, a parliamentary election, and a budget of speeches. He is not a good illustration of Mr. John Burns' gilded popinjays. Five years of fighting in Cuba, in the Himalayas, in the Sudan, and on the veldt; and three years in Parliament as the fighting representative of a great working-class constituency in Lancashire."

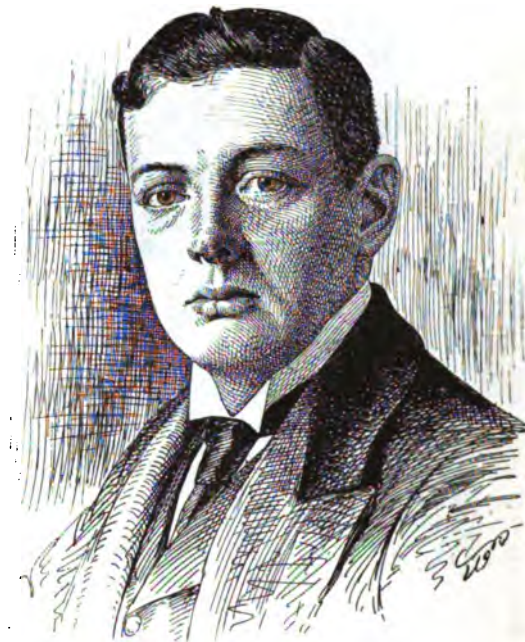
HIS FUTURE.

It is, however, of Mr. Churchill's future, more than of his short and crowded past, that Mr. Begbie writes,—always with an unexpressed doubt, clearly present in his mind, as to whether it may not all come to be summed up in the word "overworked."

Whatever happens, he prophesies,—and quotes Mr. Churchill in support,—the son of Lord Randolph Churchill will never call himself a Radical, never lead the Liberal party, as a Radical journalist once predicted.

"Few people realize the intensity of his devotion to Toryism—the Radical journalist afore-

mentioned least of all. And yet, this is one of the most striking characteristics of the member for Oldham. He is a Tory by birth and inheritance. Toryism possesses him. He will fight to the last for this Toryism, even if the whole party follows Mr. Chamberlain, and the result of the inquest of the nation is a triumphant return to protection."



MR. WINSTON SPENCER CHURCHILL.

He is a devoted admirer of his father; and his convictions "are based in no small measure upon a profound and extraordinarily thorough study of his father's speeches." To understand Mr. Churchill's Toryism, one must have a student's knowledge of the speeches and career of Lord Randolph Churchill."

HIS ATTITUDE TO THE GENERAL ELECTION.

Talking to Mr. Begbie on the Terrace, one recent day, Mr. Churchill confessed that this time "it almost looks as if there will be no room for anybody on one side or the other who is not prepared to swallow either Mr. Chamberlain as he is, or Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman as he is—or, rather, as he isn't. This is wrong. There ought to be room for the play of individual opinion; and the domination of political principles by personalities is bad—very bad."

"A Tory Democrat—and Free Trader," whatever the Unionist government decide, is Mr. Churchill's emphatic pronouncement as to his policy.

"You don't think," he said to Mr. Begbie, "that the men in the party who are firmly convinced that free trade is one of the cardinal principles of Toryism are going to surrender and sit quietly with folded hands because a Liberal Unionist wants to return to protection? We shall fight for the faith, and we shall win, clean through."

A sweeping victory for free trade and the worst collapse of the Tory party since 1832—this is the prospect which the young Tory Democrat anticipates, and one which he cannot view without some misgiving.

WHAT HE HAS DONE IN POLITICS—

In merely worrying a committee of inquiry into national expenditure out of a reluctant government, Mr. Churchill has done much; he has done still more in getting people to take a serious interest in the question; while, if the results of the committee are really greater economy and better administration of the public money, he will have done more than enough to satisfy a statesman of much more than twenty-nine.

—AND WHAT HE MEANS TO DO.

"No young man, if we except the extraordinary instance of Mr. Parnell, ever entered upon a political career with a more certain knowledge of his route than the member for Oldham." A non-Jingo, intelligent Tory democracy—that is, has ever been and ever will be his ideal. He is no "headstrong youth fighting for notoriety and sensation, but a far-seeing politician, a most earnest student of affairs, and the champion of a principle which he believes to be absolutely essential to the safety, honor, and welfare of the King's dominions"—an encomium which is qualified by the frank admission that "Mr. Churchill mapped out his future with as much concern for the future of Mr. Churchill as for the future of the British Empire."

WHAT HE IS AND MAY BECOME.

Lord Rosebery's words, "Pray do not let us come to *any* conclusion"—on any of the most widely differing subjects—"until we have asked the Boy," may come to be said in another tone. Mr. Churchill is already "in the first rank of political speakers, and not very far behind the first rank of contemporary men of letters." He has made, it is true, some powerful political enemies, but he is already better understood than he was.

"The house realizes that here is a brilliant young man who 'thanks whatever gods may be' for his 'unconquerable soul,' and, having a definite object in view, is undeterred by minor considerations in its attainment."

COLLEGE RANK AND DISTINCTION IN LIFE.

AN anonymous writer investigates, in the *Atlantic Monthly* for October, what bearing a young man's rank in college has on his achievements in after life. He bases his conclusions on "Who's Who in America" for 1902, the only statistical measure at present available, which, however, can yield only approximate results, as it gives particular prominence to scholarship, and is, therefore, no absolute test for general success in life.

"In considering the causes of the greater chance of distinction among the high scholars, many elements must be taken into account. The large proportion of men with university honors among the prominent English statesmen is due, in no small degree, to the fact that their honors opened to them while young the doors of the House of Commons, and an early start has always been an enormous advantage in a parliamentary career. In America and certainly at Harvard College, rank is no help to a man starting either in public life, in a profession, or in business. Rank is, no doubt, a help toward an academic post, and thus assists indirectly to the literary eminence, which is most noticed in "Who's Who;" but this alone is clearly not enough to account for the difference in subsequent distinction between the high scholars and their classmates. To some extent, at least, the college career of the high scholars works as a principle of selection, or as a preparation of the fittest."

HONOR MEN AND ATHLETES.

"The proportion of names in "Who's Who" is decidedly larger among the men who took honors in special subjects than among men, to about the same number, taken in the order of rank on the general scale. It is one in five for the former, but it is only one in seven for the first seventh of the class. In fact, the proportion among the men with special honors is nearly equal to that of the first four scholars, although the former are five times as numerous. For the students who graduate with highest honors the chance of distinction is extraordinary. It is better than one in three, being about the same as that of the first scholars for these nineteen years (1869-87), and much above that of any other men. We are irresistibly led to the conclusion that the work done for honors in a special subject is a better preparation or a better test of ability than that which confers rank on the general scale."

The record of the athlete, who is a far more prominent figure in college than the scholar, is less noteworthy. The members of the crew

have about the same chance as the average member of the class,—that is, they are neither better nor worse intellectually than their classmates, while the captains, who are chosen on account of their superiority, are more apt to win distinction. But in regard to the baseball nine, of the one hundred and eleven men recorded as members from 1872 to 1898 only one took honors in any subject, no man among them won a Bowdoin prize, and only one man was in the first seventh of his class (through 1887, when the rank list was given up). Among the football eleven the record of scholarship likewise has not been brilliant. Between 1874 and 1898, out of one hundred and forty-eight men upon the team only two won special honors, two took a Bowdoin prize, and two were in the first seventh of the class. As all three kinds of honors were in one case attained by the same man, there were only four out of the one hundred and forty-eight distinguished for their scholarship, and not one of these appears in "Who's Who."

THE LATE W. E. HENLEY.

AS a reincarnate Pan—that is how Mr. Sidney Low, in *Cornhill*, declares the late W. E. Henley, the English poet and essayist, impressed him. The passage is worth quoting:

"To me he was the startling image of Pan come on earth and clothed—the great god Pan, down in the reeds by the river, with halting foot and flaming shaggy hair, and arms and shoulders huge and threatening, like those of some faun or satyr of the ancient woods, and the brow and eyes of the Olympians. Well-nigh captive to his chair, with the crutch never far from his elbow, dragging himself when he moved, with slow effort, he yet seemed instinct with the life of the germinating elemental earth, when gods and men were vital with the force that throbbed in beast and flower and wandering breeze. The large heart, and the large frame, the broad tolerant smile, the inexhaustible interest in nature and mankind, the brave, unquenchable cheerfulness under afflictions and adversities, the frank appreciation and apology for the animal side of things, all helped to maintain the impression of a kind of pagan strength and simplicity. . . . Chained, as he was for the

most of his days, to a few rooms, he rioted in the open air, in the sunshine, the wind, and the stars."

Mr. Low remarks on the surprising contrast between the abounding robustness and virility



THE LATE WILLIAM ERNEST HENLEY.

of the man and the texture of his literary work. Mr. Low says:

"Henley was the painter of miniatures, the maker of cameos. There are some rough, and even brutal, passages in his poems; but his art, taken as a whole, was delicate, precise, and finished. When he set to work, the violence that one noticed in his talk, the over emphasis of his intellectual temper, died away; in his best passages he has the subtle restraint, the economy of material, and the careful manipulation of the artist-workman. He will live through his lyric passages, and his vignettes, in prose and verse. No man of our time has expressed a mood of the emotions with more absolute appropriateness and verbal harmony, and that is lyric poetry in its essence. Some of his songs are gems of almost faultless expression."



THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

BRIG-GEN. A. W. GREELY contributes to the October *Century* an interesting article on "The Signal Corps in War-Time." "Other corps have claimed to be the eyes and ears of the army; the Signal Corps claims only to be its nerve system. That which is done in electricity for the world at large through the agency of countless corporations, is done for the army by the Signal Corps. Telegraphy, telephony, ballooning, and heliography are specialties of the Signal Corps. In addition to its duties of sending orders or military messages, it is charged by law with the collection and transmission of military information by telegraph or otherwise."

YELLOW FEVER AND MOSQUITOES.

The series of experiments, begun in the summer of 1900, whereby the yellow-fever mosquito was discovered as the disseminator of that dread disease, are briefly related by L. O. Howard. This mosquito bites by day as well as by night. In the West Indies it is called the day mosquito, or the striped mosquito. It is found chiefly in cities, where it breeds in any chance receptacle of standing water. The eggs are laid in standing water, and although the receptacle may dry up, the eggs do not desiccate, but will hatch as soon as it again contains water. The larvæ resemble those of other mosquitoes, and are readily killed by a kerosene film on the surface of the water.

THE CENSUS IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

The Hon. W. R. Merriam continues his series of articles on the census, contrasting the methods employed by the European and Oriental countries with that of the United States, which was not only "the first among the nations to undertake a periodical and systematic enumeration of inhabitants, but may justly be regarded as the leader in modern census-taking, whether in scope of inquiry and combination of facts, or in expenditure for statistical research." While the American census is in the nature of a national "account of stock," costing the country, in 1900, \$11,854,817.91, and embracing inquiries relating to population, mortality, agriculture, and manufacture, that of the other countries is generally confined to an enumeration of population by sex, age, nativity, conjugal condition, occupation, etc., and in some cases details relating to dwellings.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Of the lighter articles four relate to hunting, appropriate to the season: one by André Castaigne, "When the French President Goes Hunting;" one by Sterling Heilig, "With the Hounds of the Duchesse d'Uzès;" J. M. Gleeson describes "Two British Game Parks;" and Dwight W. Huntington, "Field Sport of To-day;" accompanying these papers are some fine colored prints. There is yet another nature article, "The Wild Bird by a New Approach," by Francis H. Herrick. Anna Bowman Dodd rectifies some of our ideas on Turkish women by describing "The New Woman in Turkey," and Alonzo Clark Robinson has a brief paper on "The Destruction of Philæ."

M'CLURE'S MAGAZINE.

THE latest and greatest struggle of Holland in "Reclaiming an Ocean Bed" is graphically described in the October *McClure's* by Walter Wellman. For centuries the Dutch have been patient ocean-fighters; but they have never undertaken a task such as that called for in the great bill introduced by Queen Wilhelmina in the *Staats-Generaal*. This task is the drainage of the Zuyder Zee, that interloping ocean-arm which was created by the inundations of 1170, 1287, and 1350, till, by 1410, North Holland and Friesland were overwhelmed, and the realm bisected from northwest to southeast.

This land-making enterprise, the greatest in history, includes a twenty-five-mile dike across the mouth of the Zuyder Zee to keep out the North Sea, and the drainage of salt water from an area of 14,000 square miles, two-thirds of which is to be fashioned into "polders" (arable land recovered from the sea). Upon this land over 3,000,000 of people are to live by agriculture. The remaining third is to be a fresh-water lake, with the river Yssel as inlet, whose waters shall irrigate the dry lands in Friesland. As this inland sea communicates with the ocean only by locks, it can be used for national defense, although impregnable to the enemy's vessels.

According to the exhaustive details of the bill, the work will be completed in thirty-three years, at a total cost of \$76,000,000. The capitalized cost (including interest) will be \$148,126,480 at the end of the thirty-sixth year, when the last acre is reclaimed. But the seventeenth year will see 43,500 acres of the first polder under cultivation at a rental of \$9.50 an acre, by the twenty-seventh year 247,000 acres will be added, by the thirty-first year 70,000 acres, and at the end 112,000 acres. This revenue will bring the net aggregate cost down to \$101,116,800.

"At the end of this period the state will find itself in possession of 478,720 acres of cultivable land, recovered from the sea at a cost of \$211 an acre. The commission which patiently investigated this and all other phases of the project, estimated that the new lands would have a renting value of \$10 an acre; and this is claimed to be a low figure, since land in other polders, no better than this, brings rentals of from \$14 to \$18 an acre. It is proposed, however, to lease all the new area at $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. upon its cost, which would be \$9.50 an acre, and this income, it will be readily seen, would suffice to pay the interest charge of 3 or $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. upon the bonds and leave enough over for a sinking fund. It is believed the whole tract will be taken up by farmers as fast as it is ready, as the average quantity of land to be placed upon the market each year is only about 14,000 acres. The experience with other lands in the Netherlands reclaimed from the sea has been that they produce large crops without the use of artificial fertilizers."

THE BARBIZON SCHOOL.

In his second paper on "The Barbizon School," Mr. John La Farge treats of Corot, Rousseau, and Millet. Corot's tardy recognition was due to his naïveté, the simplicity which veils his wonderful poetic feeling and accuracy of impression. Rousseau's "personal struggle

with nature," his wish to transfer absolutely all that he saw, sometimes brought too much into his pictures. Millet suffered from contemporary critics, who saw in his stern realism and austerity a social protest. But his dominant note, especially in his types of the sower, the reaper, and the gleaner, is really resignation to duty and to the common fate of all men.

BABY WILD ANIMALS IN CAPTIVITY.

Under the title of "Babies of the Zoo," Mr. A. W. Rolker gives some interesting anecdotes of baby elephants, hippopotami, and camels. The young bison calf's mother is the incarnation of vicious, savage anxiety for her offspring. The big cats, however, often kill their kittens, sometimes for food, sometimes merely in anger. A baby rescued from such a tigress, lioness, or leopardess is given to some big mother dog who has lost her own family. Baby bears, too, when born in captivity are deserted by their mothers, and it is difficult to keep the little pink, hairless cubs at a sufficiently high temperature.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

IN a suggestive article on "Industrial Education in the South," Mary Applewhite Bacon describes the primary industrial school, opened two years ago in the city of Columbus, Ga., for the factory children. This school is the only one of its kind in the South, and the first one in the United States to be organized as a part of a public-school system independent of the uses of a training-school for teachers. Cotton-mill life in the Southern States, although depressing enough, is not on the whole as black as commonly painted, says the writer, especially in the newer mills, which look after the general welfare of their operatives. The most difficult problems now are those relating to the operatives themselves; drawn largely from the poor white rural population, they are not only illiterate, but incredibly ignorant in regard to even the simplest domestic arts, the ordinary laws of health, and the world at large. The Columbus school aims to instill into the children some notion of a life beyond that of the mill under whose shadows they are born. "It is first the home life of this school, the exhibition of right domestic ideals, and second, the awakening of intellectual energy and its application to the real needs of the pupils, which constitute the unique value of this Columbus school."

PERIODS OF SOUTH-AMERICAN CIVILIZATION.

Max Uhle contributes an interesting paper, with curious illustrations, on "Ancient South-American Civilization." The traditional views regarding the history of South American States and especially of Peru have undergone a total change since the archaeological expeditions sent to South America, and will doubtless be further modified by the expedition that will undertake its work the coming season. "The development of Peruvian civilization, accepting the average five successive periods, would result in a stratification of cultures representing between two and three thousand years. About the year 1000 B. C., at the time when Solomon built his temple, the early Americans in Peru reared their mighty structures to the glory of a creator god. Civilization in America would beyond all doubt have worked itself up to a high plane at some time, and might have accomplished alone a peculiar but certainly brilliant development without the intervention of European civilization."

Literature is represented by George E. Woodberry's paper on "The South in American Letters," glancing over the period from Jefferson to Poe, and Justin McCarthy's "Literary Portraits from the Sixties," Dickens, Thackeray, and others; travel, by Arthur Symonds' "Belgrade and Sofia," and J. B. Connolly's "A Lapp Fishing Trip;" and Henry C. McCook has a paper on "Kidnapping Ants and Their Slaves," which reads like a chapter from a human community. Other pages of this number are filled by stories and poems.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

COMMISSIONER JOHN MCG. WOODBURY, explains in his article, "The Wastes of a Great City," how New York City is dealing with the problem of disposing of the refuse collected every twenty-four hours by the Street Cleaning Department from the houses along one thousand five hundred and thirty miles of street. "We are attempting things in New York that have never been attempted in other cities, and many of them have passed beyond the stage of experiments, and the results are definitely known and can now for the first time be put before the public collectively." He describes accordingly how the four materials collected separately,—garbage, ashes, street sweepings, and rubbish,—are treated so as to become a source of revenue instead of being an expense to the city.

STATE UNIVERSITIES.

Mr. W. S. Harwood contributes a paper on the State universities of America, "the crown and summit of public educational life." There are forty-one of these institutions, some of recent origin in newer States, and some more than a century old, representing many millions of dollars in buildings and equipment, and receiving annually hundreds of thousands of dollars in appropriations from the State legislatures. "These universities have changed the entire life of the West. They have been a safeguard—almost a safety-valve—to this rapidly increasing people, helping them forward in citizenship and political strength. They have steadied the States in commerce and trade. They have been of inestimable value in raising the general standard of intellectual life."

TRADE-UNIONISM.

Prof. Walter A. Wyckoff presents a philosophic discussion of "Some Phases of Trade-Unionism." "A movement more inevitable than trade-unionism has never arisen. In its form and aims it is an exact expression of the instinct of self-preservation and of self-help among wage-earners under the conditions of industrialism. As an institution, however, it is to be judged in its total effect upon society as a whole, precisely as its analogous and parallel development, the organization of capital, must be judged."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Cyrus Townsend Brady gives in his paper "What They Are There For" a sketch of the Indian fighter Guy V. Henry; Mr. Benjamin Brooks describes "The Southwest from a Locomotive;" "Mrs. John Quincy Adams's Narrative of a Journey from St. Petersburg to Paris in February, 1815," which she wrote for her family as a memento of that trip, is published by her grandson, Brooks Adams. Under the title, "Keno: A Cayuse Known to Fame," Sewell Ford writes the biography of a hunting pony. Noteworthy among the illustra-

tions is the series of eight fine colored prints by A. B. Frost, a graphic story without words of "The Day's Shooting."

THE COSMOPOLITAN MAGAZINE.

IN the October *Cosmopolitan*, Mr. James Blaine Walker sketches the career of Orange James Salisbury, a son of New York State, who has taken a prominent part in conquering the wilderness east of the Rocky Mountains. In 1862, at the age of eighteen, he left his home, near Buffalo, for Leavenworth, Kan. Search for a field for independent operations led him to Cheyenne, Wyoming, then the terminus of the eastern section of the new Union Pacific. He obtained a small contract on the railroad, followed it by larger ones, and when the junction between the Atlantic and the Pacific was made on May 10, 1869, the last spikes were driven by his men. He next established himself at Salt Lake City, becoming interested in a stage line to the placer mines of Idaho and Montana. He showed keen judgment of men and horses, and a personal resourcefulness superior to blizzards, road agents, and other impediments of travel.

In 1900, he successfully directed the Presidential campaign in Utah, finding time from his interests as a bank president and owner of valuable mines in Utah, Idaho, Nevada, and South Dakota. Although in 1896 the State had given Bryan a plurality of fifty-one thousand, he carried it for McKinley, and elected a Republican legislature. And he was instrumental in securing the passage of the bill admitting Utah as a State.

STUYVESANT FISH, OF THE ILLINOIS CENTRAL.

Another one of the "Captains of Industry," Stuyvesant Fish, is characterized by Mr. Robert N. Burnett as a railroad president comparable to James J. Hill,—not an automaton, liable to dismissal by a new board of directors, but a factor determining the selection of directorates. When Mr. Fish became head of the Illinois Central, in 1887, the road ran from Chicago to New Orleans, with an entrance into St. Louis. He has extended it to Louisville, the coal and iron regions of Alabama, and Omaha, connecting with the Union Pacific. In the twenty years of his connection with the railroad, its gross earnings have increased from \$12,000,000 to nearly \$50,000,000. During six years past he has spent vast amounts for improvements, recently increasing the capital stock by \$40,000,000. Six months ago, however, he foresaw, in the demands of labor leaders and the growing cost of railroad supplies, the necessity for conservatism. His prudent policy has proved the right one.

RAILROAD ENGINEERING AS A PROFESSION.

In the series on "Making a Choice of a Profession," Mr. Daniel Willard writes of "Civil Engineering" chiefly as applied to railroad construction and maintenance. The importance of a chief engineer does not cease when his railroad is built, for it must immediately be rebuilt, according to the law of evolution: "Whatever has been done will be superseded by something better. The engineer who can build a road in the right place in the first instance, or correct its location in the second, must have the imagination of the artist, combined with the executive ability and sound judgment of the practical man of affairs."

To the young man choosing this profession, good health, good habits, and a determination to succeed are

indispensable; a college education is not, although it is desirable, the lack of it necessitating greater efforts to accomplish given results. Employment in the engineering department of a railroad, with probable arduous field work, is recommended, as is the study of technical books and periodicals. That the rewards of earnest effort may be substantial is shown by such civil engineers as Mr. Cassatt, president of the Pennsylvania; Mr. Spencer, of the Southern; Mr. Loree, of the Baltimore & Ohio; Mr. Ramsey, of the Wabash; and Mr. Burt, of the Union Pacific.

THE WORLD'S WORK.

IN a freely illustrated paper on "The Rich Empire in the North," Mr. William R. Stewart describes Alaska, past and present. "Not only Alaska, but the whole vast stretch of the far Northwest is repeating California's marvelous story of development. Steamers, many of them palatial in their fittings, now navigate the Alaskan rivers; towns with organized systems of government are growing fast, with schools and banks and churches, and streets lighted by electricity and paved. The telegraph and the telephone connect the principal settlements, and railroads are being built which in a year or two will traverse the peninsula almost from end to end." Mr. Stewart regards Alaska as a country of vast possibilities. "When the cod banks of the coast have been exploited; the salmon industry placed on a more systematic basis; the deposits of gold, iron, nickel, copper, and coal worked by adequate machinery; the vast tracts of fertile land brought under cultivation, and the railroads completed, the great North will no longer be the lone *terra incognita* of the past, but will throb with an active and productive civilization."

JONATHAN EDWARDS AND HIS DESCENDANTS.

In connection with the bi-centennial of the birth of Jonathan Edwards, to be celebrated in October, Edith A. Winship traces in her paper, "The Human Legacy of Jonathan Edwards," the influence he is still exerting through his descendants. "The remarkable record of this family is shown by a study of the descendants of Jonathan Edwards to the number of fourteen hundred down to the present generation. As public officials, business men, writers and preachers, physicians, lawyers, judges, college professors and presidents, these descendants have been men of mark." The only black sheep of the whole flock is Aaron Burr, a grandson of Jonathan Edwards.

HOW TO BEAUTIFY A CITY.

In her suggestive paper "The Block Beautiful," Zelia Milhau describes the missionary work undertaken by the Municipal Art Society of New York, respecting its members, in behalf of beautifying our cities by inducing the individual householders to decorate their dwellings with window boxes. The experiment was begun a year ago in Brooklyn, as a city of householders, in an average, prosperous city block, and now the idea has already been taken up by practically the whole of Brooklyn Heights for many blocks around. The experimental stage included the finding of a box best adapted to that purpose, as well as the most artistic arrangement of flowers to satisfy the design of the house and the block. That stage is now passed. "We have models of a dozen different styles and fashions of window and front-door boxes, photographs of florally

decorated houses and of artistic back-yards." Exhibitions of these models have been held in Philadelphia, Brooklyn, and in New York City at the National Art Club, that have aroused considerable interest.

Adele Marie Shaw's paper on "Reading for Teachers" will appeal to many a college-bred teacher obliged to take personal instructions from her intellectual inferiors; Mr. Frederic C. Howe describes "Cleveland—A City Finding Itself;" Francis E. Leupp tells "How the Army is Now Organized;" Mr. John Foster Carr predicts "Anglo-American Unity Fast Coming;" Mr. J. W. Hewes contributes a series of interesting statistical charts on "Where Our Immigrants Settle;" Mr. Ralph D. Paine gives a sketch of William Ellis Corey, the new president of the United States Steel Corporation; and Mr. Chalmers Roberts, in a somewhat longer paper, "Some Personal Glimpses of Lord Salisbury."

SUCCESS.

FROM the October number of *Success* we have selected the article on "Adelina Patti's Achievement" for quotation in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month."

THE UNITED STATES SENATE.

Mr. Walter Wellman explains, in an interesting article on "Operating the United States Senate," its processes and methods, which he calls "somewhat mysterious" to all but those who have had exceptional opportunity to study its inner workings. He characterizes it in a single phrase as an "aristocratic democracy," formal, elegant, ceremonious, and punctilious; to serve in it is a distinction. The mere title of Senator carries with it a dignity, into which a member easily slips as soon as he takes his seat in the Senate chamber. This seat is now coveted as one of the greatest prizes of American public life. Men who love power find that, if in the Senate their aspiration for power is not satisfied, at least opportunity is always theirs.

The prerogative of seniority is considered in making appointments. If the chairman of a committee dies or leaves the Senate, he is succeeded by the man of the majority political party who has served longest upon the committee. Even when two Senators from the same State aspire to a vacancy upon a committee, the senior Senator has the preference, although the other man may be better qualified for the place by study and training. The real power behind the throne is the executive committee, commonly known as the "steering committee." Membership in this committee is one of the great prizes of senatorial service. It means influence and power, for the "steering committee" not only settles questions of committee assignments, and many matters pertaining to the comfort and convenience of the Senators, but it also exercises supervision over that really important thing, "the order of business." The real decisions of the Senate are reached, not on the floor of the Senate chamber, but in the comfortable cloak-rooms; here the Senators, while lounging, smoking, and drinking their special beverage, the luscious Apollinaris lemonade, are discussing world-politics, national politics, State politics, and, above all, Senate politics.

AMERICAN MIGRATION TO CANADA.

The new Canada in the making is described by Rufus Rockwell Wilson as a vast wheat-growing country that is luring American farmers across the border. "From

March to August, 1902, more than thirty thousand American farmers, mainly heads of families, settled in Manitoba and the Northwest Territories, where they became the owners of upward of five million acres of land." They have gone to Canada because, "in many cases, they can sell their old farms in the States for from thirty dollars to forty dollars an acre, and can buy as good land under the British flag from seven dollars to ten dollars an acre, starting anew under favorable conditions, and with a goodly amount of ready cash in hand. The climatic conditions are very similar to those of our own Northwest. Sir William van Horne estimates the future population of the Canadian wheat belt at 100,000,000, and predicts that the children of to-day will live to see it producing more wheat than any other grain-growing area in the world."

There is, in addition, the usual complement of stories and helpful articles. Charlotte Perkins Gilman writes on "The Home as a Social Medium," and Orison Swett Marden on "Mastering Moods."

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

IN the October *Atlantic*, Mr. S. W. McCall considers "The Power of the Senate" as a menace to the great principles of popular government underlying our institutions. The privilege of debate that now obtains permits any Senator to defeat a bill by talking against time and thus forcing its supporters to withdraw the same. The system of electing Senators by twos from every State, and not, as the representatives, in proportion to the population, resulting in "an exaggerated inequality so utterly subversive to the American dogma of government, is undoubtedly the great fault in the constitution of the Senate. States having less than one-sixth of the population choose a majority of the entire Senate, while more than five-sixths of the people of the country are represented by a minority in that body." Hence special interests and special sections of the country are unduly favored, each Senator voting on principle for the measures furthering the interests of his own State. Mr. McCall considers the increasing practice of intrusting Senators with special official functions,—as e.g., on the commission to negotiate the treaty with Spain, and more recently on the Alaskan Boundary Commission,—unconstitutional, as is also the growing tendency to pass laws, and especially taxation laws, by treaty. "The only practical hope of even a partial remedy lies in the jealous insistence by the house upon its constitutional prerogatives."

PIUS X. AND HIS TASK.

H. D. Sedgwick, Jr., describes the tasks confronting the new Pontiff. While the problems that await him are chiefly spiritual, "he must be a statesman, he must keep constant watch on the political purposes of every government in Europe, and be on the alert to oppose, to obstruct, to check, to hinder, to delay, all those which are hostile to the Church." Regarding his Italian policy, there are intimations that he will follow that of his predecessor, though a kindly relation may be expected between the Vatican and the Quirinal. A far more intricate question is the course to pursue in France. Shall he attempt to organize a Catholic party, or rely on gentle suasion? In Germany, the problems are chiefly connected with the growth of the Socialist party. In Austria, he has to face the *Los von Rom* movement, which is a secession from the Holy See by a

part of the German population for political reasons. His tasks require great tact and diplomacy, as he cannot resort to force. "Certainly it is easy to sympathize with the new Pontiff under the load of his great responsibility. Uneasy lies the head that wears the triple crown."

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FOR THE NEGRO.

Booker T. Washington describes how industrial training has brought about a better understanding between the white and the black South. "It was the introduction of industrial training into the negro's education that seemed to furnish the first basis for anything like united and sympathetic interest and action between the two races in the South, and between the whites in the North and those in the South. Aside from its direct benefit to the black race, industrial education has furnished a basis for mutual faith and coöperation, which has meant more to the South and to the work of education than has been realized."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Samuel McC. Crothers has a delightful essay on "Quixotism," Dr. Henry van Dyke contributes "Some Remarks on the Study of English Verse," Mr. Arnold Haultain dilates on the charms "Of Walks and Walking Tours," Dr. Lyman Abbott contributes some reminiscences of Henry Ward Beecher, and there is the usual quota of fiction and verse.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

THE most prominent feature of the September *North American* is a series of tributes to the late Pope Leo. Of the seven writers who contribute to this series, Archbishop Ireland alone represents the Church of Rome, the other contributors being Bishop Coleman, of the Protestant Episcopal Church; Dr. R. F. Coyle, moderator of the last Presbyterian General Assembly; Dr. J. B. Thomas, the Baptist theologian; Dr. Washington Gladden, the Congregationalist; Dr. J. Wesley Johnston, the eminent Methodist; and Dr. H. Pereira Mendes, the Jewish rabbi of New York. These representatives of differing faiths are at complete agreement in recognizing the remarkable influence of the late Pontiff in the non-Catholic world. It is doubtful, indeed, whether the death of any great Protestant would have called out so hearty and unanimous a testimony from living Protestants.

WHISTLER'S AMERICANISM.

In an article on the late James McNeill Whistler, Mr. Joseph Pennell warmly defends that eccentric artist's Americanism:

"He was the most intensely American of Americans, continuously reviled though he is by being called an Anglo-American, a Franco-American, impossible hybrids. Whistler was an American and nothing else. His ideals were American, his ambition was for America. And yet, because he did not live in Skaneateles or Kalamazoo, or even in New York or Boston, because it so happened that he found his first motives in London, as well as his last, because his most intimate friends were in that city, he and some other people, with him, who also love England because of what it gives them in their art, are virtually denounced as traitors to the land of their birth and of their fathers' birth, mainly, it is true, by people who were not even born there. In all the important American movements of the last few years, schemes for empire, the question

of the blacks, everything that concerns the American, his interest was boundless,—the interest of the real American, not of the sentimentalist or the politician. The sooner the American nation can understand that this great man was one of those who are compelled to live out of their country by their profession, their business, or their trade, though they may love their land, care more for it, and do more for it, than those who never stir beyond the borders of their own ward, the broader will be the American outlook. The American appreciation which came to him from America was always a delight, and his friends were nearly all Americans. At any rate, they were not Englishmen; and if some of them live in London, they no more than he are of it. It is true that to-day England, with the sense of appropriation which has always been hers, is ready enough to speak of him as an English artist. He was in no sense an English artist; English artists never did one single thing for him during his life nor since his death; nor English collectors either, save to unload at advanced prices, his works they possessed,—luckily, and as he wished, to Americans."

THE NEW TRAINING FOR THE BRITISH NAVY.

Writing of "British Naval Progress," Mr. Archibald S. Hurd has this to say regarding the recent changes in the training of the personnel:

"At last the officers and men are to be trained for a mechanical navy. Up to the present, they have been fitted for a fleet of sailing ships and have learned an immense amount of the lore of an art which has ceased to have any bearing on the conduct of war afloat. In future, every officer and every man will be a mechanician, and every shred of the old routine which has no influence on his future life, either as navigator, gunner, torpedo expert, signaller, or trained mechanician, will be banished; while at the Greenwich College a course of study in tactics and strategy for senior officers has already more than fulfilled expectations."

WHY THE PANAMA ROUTE WAS ORIGINALLY CHOSEN.

Señor Crisanto Medina, Guatemalan minister to France, gives an interesting account of the international congress of 1879, which decided on the adoption of the Panama route for an interoceanic canal, in preference to the Nicaraguan route. According to Señor Medina, it was not the superior advantages of Panama that carried the day, so much as the argument, secretly employed by De Lesseps and others, that satisfactory negotiations could not be had with Nicaragua.

CAN THE FILIPINO BE TAUGHT TO WORK?

The Hon. Hugh Clifford, formerly governor of North Borneo, in concluding a description of the different systems employed by European nations in dealing with Malayan peoples, asserts that men of this stock will not work more than is necessary to supply their very modest wants, if left to themselves, but must be compelled to do so, as in Dutch East India. He reasons, therefore, that the United States can never succeed in raising the Filipino to a fair measure of material prosperity and at the same time to the attainment of personal liberty and happiness, since the two objects are mutually antagonistic the one to the other.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Prof. Charles Waldstein writes on "The Ideal of a University," Prof. Brander Matthews on "How Shakespeare Learned His Trade," Mr. H. G. Furbay on "The

Anti-Saloon League," and Professor Lombroso on "Lefthandedness and Leftsidedness." Mr. W. B. Yeats contributes "The Hour-Glass: a Morality." We have quoted in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month" from ex-Minister Snowden's exposition of "The Problem of the Balkans."

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

TO the *Contemporary Review* for September, M. Jean Finot, editor of *La Revue*, contributes an excellent paper entitled "France, England, and the Anarchy of Europe," in which the whole history of progress toward internationalism is summed up. M. Finot regards the victory of international law in Anglo-French relations as practically assured. He thinks that by such means, and not by demanding general disarmament, the peace of Europe will be finally attained.

"The European atmosphere is favorable to the success of the idea of peace. Governments and the diplomatic routine offer but a feeble opposition to the will of the peoples and their parliaments. Success will be all the nearer if the converts to the cause will abandon their old impracticable visions. All efforts should be concentrated on a programme, not difficult to realize; compulsory arbitration for all. Instead of trying to bring 'universal peace' upon a world as yet too young to accept it, or preaching 'general disarmament,' a project so much at variance with the distrust sown by the representatives of monarchical and warlike Europe, the friends of peace should have but one purpose, to bring about a state of law among the nations. This method of providing against war will soon become the general rule. It involves no premiums to pay, no sacrifices to undergo."

"THE REAL CARLYLE."

There is an interesting paper under this heading, compiled by his daughter from notes left by the late Sir Charles Gavan Duffy. Sir Charles evidently did not take an extremist view in either side of the Froude controversy. He denies that Mrs. Carlyle ever underwent any exceptional hardships at Craigenputtock; but he says that if Carlyle had "sweetened their leisure with habitual tokens of tenderness and fondness, she would have got more pleasure out of life; but he was apt to be silent and self-absorbed even in the intervals of repose." Carlyle had faults which, under a social microscope, loom large. Sir Charles, however, criticises Froude for exposing the details of Carlyle's domestic life. Of Carlyle as a teacher, he says:

"There are no symptoms discernible of Carlyle being forgotten, and quite as few of his being accepted as one of the small exceptional class of beings appointed to expound the will of God to mankind. His opinions have not spread and strengthened with time as divine teachings have always done; on the contrary, they exercise less influence over men than during his lifetime. His contempt for the aims and methods of modern liberty is considered as paradoxical as Rousseau's onslaught on civilization, and his remedies are like the flascos in the patent office, which are marvelously ingenious, but somehow won't work. A whole generation has passed away since he declared that nothing was to be expected from reforming Parliament. The world shows no inclination to accept his opinion on negro slavery, or Jewish emancipation. In truth, he did not make any immediate addition to the stock of human knowl-

edge, but he recalled and vivified the sense of human duties and obligations, and will take his place with great teachers who serve and enlighten mankind, like Milton, Burke, and Johnson."

THIERS.

Mrs. Emily Crawford contributes an extremely interesting anecdotal article of "Recollections of M. Thiers," written, of course, apropos of M. Hanotaux's recent book. Speaking of Thiers just before his death, Mrs. Crawford says:

"A more extraordinary being never lived than M. Thiers. He had deliciously endearing qualities. His mind had searchlight luminosity. Like radium, it kept burning bright without consuming itself, and remained active to the end. I saw him in bed, a bed no longer than a child's, with his nightcap on his head, resting after his conference with Gambetta, and had from his lips his view of the situation of MacMahon, of republican France, and of France in relation to Italy and Germany. I called late in the afternoon, and should have been told to come again had he not overheard my voice in the hall. He got up, came out into the lobby, and called me up. I found him in a long nightshirt, with his wife and her sister trying to keep him quiet. Finally, he went back to bed, but insisted on sitting up and talking. He looked dying and, as George Fox said of Cromwell, 'a whiff of death passed over him.' His translucent face struck me as phenomenally beautiful in an extraordinary way. We knew little then of electric light. In looking back, Thiers appears to me to have contained an arc light. The flesh was the color of old white wax; the lines and wrinkles were deeply graven, but the black eyes were lambent and expressive. His mind was never more fit, but he showed childish petulance when the ladies with him betrayed fear for his health. This did not arise from senile decay; he had, as long as I remember him, the petulance of childhood. It added a grace the more to his many captivating qualities; the mind kept its childish freshness to the very last, and his interests, which ran in so many directions, remained vivid as in early life."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mme. Mary Duclaux begins a series of papers on "The French Peasant Before and After the Revolution," dealing this month with the part "Before." Professor Armitage writes on "The Indian Missionary." We have quoted elsewhere from Dr. Woods Hutchinson's article on "Play as an Education," and from Dr. Dillon's study of the Macedonian situation.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE September *Nineteenth Century* is a good number, opening with an excellent free-trade paper by Lord Avebury, together with other articles on the fiscal controversy. The fiscal articles are followed by two papers on South African questions worth reading.

SOUTH AFRICA'S RESOURCES.

The first is by Gen. Sir E. Brabant, who writes on "The Resources of South Africa." As regards mineral wealth, he says, it is perhaps the richest in the world, but exhaustible; and the real advantage of this mineral wealth lies in the development it may give to agriculture. There is no difficulty at all for a man of health and strength to make a living in the country. General

Brabant warns agricultural immigrants against investing their money too soon; they must either take service with a skilled farmer and learn local conditions, or buy at first only a few acres, not too far from a market, put up a couple of Kafir huts, and at first grow only such vegetables as can be readily sold.

THE NATIVE LABOR QUESTION.

Mr. E. P. Rathbone, late inspector of mines to the Boer government, deals with the native labor question. He gives a number of answers received in reply to questions put to high officials under the present *régime*. Most of these officials expressed themselves absolutely opposed to spirituous liquor. They approved of education for the natives, not on white lines; of a pass law; and of increased inducements to, but no forced, labor.

THE RESTRICTION OF FAMILIES.

Miss F. A. Doughty, an American contributor, writes on "The Small Family and American Society," a topic recently discussed at length in the *North American Review*. As the result of restricted reproduction, the English type is disappearing in many parts of America, particularly in the South.

"Apparently, our more recently adopted citizens,—the ever-landing Celt, Teuton, Slav, and Latin,—are not discouraged by difficulties in rearing large families on slender incomes, hence the ultimate passing of the Anglo-Saxon as a ruling factor in this government is confidently predicted. The framers of our Constitution, in their spirit of boundless hospitality, paved the way for the displacement of their own descendants, and, in doing their utmost to prevent the monopoly of power by an oligarchy or an aristocracy, the decline of family prestige and influence became a foregone conclusion."

The Anglo-Saxon stamp will be retained on American laws, customs, literature, and language. Everything else is being transmuted through the superior fecundity of the immigrant.

OTHER ARTICLES.

There are several other articles of interest. Mr. H. Hamilton Fyfe, in a paper on "The Alien and the Empire," expresses the belief that anti-Semitism will arise in England if the Jews do not cease their exclusiveness. Mr. Dicey tells "The Story of Gray's Inn." Mr. J. H. Longford writes on "The Growth of the Japanese Navy," and Mrs. Maxwell-Scott begins an article on "Joan of Arc."

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

THE *Fortnightly Review* for September is a good number, somewhat marred by the editor's too great consideration for the Zollverein controversy. A good article, by Mr. H. N. Brailsford, on "The Macedonian Revolt," a paper by Mr. D. G. Hogarth on "Crete, Free and Autonomous," and an appreciation by Miss Tynan of Sir Horace Plunkett's work in Ireland, are all cited among the "Leading Articles," and leave little to be dealt with in this section.

MAN'S PLACE IN THE UNIVERSE.

Dr. Russel Wallace replies to his critics. He announces that he has been preparing a book on the subject, which is nearly ready. Dr. Wallace sticks to his argument that observation tends to prove that the stellar system is not infinite. As for the argument raised by

his critics, that as the sun is moving rapidly through space, it did not always, even if it now does, occupy a central position, Dr. Wallace replies that we have no evidence whatever to show that the solar system is moving in a straight line. The motion of our system is purely relative to certain specified groups of stars. Dr. Wallace concludes by saying that such delicate adjustments, and such numerous combinations of physical and chemical conditions, are required for the development and maintenance of life, as to render it in the highest degree improbable that they should all be again found combined in any planet, which leads him to the provisional conclusion that our earth is the only inhabited planet in the whole stellar universe.

THE GOOD OLD TIMES.

Mr. G. J. Holyoake has an interesting paper entitled "Did Things Go Better Before Our Time?" His answer he sums up in the words of Sidney Smith:

"For olden times let others prate,
I deem it lucky I was born so late."

Mr. Holyoake mentions one curious fact, that before matches came into common use the average working man wasted ninety hours a year in kindling fires with the tinder-box. Seventy years ago, the working-class household lived in gloom after sundown. Mr. Holyoake remembers a time when "only four men in Birmingham had the courage to wear beards," and only military officers were allowed to wear a mustache. In the good old days, one pump in a yard had to serve several working-class families. In the days of wooden bedsteads, the workingman was eaten alive by insects. Food today is purer—health is surer—life itself is safer and lasts longer.

THE AMERICAN HUSBAND.

Gertrude Atherton writes on "The American Husband," the type of which, she insists, is not to be found among the wealthy visitors to Europe, but among the great middle class.

"Beyond a doubt, it is in the huge bulk of the middle class, both in and out of the strenuous cities, that not only the 'typical' husband is to be found, but the largest measure of domestic contentment. In these millions of respectable homes, just above the grind and pinch of poverty, many a man is common, overbearing, selfish, dull, but the mass of him lives an even and amiable life, moderately indulgent to his family, and repaying the unintermittent sacrifices of his wife with much consideration, even while accepting them as inevitable. He loves his home and takes a deep interest in his children, being not above walking the floor with them at night, nor wheeling them in the perambulator. If he works unceasingly, it is to educate them properly, and leave his family provided for at his death. There may be an occasional scene when bills come in, for the American man expects the impossible of the American wife, more in the matter of economics than is in the power of mortal woman outside of France."

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

THE *Westminster Review* for September opens with a paper suggesting "A Free Trading Imperial Zollverein."

Mr. J. G. Godard follows with an article on "Ecclesiasticism and Imperialism," with special relation to the South African War. "The gravaman of the charge

against the clergy," says Mr. Godard, "is not that they hypocritically profess the popular belief, but that they share such belief; that whenever the nation embarks upon an immoral or disastrous enterprise, they are always able to discover a justification for such enterprise because it is national."

Surgeon-Captain Bakewell expresses the conviction that the empire is likely to be broken up by the question, Will the colonies pay their fair share and proportion of defending it? He does not think that such unorganized colonial support as we received during the late struggle would be of any use in a great war.

Mr. C. B. Wheeler, writing on the St. Pierre catastrophe, declares that it can be no more reconciled with the moral government of the universe than we can attribute benevolence to a cataract or magnanimity to the rising sun.

SCOTLAND'S NATIONAL PHYSIQUE.

Mr. H. Rippon-Seymour examines the report of the Royal Commission on Physical Training as regards Scotland. He comments on the fact that the commissioners found that "there exists in Scotland an undeniable degeneration." It is remarkable that the percentage of children suffering from diseases in Edinburgh is more than double the percentage of Aberdeen. In Edinburgh, one-third of the board school children were found in want of immediate medical attention. Another article on the same subject, by Mr. J. H. Vines, however, ridicules the conclusions of the commission.

CO-EDUCATION.

There is an interesting article, by Mr. E. H. Tylee, on "Some Recent Experiments in Co-Education." He describes in detail the good results of co-education at Keswick, where there are now sixty boys and forty girls. Both sexes attend the same classes, and outdoor games form as large a part of the training of the girls as of the boys. The following sentences, one written by an Englishman, and the other by an American, of authority, give the opinions of observers of co-education:

"There can be no question that the presence of the girls and mistresses had an indefinable influence which made itself felt; there was a marked gentleness and courtesy observable among the boys, both in play-hours and in school, which may not unnaturally be placed to the credit of co-education. It seems to be an admitted fact that girls become more full of resource, and capable of much self-reliance; that boys gain in refinement and a deeper appreciation of, and respect for, girlhood."

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

THE *National Review* for September is a phenomenal number, being nearly double its usual size. This is explained by the long special supplement on "The Economics of Empire," written, we are told, by the "Assistant Editor," which fills one hundred and six pages.

PAN-GERMANISM IN HUNGARY.

Mr. Ferencz Herczeg, member of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, has an article under this heading. M. Herczeg begins by saying there is no such thing as a Pan-German movement in Hungary, but an unsuccessful attempt has been made to create one, the object being to endow the two million German-speaking Hungarians with some kind of cultural and economic or-

ganization under the moral supremacy of Germany. The movement has been a complete failure. Hungary is now wide-awake in opposition to Pan-Germanic ideals.

A GIFT-HORSE'S MOUTH.

"Glasgow" plays the devil's advocate with a vengeance in regard to Mr. Carnegie's gift to the Scottish universities. In an article asking the question, "Will Mr. Carnegie Corrupt Scotland?" he answers emphatically, he will. Scotland, says "Glasgow," in effect, is in danger of losing all her independence and becoming Mr. Carnegie's humble servant, and turning her laborious sons into loafers and idlers. The gift is, in short, humiliating; and the provision that the successful man may return to the trust what he has been given as a student, shackles his sense of independence. The universities will be so much under the control of the Carnegie committee that they cannot modify a Leyden jar without permission. Rich men will abuse Mr. Carnegie's liberality."

Finally, all Scotland will be so learned that there will be no tradesmen or workmen left.

"We may find Scotland beginning to suffer from the natural consequences of Mr. Carnegie's whimsical vagaries, and infested with gangs of unpractical scientists, theologians sadly down at heel, and spasmodic men of letters that are no better than dumb dogs."

SUNDAY IN THE ENGLISH VILLAGE.

Mr. H. F. Abell writes an interesting paper on "The Problem of the Village Sunday." The villager suffers much more than the townsman from Sunday stagnation. He contrasts the Continental with the British Sunday, by no means to the advantage of the latter.

"We are prone to prate proudly about the sanctity and beauty of our English home life, and no doubt on week-days there is some sanctity and beauty about it. But when we come to Sunday, and think of the brake-loads of husbands and fathers who, on pleasure bent, swarm along our highways, passing no public houses, filling the air with their hideous songs, their women folk left behind in the holy and beautiful homes, and contrast it with the essentially family character of the Continental Sunday, as exemplified in the pleasant scenes to be witnessed wherever trees and grass are green and river banks invite rest and refreshment, we do not feel quite so sure about the soundness of our grounds for crowing."

THE PALL MALL MAGAZINE.

THE September *Pall Mall Magazine* is excellent, from the sketch of Mr. Winston Churchill, noticed separately, to Mr. William Archer's appreciation of W. E. Henley; and Mr. William Sharp's "literary geographical" paper on "The Country of R. L. Stevenson."

Mr. Arthur Henry, writing on "The Pilgrim's Way," describes the old highway still so known in parts by which pilgrims journeyed from London to Becket's shrine in Canterbury. Signor Cortesi describes in detail how the Pope is elected; and Major Powell-Cotton writes on the cave-dwellers of Mount Eglon, some ninety miles northeast of Victoria Nyanza. Already there are very few of these most primitive folks left; and soon they will all have migrated to the plains. Interesting illustrations accompany the article.

The Count de Soissons' article on "The Austrian Em-

peror and the Family" gives an interesting theory of his own as to the real cause of Prince Rudolf's tragic end,—a secret known only to the Emperor, Count Goluchowski, and one other. This article is unlike most of those about royalty; it is not "mostly slush."

Mr. Frederic Lees has an article on the author of "Mon Frère Yves," to which every reader of Loti will eagerly turn. It is curious to learn that a son of non-Bible reading France (though Loti was of a Protestant family) should confess that the Bible, as read aloud by his father, was perhaps the only book that has influenced his style. Flaubert and Alphonse Daudet he has read; otherwise he writes more books than he reads.

CORNHILL.

THERE is plenty of good matter in the September number of *Cornhill*. The tragedy of Robert Emmet and Mr. Sidney Low's appreciation of the late W. E. Henley have claimed separate notice.

THE SPIRIT OF THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

ON THE LATE POPE.

THE death of Leo XIII. and the election of a successor form, naturally enough, the subject of several articles in the Italian reviews, notably in the *Civiltà Cattolica*, the *Rassegna Nazionale*, and the *Nuova Antologia*. The tenor of all is the same,—admiration for the acknowledged powers of one of the last of the Grand Old Men of Europe, and grief at his death. The first-named review, having dealt lengthily with Leo's Pontificate on the occasion of his jubilee, considers that it has little to add, but nevertheless publishes several pages of eulogy. The *Nuova Antologia* thinks it somewhat difficult to judge his work fairly. He had to encounter many difficulties, face many severe struggles, and he undoubtedly had many successes. At times, he ventured boldly into the future; at others, he appeared to be hiding timorously in the past. In another article, this review speaks of Leo having died too soon, and being still in his youth, despite his great age, which metaphorical remark is indicative of the high opinion in which Leo was held. The *Rassegna Nazionale* quotes Dante, and says that the late Pontiff possessed the three qualities mentioned in those lines,—namely, intellectual light full of love, love full of gladness, and gladness superior to all sorrow. He was a human creature who was almost celestial.

In the second article of the *Nuova Antologia* we have a sketch of the popes of Leo's century. Beginning with some remarks on Pius VI., who died in 1799, after having been dethroned by Bonaparte, and who was carried to his grave not by priests but by soldiers, the article goes through the occupants of the Holy See and ends with Leo, who is, to use the words of another writer, "the noblest Roman of them all."

The *Rassegna Nazionale*, speaking briefly of the new Pontiff, thinks that he will be a worthy Vicar of Christ, and declares that the name (Pius X.) is of good augury. The *Civiltà Cattolica* is also very hopeful.

THE FUTURE OF THE LATIN RACE.

Among the contents of the *Rassegna Nazionale* is an article on the "Future of the Latin Race," in which a comparison is made between a new book and certain articles on the same subject previously published in the

Mr. W. W. Gibson contributes a short drama in verse on three kings left by sea-rovers naked and bound on a lone rock in mid-ocean. There is not a little to remind one of the "Prometheus Unbound." The purport seems to be to show that glory is futile, but that love is uppermost even in death.

Mr. Frederic Harrison gives reminiscences of the Century Club, begun in 1886 by himself and Mr. Lyulph Stanley, and ultimately merged in the National Liberal Club.

Mr. George Bourne writes on rural techniques, and shows how much skill has gone to the making and the using of scythe and spade and hoe. It is a chivalrous vindication of the skill of the agricultural laborer.

Mrs. Woods contributes a travel paper on her tour through the Basque provinces. Professor Brandin appreciates the work of Gaston Paris in reconstructing medieval history through its literature. The discovery of new stars gives Mr. F. W. Dyson the thread for a varied astronomic story.

Rassegna Nazionale. The future of the race is decidedly bad, according to the book, unless some great change comes about; the present is certainly bad. The conclusion is that physical, moral, and religious changes are needed, the word "religion" being used in a broad sense. The author of the book thinks that Romanism is the cause of the present deplorable condition, and would get rid of religion in the main; whereas, the writer of the article says that we have only to look back at the former greatness of the Latin race to see a refutation of the attack on Romanism. More religion, not less, is what is required. There are also deeply interesting articles on the conversion of George Henry Newman and the Catholic Renaissance in England, and on Verdi.

LATIN AMERICA.

La España Moderna for August summarizes a discussion of Ibero-Americanism by Mr. Romero Leon in the *Boletín de la Sociedad Jurídico-Literaria* of Colombia. After noting the lively opposition in Latin America to the Monroeism of the United States, he says that the fundamental basis of political equilibrium in America is the union of the Latin race, whose only bond at present is the language, which bond some wish to destroy. Mr. Romero Leon would have the language preserved, and the various nations of Latin America draw closer to one another and to their former mother country. He would have a general Spanish-American library formed in Spain, for the exchange of scientific, historical, and other literary productions, with a view to the formation of one or more similar libraries in each republic.

ITALIAN AGRICULTURE AND EDUCATION.

The *Civiltà*, among its other contributions (August 15), has an article on agriculture and agriculturists in Italy, which is really a review of a German book. Italy's resources are very great, and in former times these resources were developed; she was called the "Garden of Europe," and even Virgil termed her "the great mother of cereals." This condition of things existed till 1848, since which time the decadence has been astounding. The preponderance of secular education and the propagation of socialistic ideas is largely the assigned cause. There is also an article on the index of prohibited books,

in which we are informed that many persons confuse the legislation on the general subject with the catalogue itself.

Nuova Antologia (August 1) has an article on popular education in Italy, revealing a state of things decidedly unsatisfactory. According to the latest statistics, there were rather less than fifty-one thousand schools in the country, of which about 87 per cent. were of inferior grades. This is quite insufficient for the population; many outlying villages (those in the mountain districts, for instance) with five hundred inhabitants are not reached by any school.

MILITARY LIFE IN ITALY.

M. Tissot, writing in the *Revue de Paris*, describes military life in Italy as portrayed in the novels of Captain Sangiacomo, a distinguished Italian officer, whose works, one gathers, are more to be commended as documents than for their literary merit. The Italian army seems to suffer quite as much as the British from the absurdities of the military tailor, with his affection for the minutiae of gold lace and dolmans. But the serious side of the matter is that the moral influence of the army on the national life is so bad; indeed, M. Tissot declares that in Italy, as in all the countries of western Europe, the position of standing armies is seriously threatened by the spirit of modern progress.

GERMAN SINGING SOCIETIES.

In *Onze Eeuw* the contribution which first catches the fancy is one with the (to us) curious title "In the Realm of Tunes." At first we are rather disappointed to find that it is not a learned dissertation on the gamut or the science of sounds, but we afterward discover ourselves in the midst of a readable description of the competition of men's choirs in Frankfort a short time ago. There were six thousand throats in combat, as the writer humorously informs us, and the leader of the winning choir, which hailed from Berlin, had the gold chain of victory placed round his neck by the Empress. The writer then sketches the rise of these German singing associations: they began with the foregathering of two or three men here and there for musical amusement and practice, and they have gradually developed till they have become quite a power for good in the Fatherland.

RUSSIAN CONVICTS ON THE ISLAND OF SAGHALIN.

Dostoyevski, Chekhov, Mirolubov, and other Russian writers seem to have said the last words in regard to the horrors of deportation and of convict labor. But details of incredible atrocity regarding the life of from 2,000 to 3,000 unfortunates who yearly swell the population of the accursed island of Saghalin are given by M. Doroshevich in his recent book entitled "Sakhaline," which is reviewed in *Obrazovaniye* for July. Despotism rules supreme in the prisons of Saghalin. The kind of existence to which the convict is subjected by the authorities and by his immediate keepers is one calculated to pervert him irredeemably, by destroying in him every vestige of the moral sense. The overseers, —who are selected from the dregs of society, and more frequently still from the scum of the prisons,—have unlimited power over the convicts, which they abuse with barbarous cruelty. But in the prisons even there is a monstrous aristocracy. Bandits who have committed the most atrocious crimes oppress and terrorize the common convicts, those who atone for an act of folly by years of unspeakable suffering. The great criminals receive comparatively light punishment. The authori-

ties are afraid to send them to the mines or the *taiga*, as regiments of soldiers could not guard them on the march. Hence they are assigned to the easiest work, while the unfortunate ones who have been deported for minor offenses are killed by hard labor.

THE SUFFERINGS OF FRENCH CONVICTS.

M. Liard Courtois devotes two long and very painful articles in *La Revue*, written from first-hand knowledge, to a description of the treatment of French convicts in Guiana and on the Devil's Island of Dreyfus fame. It is almost incredible that such a state of things should exist. Since 1852, more than 26,000 convicts have been sent to French Guiana, of whom 84½ per cent. die of disease, hardship, and insufficient food.

SOUTHERN MADAGASCAR.

To the first August number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Charles-Roux contributes an interesting paper on the southern part of Madagascar. Much of this portion had never been explored, and it was so recently as October, 1900, that the task of pacifying and organizing it was intrusted to Colonel Lyautey. He did his work remarkably well, and avoided, as far as he possibly could, both the red-tape and the militarism which were formerly characteristic of French colonial administration. All over the island medical assistance for the natives has been systematically organized, and will no doubt do much to check the appalling infant mortality. The Malagasy women are good mothers, but ignorant of the simplest rules of health, and it is no wonder that many of the children who do survive grow up sickly or idiotic. The adult population, too, is devastated by tuberculosis, leprosy, smallpox, and alcoholism, and wholesale vaccination has been resorted to.

THE AFRICAN POMPEII.

The article in *De Gids*, the Dutch magazine, on the African Pompeii is full of interest; this is Thimgad, the Thamugadi of the ancients, which the French Government is now digging from the earth that hides it. The tourist goes to Batna, in Algeria, mainly for the purpose of "doing" the ruins of Lambese (the Lambæsis of the Romans) and Markouna (Verecunda) and the excavations and remains of Thimgad; so the writer describes her journey in a victoria, occupying four hours, to these three places. The first was a Roman camp, that of the Third Legion of Augustus. Arrived at Thimgad, the writer takes us, in imagination, to the far-off days when Thamugadi was as full of life as Pompeii. The article keeps the reader fully interested from the first word to the last.

A TREATISE ON THE SILKWORM.

Nuova Antologia contains an interesting account of a Chinese book on the cultivation of silkworms, poetically described as "rods of silk." This great work, which runs into twenty-four volumes, was compiled by the order of the Emperor Koung, and its compilation was effected by doctors and other learned men of the Flowery Land. It contains practical notions, traditions and laws on the subject, most of which date back to pre-Christian times. It tells of species which many European entomologists refused at first to believe in, but the general accuracy of the statements is now conceded.

CATTLE-BREEDING IN THE ARGENTINE.

M. Daireaux describes, in the *Revue de Paris*, the remarkable work which has been done in the Argentine

Republic by cattle-breeders and agriculturists generally from England, Belgium, Switzerland, Italy, and Germany. France alone is almost unrepresented, and he adjures his countrymen to take a hand in this profitable game.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHILE.

In *La España Moderna* for August appears a notice of the report of the University of Chile, as published in the *Anales de la Universidad*. Many reforms have been introduced in the university, which lack of space prevents us from noting in detail, comprising, as they do, almost every branch: history of law, public finance, statistics, agricultural and industrial law, forensic medicine, international private law, and physical and mathematical sciences; new laboratories have been established, notably two, one for electro-chemistry, the other for radiography.

Great progress has been made in secondary instruction, which has been divided into two courses of three years each. The first comprises elementary Latin and Greek, Spanish, arithmetic and geometry, accounting, morphology, and the classification of the various vegetable and animal species; hygiene, derived from elementary knowledge of human anatomy and physiology, and the most essential notions of physics and chemistry; one foreign language, and the history and geography of Chile and America, especially with reference to the events of the fifteenth century and the discovery of the new world.

The second course is the development of the first: Spanish literature, algebra, trigonometry, cosmography, natural history (in the most intimate manifestations of life, including the origin of the species themselves), advanced physics and chemistry, advanced history and geography.

EDUCATION IN PARAGUAY.

In an article on "Intellectual Paraguay," summarized in *La España Moderna*, it is shown that in less than a quarter of a century, since the terrible war which left Paraguay entirely prostrate and practically without adult males, primary education has made gigantic strides, so that, exclusive of children under six years of age, there were in 1899 three hundred and sixty-nine per one hundred knowing how to read. In the capital, Asuncion, the proportion knowing how to read was six hundred and twenty-eight per one thousand.

THE TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY.

The manifold and inestimable advantages accruing to Russian and Siberian capitalists by the establishment of the Trans-Siberian Railway, the longest and perhaps the most important railway in existence, are set forth by M. Kleinbort in his article "Capitalism and the Trans-Siberian Railway," in *Obrazovaniye* for July. This railway places Europe in direct communication with China, Japan, and Korea, which have together a population of more than one-half milliard inhabitants. The commerce carried on between these peoples and the different nations of Europe is estimated at six hundred million rubles. The Russian capitalist of the future will naturally become the intermediary in the commercial relations between Europe and Asia, and he may even take entire charge of the export and import trade of China, which is now controlled by German, English, and other capital. The unrestricted introduction of Russian and foreign products into Siberia will, however, ruin the small home industries. The "kustaris"

(those engaged in small industries) and the natives will swell the ranks of the proletarians. According to the fatal law of modern progress, the feeble will succumb to the strong.

JAPAN TO-DAY FROM A RUSSIAN POINT OF VIEW.

D. Golovin contributes to *Russkatya Mysl* for July an article on the political and social organization, the customs, and the religion of Japan, and the reforms that have recently been introduced in that country. He says that it is erroneous to ascribe to the Japanese a spirit of imitation. In borrowing the social customs and the scientific discoveries of Europe they are solely guided by a conscious and sincere love for their country. They are animated, above all, by a spirit of self-preservation, and the desire to protect their independence, which is menaced by the rapacious foreigner invading their country. In a recent article, a Japanese picturesquely compared China to an old, peaceful beast attacked by young tigers, one of which was Japan. Can Japan be blamed, asks Golovin, if it would rather figure as tiger than as the tiger's victim?

JAPAN IN ASIA.

D. Franke, in the *Deutsche Rundschau*, contributes a lengthy paper upon Japan's Asiatic aspirations. He says that after the China-Japanese War the hate against China was replaced by an aversion to the white man. The Anglo-Japanese alliance seems to controvert this theory, but he considers this as merely a means to an end, and that the real feeling of the Japanese people is expressed in the memorandum of the recently formed East Asiatic League of Culture. This league has for its object the closer union of the yellow races, and the maintenance of the *status quo* in the far East, holding that Asia belongs to the yellow race, and that the white should be excluded.

A GREAT CHINESE REFORMER.

In days to come the civilized world may become as familiar with the name of Kang-Yon-Wei as it is now with that of Plato or of Confucius. This great Chinese reformer is now living in exile at Tokyo, banished from his native country and from the college he founded at Peking by the Dowager Empress, who both fears and hates him. Kang-Yon-Wei is a constructive philosopher. He has published a most remarkable pamphlet, a kind of confession of faith, in which he sets out his views concerning human life and conduct. In many ways this venerable Chinaman is far in advance of many so-called European reformers. Thus, he is for absolute equality between the sexes, and he even goes so far as to advocate women being employed in great affairs of state. A sketch of his career from the pen of M. Soulié appears in the *Nouvelle Revue* for August 1.

NAVAL MANEUVERS.

An anonymous article in the second August number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* deals in an expert manner with squadron evolutions and the tactics of modern fleets. The writer comes to certain conclusions, which may be thus stated: The difficulties and dangers of squadron maneuvers of the traditional type could only increase because of the inevitable growth of tonnage, while the most modern conception of naval tactics, derived from the progress effected in speed and in offensive armament, rendered less and less justifiable the value attached to compact formations and evolutions in close

order. A special individual importance is to be assigned to fighting units which are intended to act, not in isolation, but separately, while at the same time combining their efforts. Officers must consequently have not only the highest technical training and personal bravery, but something which is yet more important still,—the power of imagination to conceive decisive movements, the intuition which perceives the golden moment, and that courage of the mind which undertakes such movements. In a word, the writer says that the great need in the French navy is the restoration of individual initiative.

INDIRECT TAXES JUSTIFIED.

M. Berthélemy contributes to the first August number of the *Revue de Paris* a clever defense of indirect taxation. He explains the grave danger of a democracy laying all its financial burdens on the small group of wealthy people, and he shows, or thinks he shows, that it is often the poor who really pay in the end the taxes intended to be levied on the rich. Indirect taxation he recommends because its productivity is enormous, it can be easily borne, and it is just in its incidence. Altogether, it produces the maximum of revenue with the minimum of discontent. Incidentally, it may be noted that M. Berthélemy advocates a state monopoly of the drink traffic in France on the same lines as the tobacco monopoly.

A FRENCH VIEW OF BURNS.

M. Roz, in a long study of Burns contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, agrees with Lord Rosebery in thinking that the secret of the poet's extraordinary fame and of his incomparable genius is that, unlike other Scottish writers, he set Scotland on her feet in a literary sense, and reassured her claims to a national existence. Scotland is only an ideal nation; all her reality is in her past, to which she pays fervent honor, and in her spiritual life, which expresses the genius of certain men,—John Knox, Walter Scott, and, above all, Robert Burns. That is why she is so prodigal of her admiration and her love. In no other country, perhaps, does the expression "national poet" bear so full and strong a meaning.

THE YOUTH OF MIRABEAU.

M. Doumic, in a paper which reflects the increased attention which is now being paid to the great figures of the Revolution, deals, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, with the intrigues of Mirabeau with Sophie de Monnier and Julie Danvers. It is a sordid story, especially Mirabeau's pretense, in the "Letters to Julie," that he enjoyed the favors of the Princesse de Lamballe.

ENGLAND AND AMERICA.

Mr. W. H. Lecky, writing, in *La Revue*, on "The Anglo-American Alliance," remarks that in spite of a small but ever-diminishing number of points of friction, England has still more in common with America than with any European country. The probabilities are, he thinks, that there will never be war between the two countries; arbitration will regulate all their differences. Nevertheless, he does not consider an actual general alliance as likely to come, though there will be many treaties for special objects. For good,

permanent relations with America, England must look to an ever-increasing community of sympathy, principles, and ideas.

HOW TO GET RID OF ENNUI.

M. Emile Faguet, reviewing, in *La Revue*, a book on "l'Ennui" has a great deal to say that is very interesting. Ennui means weakness somewhere; but lest those who do not suffer from it should grow swellheaded, he says that the chief reason for such exemption is being too well pleased with one's self,—too sublimely conceited a fool even to feel ennui. Against ennui there is only one remedy,—“a consistent, continuous course of action, tending always in the same direction toward an object impossible of attainment.” In other words, to get a mania for something, and stick to it.

THE RUSSIAN WRITER, KOROLENKO.

M. Volski contributes to *Mir Bozhi* for July a careful and interesting study of the life and the works of the popular Russian writer, Korolenko, who is destined to take a foremost rank in Russian literature, taking his place beside Turgenev, with whom he has many affinities. There is apparent in both writers the same tender melancholy, and the same way of contemplating the rapid and inexorable flight of life. Korolenko's work conveys a sense of the impossibility of attaining to ultimate truth and of manifesting one's individuality fully and freely. But, however imperfect life may be, Korolenko loves it, and does not seek to escape from its sorrows by an easy-going optimism. This quality of mind constitutes his chief attraction.

THE READING OF THE RUSSIAN PEASANTS.

A sad picture regarding the intellectual pabulum of the Russian people is presented by M. Smirnov, in his article in *Russkaiya Mysl* for July on "What Our Peasants Read," that is based on figures furnished by the statistical bureau of the government of Vladimir, which is noteworthy among Russian provinces both for its industrial development and its elementary schools. But, notwithstanding these advantages, the modest library of the peasant in this government consists of trashy dime novels, with fantastic titles, that are calculated to excite the imagination of the reader. These books, together with devotional books—in the ratio of 23 per cent. and 58-60 per cent.—constitute almost the entire reading of the Russian country people. As these books are, moreover, difficult to procure, it frequently happens that a person who once had schooling forgets how to read. The situation is somewhat better in the industrial districts, where all the factories have libraries for their employees.

THE CZAR ALEXANDER II.

Istoricheski Wyestnik for August contains an important article by M. Timirazev on the Czar Alexander II., the Liberator, inspired by Tatischev's recent work on the reign of this monarch. The memoirs of Count Pfell, a Prussian officer serving in the Russian regiment Preobrayensky, are reviewed in this number. In these memoirs, that have recently been published in Germany, the count speaks sympathetically of the Russian army and of Czar Alexander II.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BOOKS RELATING TO INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE.

IN Appleton's "Business Series," a volume on "American Railway Transportation" has been written by Dr. Emory R. Johnson, of the University of Pennsylvania. For many years, Dr. Johnson has made the transportation problem in this country his special study. It will be remembered that he was a member of the Isthmian Canal Commission for four years, and at different times he has contributed articles to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.



PROFESSOR EMORY R. JOHNSON.

Although much has been written on American railways, it is probable that no single volume heretofore published contains anything like the amount of specific information on all phases of the subject which is presented in this book of Dr. Johnson's. His introductory survey of the American railway system comprehends not only statistical statements showing the growth and mileage and rapidity of construction, but descriptions of the mechanical and financial features of the system as well. The second part of the work is a full account of the service performed by our railroads,—freight, passenger, express, and mail. The third part includes a discussion of the relation of the railroads to the public, including a full exposition of traffic agreements and pools, the effects of competition, theory of rates and fares, rate-making in practise, and railway charges in the United States as compared with those of other countries. In the fourth and concluding part, Dr. Johnson

sets forth the facts regarding the relation of the railways to the state in foreign countries, the regulation by our own State governments, the federal Interstate Commerce Commission, and the action of our courts in the matter of railway regulation, the concluding chapter being devoted to the problem of government regulation in general. All in all, Dr. Johnson offers a most instructive and entertaining treatment of a fascinating subject.

A publication that embraces a great mass of information regarding the present condition of passenger transportation service in the city of New York is the report to the Merchants' Association of New York by its Committee on Engineering and Sanitation (New York: Merchants' Association). This is the first adequate examination that has been made in New York of the transportation conditions. Heretofore all official reports have rested upon data supplied by the street-railway companies themselves. The present report supplies data independently gathered, and hence affording a suitable basis for legislation.

In connection with the transportation question, an interesting historical study appears in the "Johns Hopkins University Series in Historical and Political Science" in the form of an essay on the Wabash trade route and the developments of the old Northwest, by Elbert J. Benton. The Wabash route, being one of the natural waterways from the Great Lakes to the Mississippi River, was used during the period of French, British, and American occupation of the Northwest Territory, and later, after State governments had been established in this region, a canal known as the Wabash and Erie Canal paralleled the earlier natural waterway from Lake Erie to the Ohio River. This trade route included the Miami River, the Wabash River, with the connecting portage, and the Ohio River.

A new idea in geographical text-books is represented in "A Geography of Commerce," by Dr. John N. Tilden and Mr. Albert Clark, late president of the United States Industrial Commission (Boston: Benjamin F. Sanborn & Co.). The purpose of the authors of this text-book is to present to boys in academies, high schools, and business colleges facts bearing upon the active commercial questions of the day, such as the routes and growth of commerce, the production centers and the markets of the world, waterways and railways, the increase of commerce as related to the growth of cities, the staple articles of commerce and their relative value and importance. They have included in the scope of the volume not only the interchange of commercial products, but also considerable information about the countries and localities where the raw materials are found, how the latter are obtained, what the processes of manufacture are, how the interchange is effected, and what ratio home consumption bears to export. The text is accompanied by excellent maps and diagrams.

A brief history of the Standard Oil Company, convenient for reference, is comprised in a little volume by Gilbert Holland Montague (Harpers). The sources of

this history are the reports of official investigating commissions and committees, especially of the famous Hepburn Committee appointed in 1899 by the New York Legislature to investigate railroad abuses, the report submitted to Congress in 1888 by the committee appointed to investigate trusts, and, finally, the report of the Industrial Commission made in 1900. Throughout the text there are brief foot-note references to these documentary authorities. Other accounts of the Standard Oil monopoly are to be found in Mr. Henry Demarest Lloyd's "Wealth against Commonwealth" and in the series of articles by Miss Ida M. Tarbell now appearing in the pages of *McClure's Magazine*.

POPULAR BOOKS ON ASTRONOMY.

During the past year, several books written by eminent astronomers with a view to popularizing certain phases of their science have appeared in this country. Perhaps the most successful of these is Prof. Simon Newcomb's "Astronomy for Everybody" (McClure, Phillips & Co.). Professor Newcomb enters into technical explanations only to a very limited extent, but his language is so clear that most of his expositions of astronomical facts and problems are intelligible even to the unschooled reader. The descriptive portions of the book will not fail to interest the reader, whether or not he cares to master the explanatory portions.

In "Practical Talks by an Astronomer" (Scribners), Prof. Henry Jacoby, of Columbia University, deals with certain subjects that admit of detached treatment. Like Professor Newcomb, Professor Jacoby chooses

Prof. Charles A. Young's "Manual of Astronomy" (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is intended to be used as a textbook intermediary between the author's "Elements of Astronomy" and "General Astronomy." The material of the new book has naturally been derived largely from its predecessors, but has been rearranged and rewritten where necessary and generally revised.



PROFESSOR SIMON NEWCOMB.



PROFESSOR WILLIAM P. TRENT.

language for the most part free from technicalities. Among the topics thus treated are "Navigation at Sea," "The Pole Stars," "Temporary Stars," "How to Make a Sun-Dial," "Photography and Astronomy," "Time Standards of the World," and "Mounting Great Telescopes."

A little book, entitled "The Solar System" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), contains six lectures delivered at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology by Percival Lowell, the well-known director of the Lowell Observatory at Flagstaff, Arizona.

A suggestive volume on "Problems in Astro-physics" has come from the pen of the English writer, Agnes M. Clarke, author of "The History of Astronomy During the Nineteenth Century" and other works (Macmillan). The special value of this book lies in its presentation of the present state of the science of astro-physics. Among the special problems in solar physics treated by the writer are "The Chemistry of the Sun," "Peculiarities of the Solar Spectrum," "Structure and Movements of Sun Spots," "The Spectrum of Sun Spots," "The Sun's Rotation," and "The Solar Cycle." In part second, devoted entirely to sidereal physics, there are descriptions of hydrogen stars, carbon stars, spectra of double stars, and eclipsing stars. The author takes up in detail the various problems connected with nebulae, and closes with a chapter on "The Physics of the Milky Way."

HISTORIES OF LITERATURE.

At last we have a really excellent one-volume history of American literature. It appears in the Appleton's series of "Short Histories of the Literatures of the World," edited by Edmund Gosse, and is the work of Prof. William P. Trent, of Columbia University. While

the general scope and purpose of the book are in the main those of the other volumes in this important series, the author has wisely adopted a broader scale of treatment. The comparative youth of our country and the literary barrenness of its earlier years render such a method expedient, while the exclusion of living writers has made all the more feasible a more extended treatment of their predecessors. The great advantage of the scheme adopted by Professor Trent lies not in the mere inclusion of literary worthies that a narrower scale of treatment might have ruled out, but more especially in the fuller and fairer representation of our national literature that is thereby made possible; for unless we know something of the work done by successive generations of "the rank and file" in American letters, we cannot truly sense the literary spirit of this democratic people. Professor Trent's book does well to recognize thus clearly the democracy of our literature.



DR. JOSEPH B. CLARK.

It happens that the American reading public has had several months' advantage of the British in being permitted to peruse the long-awaited "English Literature: An Illustrated Record" (Macmillan). The first and third volumes of this beautiful work were published in this country last May, to be followed in the present month of October, we understand, by the second and fourth volumes, while in England all four volumes will be issued simultaneously very soon. The first volume, which gives the history of English letters down to the time of Henry VIII., is entirely the work of Dr. Richard Garnett, whose long connection with the library of the British Museum made him known to many American scholars. The author of the fourth volume—"From Milton to Johnson"—is Mr. Edmund Gosse, whose work in this field has been familiar to American readers for many years. The illustration of these substantial quarto volumes is on a most elaborate plan, including portraits, cartoons, autographs, facsimiles of title-pages, reproductions of illuminated manuscripts and ancient chronicles, photographs of statues, views of buildings

and natural scenery, and, in short, every kind of picture that helps us to know, in the words of the projector of the work, "not only who the writer was and what he wrote, but what he looked like, perhaps at various ages, where he lived, what his handwriting was, and how he appeared in caricature to his contemporaries." Never before was a popular history of literature so carefully planned or so satisfactorily completed.

RELIGION AND CHURCH HISTORY.

The most interesting phases of American religious history are treated in an attractive volume entitled "Leavening the Nation: The Story of American Home Missions," by Dr. Joseph B. Clark (The Baker & Taylor Company). While Dr. Clark is himself the secretary of the Congregational Home Missionary Society, in the preparation of this book he has had the coöperation of the other denominational boards, and the work is non-sectarian in purpose and subject-matter. To his own personal experience and knowledge of the home missionary field Dr. Clark has added the results of wide reading and keen observation, so that the present volume comprises by far the most satisfactory account of American domestic missions that has ever been published. It strikes the keynote of this national movement,—a work representing a cash investment of \$140,000,000 and the unstinted service of thousands of devoted men and women.

"The Story of the Churches" (Baker & Taylor Company) is the title of a series of brief, popular histories of the various Protestant denominations. "The Baptists" has been written by Dr. Henry C. Vedder and "The Presbyterians" by Dr. Charles L. Thompson. Each of these writers is a recognized authority on the history of his order, and there is no sacrifice of historical value in adapting the books to the needs of the average church member. There is, on the other hand, a distinct gain on the score of readability, when comparison is made with the ponderous and over-elaborate denominational histories that did duty a generation ago.

"Unitarianism in America," as a title, is liable to prove misleading; it is too suggestive of theological controversy. The author of the present volume (Boston: American Unitarian Association), Mr. George Willis Cooke, has attempted nothing more than a sketch of the origin and growth of the denomination in this country, as it has organized itself for missionary, educational, and philanthropic efforts. The theological disputes of the first quarter of the nineteenth century, while an essential part of the history of Unitarianism, have been treated with sufficient fullness in earlier works. Mr. Cooke writes of the activities in which the religion of the present-day Unitarians finds its fullest expression.

Dr. Golder's "History of the Deaconess Movement in the Christian Church" (Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye) is a revelation of the rapid growth of a form of Christian service which large branches of the Church itself are just beginning to appreciate and recognize. The fact that not less than one hundred and forty deaconess institutions have been founded in the United States during the past fifteen years challenges our attention at once, and we find on examination of Dr. Golder's record that these institutions are doing a work of increasing usefulness in the communities where they are placed, enlisting the aid and sympathy of good citizens everywhere, irrespective of sect or creed.

Readers of Dean Sanders' article on religious educa-

tion in the September REVIEW OF REVIEWS will doubtless be glad to have their attention directed to a little book by Professors Burton and Mathews, of the University of Chicago, entitled "Principles and Ideals for the Sunday School" (Chicago: University of Chicago Press). This is a thoroughly practical treatise, written by men who have had years of experience as teachers and officers in Sunday schools. It deals with such topics as "The Basis of Authority in Teaching," "Method as Determined by the Subject of Study," "How to Induce a Pupil to Study," "The Requirements of a Graded School," "The Construction of a Graded Curriculum," "Examinations in the Sunday School," "The Sunday-School Library," and "The Function of a Sunday-School Ritual." On the whole, a capital book for the Sunday-school teacher, young or old.

Another book from the University of Chicago Press is "The Recovery and Restatement of the Gospel," by Dr. Loran D. Osborn. This book is a good example of the historical method as applied in theological investigation, as distinguished from the philosophical method. The author's aim throughout is to lead the reader back to the sources of religious truth, and having, as he expresses it, "recovered" the gospel, to restate it in terms of modern thought.

The subject of agnosticism is ably dealt with in a volume from the pen of the Scottish theologian, Dr. Robert Flint (Scribners). Probably no treatment of the agnostic position from the theistic point of view has ever been so thorough or comprehensive as this.

In "The Great Encyclical Letters of Pope Leo XIII." (New York: Benziger Brothers), which is a volume of translations from authentic sources, is to be found a complete statement of the most characteristic opinions of the late Pontiff on many civil as well as ecclesiastical matters. These writings possess a real and perennial interest.

BOOKS ABOUT HEALTH AND THE CARE OF THE BODY.

The increasing number of brief, popular treatises and handbooks on medical subjects, from authoritative sources, indicates that the old professional prejudice against the public discussion of such subjects is giving way before the public demand for enlightenment and instruction. In the field of preventive medicine this is especially true; for it is in that branch of the science that the public has an undisputed right to know all that the profession can tell it regarding the progress of these latter days. "How to Keep Well," by Dr. Floyd M. Crandall (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is a successful attempt to set forth within the compass of five hundred pages the most important facts and principles relating to the modern methods of preventing disease. Dr. Crandall in this book directs the average reader to what is most worth knowing, both for the improvement of the health of the individual and for the raising of community standards.

A volume entitled "Consumption a Curable and Preventable Disease," by Dr. Lawrence F. Flick (Philadelphia: David McKay) seems intended to serve as a sort of campaign text-book in the active crusade now in progress against tuberculosis. Readers of the articles in the June REVIEW OF REVIEWS on "New Hope for Consumptives" will find many valuable suggestions along similar lines in Dr. Flick's little book, which sums up all the latest discoveries regarding this disease and its treatment.

Dr. L. Emmett Holt's excellent little catechism on "The Care and Feeding of Children" (Appleton) appears in a third edition, considerably expanded. This book has been used for eight years as a manual for nursery maids, and at the same time has served as a helpful guide for mothers. The subject of infant feeding is treated with greater fullness in the present edition, and additional space is given to the nursing infant.

Dr. J. P. Crozer Griffith's manual on "The Care of the Baby" (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co.) has also reached a third edition. This is a book of over four hundred pages, with illustrations, and deals with practically all the problems that commonly arise in connection with the care of infants. Dr. Griffith's lectureship at the University of Pennsylvania corresponds with that of Dr. Holt at the College of Physicians and Surgeons (Columbia University) of New York. Both men are among the foremost authorities on the diseases of children in the country.

A book intended particularly for trained nurses is "Practical Points in Nursing," by Emily A. M. Stoney (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co.). The nurse in private practice can get many helpful hints from this volume in the form of directions how to improvise the appliances needed in the sick-room. A much briefer manual for the trained nurse is the little treatise by S. Virginia Levis (Philadelphia: The Penn Publishing Company).

Dr. A. K. Bond's little book entitled, "How Can I Cure My Indigestion?" (New York: The Contemporary Publishing Company, 5 Beekman Street) is full of useful suggestions adapted to the requirements of all ages and conditions in life.

A reprint of Sir Henry Thompson's "Diet in Relation to Age and Activity" (Frederick Warne & Co.) will be welcomed in America, where the first edition had a large sale. The book is the result of the writer's personal experience, extended to his eighty-second year.

"Morphinism and Narcomanias from Other Drugs," by Dr. T. D. Crothers, of Hartford (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co.), represents almost the first serious attempt in this country to discuss this important problem in a systematic treatise. Dr. Crothers has had more than twenty-five years' experience in the hospital care and treatment of unfortunates addicted to the morphine habit. The lay reader will find his chapters on the medico-legal relations of crime and responsibility especially suggestive.



THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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From the *Graphic* (London).

Lord Onslow,
(President Board of Agriculture.)
Mr. Walter Long,
(President Local Government Board.)
Mr. Arnold-Foster,
(Secretary for War.)
Mr. Graham Murray,
(Secretary for Scotland.)

Mr. George Wyndham,
(Chief Secretary of Ireland.)
Lord Londonderry,
(President Board of Education.)

Lord Stanley,
(Postmaster-General.)
Lord Ashbourne,
(Lord Chancellor of Ireland.)

Mr. J. A. Balfour,
(First Lord of the Treasury and Lord Privy Seal.)

Mr. Alfred Lyttelton,
(Colonial Secretary.)

Mr. Gerald Balfour,
(President Board of Trade.)

Mr. Brodrick,
(Secretary for India.)
Lord Halsbury,
(Lord Chancellor.)

Mr. Akens-Douglas,
(Home Secretary.)
Mr. Austen Chamberlain,
(Chancellor of the Exchequer.)

Lord Lansdowne,
(Foreign Secretary.)

Lord Selborne,
(First Lord of the Admiralty.)

MR. BALFOUR'S RECONSTRUCTED CABINET.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

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No. 5.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

November Topics and Events.

The opening days of the present month of November bring to a focus a number of matters of political interest and of general public concern in the United States. Election day falls on November 3. The most important pending contest to be settled on that day is the great municipal election in the city of New York, about which Mr. Ervin Wardman, editor of the *New York Press*, writes with characteristic zest and insight in another part of this magazine. Several pending State elections, furthermore, are regarded as of much moment by the people immediately concerned, while their results are also awaited by politicians everywhere as likely to have some sort of bearing upon the great Presidential contest of next year. Among these State elections the one most interesting for political reasons is that in Ohio, where not only the governorship is at stake, but also the complexion of the Legislature which is to decide whether or not Senator Hanna is to have another term at Washington. The assembling in special session on Monday, November 9, of the new Congress is another public matter of no small consequence; but meanwhile there are other things going on that are not less important, and not less anxiously regarded than the result of the elections or the assembling and the achievements of the new Congress.

The Postal Investigation.

The first of these that we care to mention is the virtual completion of the inquiry into the ramifications of fraud and corruption that has brought the Post Office Department into disgrace. No branch of the national public service comes so close to such a large number of people as the post-office system. In the very nature of its work this department of the Government calls especially for strict application of business methods and entire freedom from mere political favoritism.

The operation of the spoils system in a department which conducts the business of distributing for all the people their letters, their newspapers and periodicals, their small parcels, and their remittances of money is intolerable. It profoundly disturbs the public mind to discover that this great business is to any extent conducted loosely or irresponsibly, or that some of its most trusted and prominent officials have been active "grafters" and scoundrels. The investigation into alleged post-office scandals and abuses conducted at the President's instance, and with his constant support and backing by the Hon. J. L. Bristow, Fourth Assistant-Postmaster-General, was completed late last month. Its results were all embodied in a report wrought out with extreme care by Mr. Bristow, and duly placed in the hands of the President. Not much later than the first of November, and perhaps several days sooner, it was expected that this report in all its material parts would be given to the public by the President through the newspapers.

The Inquiry Practically Finished.

It is to be said that in their investigation of the general work of the Post Office Department, the President and the heads of the postal service are confident that they have at least explored the whole of the general area of the criminal frauds and offenses. But although they have, so to speak, outlined the main shores of this sea of corruption, they are well aware that there may yet prove to be some unexplored bays and inlets. They are also aware that they have not yet altogether sounded the depths of the sea,—that is to say, they have gone as far as they can with the investigation, and with the endeavor to procure legal evidence where they have discovered moral certainty of guilt. But they know, on the other hand, that for the following up of certain



HON. J. L. BRISTOW.
(Fourth Assistant-Postmaster-General.)

as yet obscure and doubtful clews they will have to await the result of evidence procured in the actual trial of a number of the men already under indictment.

The President's Attitude Toward the "Rascals." An intelligent public would hardly need to be told that the President of the United States cannot himself indict men, nor can he, when they are brought to trial, convict and punish them. He cannot make himself responsible for the behavior of juries, for the efficiency of prosecuting attorneys, for the rulings of judges, nor for the award of sentences. We beg to assert, however, that President Roosevelt has up to this time, without fear or favor, without party bias, and without abatement of zeal, done everything in his power to find out the truth about these cases of wrongdoing in the postal service, and he has insisted that all the available machinery of the Government should be used for stamping out and bringing to punishment all wrongdoing. In some cases, the charges have been a direct or indirect embarrassment to men of considerable influence and standing in the Republican party, and it is

not to be denied that some of these men have endeavored to bring pressure to bear upon the President to have this or that offense mitigated, condoned, or wholly covered up. Those who really understand the character and qualities of President Roosevelt will not need to be told how he has dealt with every attempt thus to bring political influence to bear upon his performance of what he conceives to be his straightforward duty as the nation's chief executive.

But there are many people in this country who are in more or less doubt about President Roosevelt's character and qualities, and it is not at all unnatural that many politicians of the Democratic party should be on the alert, hoping to use these post-office scandals in next year's campaign as furnishing good ground for an attack upon the Roosevelt administration, and for a large resort to the campaign cry, "Turn the rascals out!" It is one thing to please all shades, grades, and classes of Republican politicians with a view to heightening the ardor with which President Roosevelt's nomination next year may be made unanimous, and it is quite another thing to hold the confidence of the masses of the voters so firmly as to make reasonably certain Mr. Roosevelt's election at the polls. It is very much easier for politicians to run a nominating convention than to carry an election. There are some politicians in certain great and so-called pivotal States who have intimated that if Mr. Roosevelt is not very careful to see that these post-office prosecutions do not drag certain men



into the clutches of the law, he will be "knifed" and defeated at the polls. But, on the other hand, the best Republican newspapers, and the most disinterested and intelligent public opinion of the country, declare that if Mr. Roosevelt should show the slightest disposition to shield or spare any guilty man, he would not only imperil his own political future, but he would also do the Republican party the worst possible service. All of which seems obvious enough.

*A Sample
Roosevelt
Letter.*

Fortunately, there are some things about which President Roosevelt does not think it necessary either to parley or to be tender and considerate; and one of those things is common honesty. We will take the liberty to put on record an unpublished incident that may serve, once for all, to illustrate exactly the way Mr. Roosevelt has been dealing with all cases of a similar nature. One day, last month, a certain Congressman visited him in the interest of a well-known man prominent in State politics but not in the Government employ, whose relations to certain postal contracts were such that there seemed imminent danger of his being indicted for conspiracy or bribery, or both. Not content with a verbal explanation of his attitude toward the business, President Roosevelt followed up the interview with a letter to the Congressman. For our purposes the incident has a typical value, as showing the President's state of mind, but we are not at all concerned with the individuals. We publish the letter, therefore, with names omitted, and with no thought of using it to reflect in any manner upon the gentleman to whom it was addressed, or upon the man accused of wrongdoing. It is a letter never intended for the public, but rather to make perfectly clear in a private way to certain politicians (themselves free from all thought of complicity in the postal irregularities) that no further attempt must be made to use political arguments for the sake of affecting the President's conduct in his plain duty as the nation's chief executive officer, and therefore as the head of the business services of the Government. The letter, with names omitted, is as follows:

(Personal)

WHITE HOUSE, Washington, October —, 1908.

MY DEAR CONGRESSMAN:

The statement alleged to have been made by the inspector that I "ordered" the indictment of —, or any one else, is a lie,—just as much a lie as if it had been stated that I ordered that any one should *not* be indicted. My directions have been explicit, and are explicit now. Any one who is guilty is to be prosecuted with the utmost rigor of the law, and no one who is not guilty is to be touched. I care not a rap for the political or social influence of any human being when the

question is one of his guilt or innocence in such a matter as the corruption of the Government service.

I note what you say, that the circulation of this report about me may alienate the support of many of —'s friends from my administration. Frankly, I feel that any one who would believe such a story must be either lacking in intelligence, or else possessed of malignant credulity. If any one is to be alienated from me by the fact that I direct the prosecution of Republican or Democrat, without regard to his political or social standing, when it appears that he is guilty of gross wrongdoing,—why, all I can say is, let him be alienated.

If District-Attorney — has anything which should be known to the Attorney-General or to me as regards this suit, I should be delighted to see him. But frankly, I have not the slightest desire to see him if his visit is to be in the interest "of the welfare of the party," or of my "success." In a case like this, where the crime charged is one that strikes at the foundations of the Commonwealth, I should hold myself unfit for this office if I considered for one moment either my own welfare, or the interest of the party, or anything else except the interests of justice. Respectfully,

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

*Common Hon-
esty Not a
Party Issue.*

The Republican party, as a whole, throughout the United States, has no desire to be regarded as in any way connected with an effort to minimize wrongdoing in office, or to shield men who have betrayed their public trust. No party can regard itself as existing chiefly for the protection or benefit of officeholders who abuse their opportunities to cheat the Government and disgrace the country. The hundreds of thousands of greater or lesser "spellbinders" in next summer's campaign who, in every county and township and at every crossroads, will be haranguing for the retention of the Republican party in office will be very glad to be able to declare with perfect sincerity that when it comes to "turning rascals out" of the public service, President Roosevelt has shown himself a masterhand at the business, and has taught everybody that effective zeal for administrative honesty is not one of the questions to be fought out on party lines. The campaign of 1900 was debated on legitimate public questions. The Democrats attacked the McKinley administration chiefly on the issues growing out of the so-called imperialist policy, on the relation of Republican policies to the growth of "trusts," and on the attitude of the Republican administration toward the tariff and other great problems of a business character. The campaign of 1896 was fought chiefly upon the issue between those who believed in the advisability for this country of the single gold money standard and those who believed in American bimetallism. With President Roosevelt's undoubted genius for the practical work

of administration, and his well-earned character as the champion of an honest and efficient public service, there need be no serious attempt to bring these postal scandals into the arena of party controversy next year. Mr. Bristow has discovered that the evils he has been ferreting out go back ten years, and are not to be idly laid at the door of Mr. Roosevelt's administration, any more than they are to be mentioned as bringing reproach upon the administrations of Mr. McKinley and Mr. Cleveland. President Roosevelt is using the efficient service of a Democrat, Mr. Holmes Conrad, and of an independent Republican, Mr. Charles Bonaparte, to aid both in the investigation of charges and in the legal work of preparing cases and prosecuting offenders. The raciality to be weeded out is not partisan in its origin or nature. It merely reflects some of the bad tendencies of American public and business life. The cutting out of these canker spots from the public service is not, on the other hand, a partisan process, but it is rather an evidence of the dominating honesty of character and purpose that belongs to good men of all parties. Let neither of our chief national political organizations next year be so hypocritical as to pretend that it is superior to the other in adherence to the common precepts of public and private morality. Let both parties assume that each represents sincere differences about matters of public policy, in a nation made up for the most part of upright and self-respecting citizens.

*Honesty as a
Municipal
Issue.*

But while it must always be assumed in great national and political contests that divide the citizenship of the country into two more or less equal parts that each part is actuated by similar honesty of motive and purpose, and by like standards of morals and patriotism, it is not, on the other hand, necessary to assume that in contests of a more local character both sides may always lay equal claim to purity of purpose and true zeal for the public welfare. Thus, it would be ridiculous, in an endeavor to be impartial and fair, to treat both sides in the pending municipal campaign in New York City as equally entitled to respect on the score of good motives and high purposes. Tammany Hall, except in certain external aspects, bears little resemblance to a legitimate political party. It is an organization dominated by private and selfish ends. Its real leaders are a set of men upon whose character and methods Mr. Ervin Wardman throws light in his article, which we publish elsewhere in this number, on "The Men and the Issues of the New York Campaign." The Fusion side, supporting Mayor Low, is made up of men of all parties and affilia-



THIS DESIGN SHOWS, IN REDUCED FORM, ONE OF THE BEST OF THE SERIES OF ARTISTIC AND EFFECTIVE POSTERS USED EVERYWHERE THROUGHOUT NEW YORK CITY LAST MONTH BY THE CAMPAIGN COMMITTEE OF THE CITIZENS' UNION. IT CLEARLY STATES THE ACTUAL ISSUE INVOLVED IN THE CONTEST.

tions who desire to have the public affairs of the municipal corporation honestly and intelligently carried on for the benefit of the inhabitants of the city.

*How the Line
Is Drawn in
New York.*

As Mr. Wardman clearly shows, the contest is not between one political party and another, nor yet between the followers of one powerful and conspicuous set of men as against the followers of another set. On the contrary, it is a deadly struggle between bad government and good government, between a system based upon decency and modern social progress and a system that involves administrative corruption, the promotion of vice, and the protection of crime. The issue is simply and clearly drawn. In spite of a hundred difficulties that stood in the way of a non-partisan people's movement for good local government, the cause of a public-spirited concern for the welfare of the community was again triumphant in getting itself clearly before the voters. This point cannot be too much emphasized. The attempt to argue that the Fusion

movement was cunningly devised for the sake of delivering a naturally Democratic city into the hands of Republican bosses fell flat last month, because there was no substantial basis for such an accusation. In all the history of modern municipal government, no great city had ever seen so widespread and profound a change from inefficient and corrupt government to a régime of intelligent and honest administration as the change from the Tammany government during the four years of Van Wyck's mayoralty to the non-partisan administration of Mayor Low, as witnessed in the two years 1902 and 1903.

*Mayor Low
and His
Colleagues.*

This good government has not been in any sense a one-man affair, excepting as respects the exercise of the appointive power by Mayor Low in selecting his administrative colleagues. It is the uniform testimony of these colleagues, nearly all of whom are men of strong individuality and independence of character, that Mayor Low is a most admirable man to work with, and that he has never tried to dominate their departments in any way to the detriment of their work. The mayor's constant interest in the affairs of the city has been felt at all points; but every departmental head has been free from interference, and the mayor has always shown the most generous disposition to allow his chiefs of bureaus and departments to have the full credit for improved results. No mayor has ever better deserved the honor of a reelection. No community, on the other hand, has ever had set before it a clearer opportunity to avail itself of the benefits of skill, judgment, experience, and character at the head of its corporate activities than New York City enjoys in Mayor Low's willingness to bear the burdens of the office for another term. Thus, it is not Mayor Low's administration, but the city itself that is on trial.

*Lining Up
for the
Campaign.*

A few months ago, there seemed to be a good deal of confusion in the public mind regarding the efficiency of the Low administration, and there was an undue readiness to adopt the opinion that Low could not possibly be reelected, and that fusion,—that is to say, the coöperation of all elements opposed to Tammany Hall,—would be impossible to secure, and in any event doomed to defeat. Some of the leaders of the good government sentiment, notably the famous district attorney, Mr. Jerome, were much opposed to the selection of

Mayor Low as a candidate, believing that he lacked personal popularity, and, further, that his membership in the national Republican party would be against him. But the logic of the situation required the renomination of Mayor Low; and the progress of the campaign last month fully justified his selection. The mere question of personality, as it soon became evident, was destined to play no part at all in the campaign. It was not to Mr. Low, the man, that good citizenship rallied, but to Mr. Low, the mayor, with the record of the best administration the city ever had. It also became evident that whether or not Mr. Low was destined to be elected on Tuesday, November 3, he was not going to be de-



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HON. SETH LOW.
(Mayor of New York.)

feated by any great landslide, and that the forces of good government might at least be sure of winning in the next mayoralty campaign. The odds grew steadily in favor of Mr. Low's election as the campaign became active in the last ten days of October; and the analysis of the registration statistics was distinctly unfavorable to Tammany, as it showed that much the largest relative increase of the voting lists was in the districts which two years ago were carried by Low and the Fusion candidates. Meanwhile, the abhorrent character of the Tammany leadership became daily more evident.



T. C. T. Crain.

E. M. Grout.

Geo. B. McClellan

C. V. Fornes.

C. W. Dayton.

H. Bischoff, Jr.

HON. GEORGE B. MCCLELLAN AND THE OTHER TAMMANY CANDIDATES BEING "NOTIFIED."

*Incidents
of the
Struggle.*

In the presence of great underlying principles, and of concrete facts having to do with the improvement in all parts of the municipal service, the incidents connected with the selection of the Fusion candidates were almost forgotten. Mr. Jerome plunged so splendidly into the work of the campaign that the fact that he had strenuously opposed Mayor Low's renomination was not only forgiven, but quite forgotten. The two other leading places to be filled on the general vote are that of comptroller, this being the chief financial office, and the presidency of the Board of Aldermen. The present incumbents, Messrs. Grout and Fornes, both of them being Democrats, were, like Mayor Low, renominated by the Fusionists,—that is to say, they were placed in nomination by the Citizens' Union, and accepted by the Republicans and various other organizations. Both had made good records in office, and had opposed Tammany Hall in the most emphatic way. But as a part of an ingenious and careful policy, the Tammany leaders decided to endorse Messrs. Grout and Fornes this year, and place their names on the Tammany ticket. The acceptance by Grout and Fornes of Tammany's endorsement placed them in an ambiguous position. Tammany had meanwhile selected Mr. George B. McClellan as the

candidate for mayor. Since Grout and Fornes, who had been regarded as enthusiasts for Low and the Fusion cause, would not agree to join actively in the fight against Tammany, they were retired from the Citizens' Union and Republican tickets, and the Fusionists agreed upon new candidates. Messrs. Grout and Fornes subsequently went over completely to Tammany, and took an active part in the campaign in behalf of McClellan and against Low. Mr. Hinrichs, afterward selected by the Fusionists for comptroller, is a Democrat of the highest fitness in every respect; and Mr. McGuire, selected for president of the Board of Aldermen, has made a sterling record in the corporation counsel's office.

*The Value
of the
Movement.*

The success of the Low ticket will be the best thing that has ever happened for the municipal well-being of a great American city. But in any event, the waging of the fight will in itself have been a very great thing. While a triumph of the Fusion cause at the polls would, indeed, be a matter for congratulation throughout the country, it should be borne in mind that the greatest triumph was gained in the very fact of the persistence of the Fusion movement. New York City, with its nearly four millions of people, its variety of languages, its clashing of interests

and race prejudices, furnishes what, in the language of the day, might be called an exceedingly difficult municipal "proposition." To raise this Fusion standard in such a community as New York, to place the cause upon the basis of commonly recognized principles, and to win for it the support of so large a number of elements and groups, is a marvelous achievement in the sphere of popular self-government. Few events of more hopeful tendency have marked the beginning of this twentieth century than the persistence of the Fusion cause in 1903 after its victory in 1901. Its lessons will have their effect in every city of the United States.

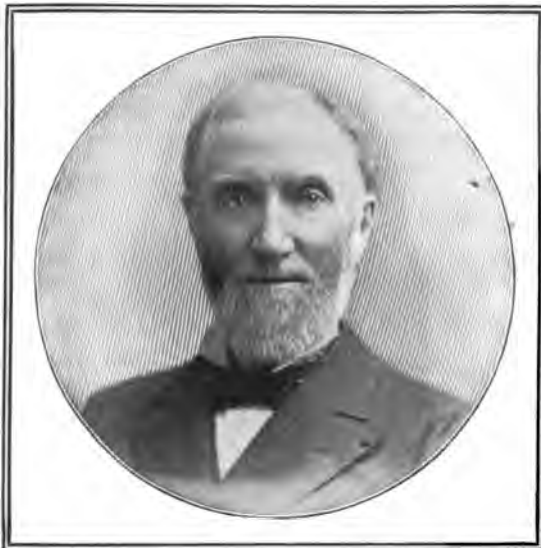
Certain Corporations in City Politics. It became painfully clear in the course of this New York campaign last month that among Tammany's strong allies and supporters were the overgrown local franchise corporations,—the street railway, lighting, and other monopoly concerns,—which hate to pay their taxes, which owe the city large sums of money, and which want all kinds of favors for their own benefit and to the public disadvantage. They have found that such favors cannot be had from an administration so firm and capable as that of Mr. Low; but they know what to hope for from a weak, flabby, and venal administration such as Tammany has always given. In times past, such corporations have victimized the municipality and people of New York City more scandalously than those of almost any other great American town. Under Mayor Low's régime, on the contrary, the public interest has been well guarded; and while no corporation has been prosecuted, none has received any franchise or grant for which it did not have to pay on fair and business-like terms. The offensive activity of these corporations in the municipal and State politics of New York will have received a merited rebuke, if the people, on November 3, again endorse Mayor Low at the polls and uphold the principle of public control.

The Corporations in National Politics. It is a curious fact for the future historian that these same New York franchise corporations, which in the pending municipal campaign have been so bitterly opposed to Mayor Low's reelection, were in their time equally antagonistic to Mr. Roosevelt as governor. They were, indeed, so anxious to prevent his having another term at Albany that they took an active and a highly influential part in creating that combination of circumstances which compelled Mr. Roosevelt against his preference to take the nomination for the Vice-Presidency. Mr. Roosevelt had always been a conservative in the best sense of the word; and he

had done nothing whatever against the street railways and other franchise corporations except to give his adherence to a bill providing that their property should be taxed in accordance with its value, just as any plain man's farm, or shop, or store, is taxed. In the Presidency, where these corporations helped to place him, Mr. Roosevelt has provoked the antagonism of another series of great corporations,—namely, the so-called "trusts." But here again, it is to be observed, the President has always been on the side of the country's legitimate business interests, and has merely undertaken impartially to enforce the laws as he finds them, while recognizing the need of additional legislation which might protect the people against the evils of the methods pursued by certain inflated and overcapitalized industrial and transportation monopolies. The President's attitude on this so-called trust question, while it has won the confidence very largely of the interior and the West, has been particularly reprobated in Wall Street. The tables were sadly turned, however, last month against the trust promoters when the methods employed in the forming and overcapitalizing of some of the trusts, and in the floating of their shares upon the market, were ruthlessly exposed in connection with the collapse of the combination of various shipyards with the Bethlehem steel plant, popularly known as the "Shipbuilding Trust," and officially known as the United States Shipbuilding Company.

"Trust Finance" as a Check to Prosperity. If this company were an exception, the situation would not be so bad. But the legal scrutiny of a number of other combinations has shown a more or less similar recklessness and lack of fine scruples in foisting upon innocent investors great floods of shares of stock. In many instances, these shares have been offered by banking houses and financial establishments whose names ought not to have been lent to any such business methods. A long list of industrial corporations included among the so-called trusts have within the past few weeks suffered an enormous shrinkage of value in the market quotation of their shares, illustrating in a manner prompt and drastic all that had ever been said by the President and the critics of trust methods about the evils of overcapitalization. One thing certainly the recent reverses in Wall Street have shown, and that is the fact that it is the stockholder and the ordinary investor who needs to be protected against the methods of the great industrial corporations, rather than the general public and the consumers of industrial commodities. As for labor, it has shown itself entirely able to protect its own in-

terests as against the trusts. The arrogance, indeed, of the leaders of trade-unionism has of late compelled ordinary employers whose businesses have not been absorbed in the trusts to unite in employers' associations in order to protect themselves against the tyrannical demands of what has now come to be called "the great labor trust." The absorption of too much of the coun-



HON. JOSEPH G. CANNON, OF ILLINOIS.

(Who will be chosen Speaker of the Fifty-eighth Congress.)

try's capital in the business of trust-forming and stock speculation on the one hand, and the disturbance caused by the immoderate demands of the labor unions on the other, have united to check somewhat the strong current of the nation's business prosperity. What at first seemed a mere stock liquidation in Wall Street, chiefly involving large operators and promoters, has unquestionably begun to affect to an appreciable extent the credit necessary for the full maintenance of the country's legitimate business. The railroads have begun to retrench somewhat in their expenditure for betterments; the demand for iron and steel has thus fallen off for railroad-building purposes, as it has also declined for other structural and general uses, and in turn the iron and steel industry itself has begun to shut down some of its mills. The great Steel Trust begins to face a reduction of net income, and its directors have cut off one-half the dividends they had been paying on the common stock. The arrogance of unionism in the building trades has scared capitalists out of their plans for new business buildings; and whereas many laborers, skilled and unskilled, would not work when they could,

they are about to find that they cannot work when they would. The reaction does not as yet threaten to be extreme, but it is already in sight. The business of the country does not, in our opinion, bid fair to become stagnant. It will, nevertheless, follow a course during the coming year that will vindicate the remarkable sagacity shown by President Roosevelt in his treatment of the trust question on the one hand, and of the labor question on the other.

The Extra Session and Its Object.

These questions touching the country's general condition are not likely to have much discussion in Congress in the short period of the extra session that begins on November 9, but they must certainly, under one pretext or another, provoke an immense amount of debating before Congress adjourns, early next summer, to allow its members to enter the national political campaign. The immediate purpose of the extra session is to secure final action upon the reciprocity treaty between the United States and Cuba. The President will not send his general message to the new Congress when it thus meets in extra session, but will send

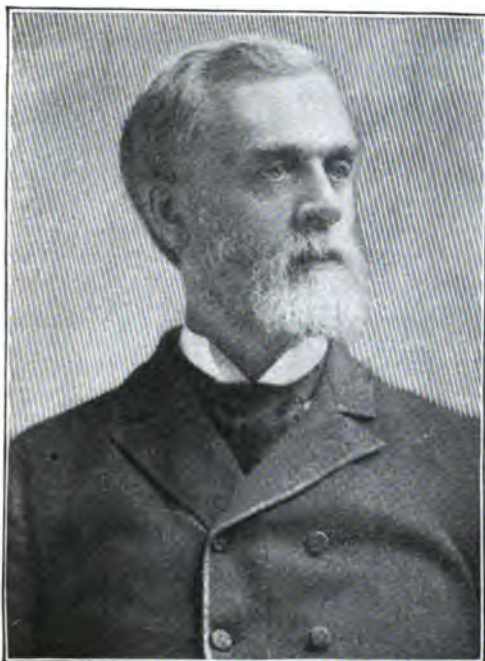
a special message devoted to the single topic of Cuban reciprocity. It will be extremely unfortunate if the treaty negotiated many months ago and, already ratified by the Senate,—which admits Cuban sugar at a reduction of 20 per cent. from the regular duties in return for the favorable admission of various products from this country into Cuba,—should be prevented from going into effect



"UNCLE JOE" CANNON IN ACTION.

From the *Journal* (New York).

by the adverse action of the House of Representatives, which has the right to pass upon the treaty in its character as a revenue measure. The new Congress will be organized with the Hon. Joseph G. Cannon, of Illinois, as Speaker. The Hon. Sereno E. Payne, of New York, will remain chairman of the Ways and Means Committee. It is understood that Mr. Hemenway, of Indiana,



HON. SERENO E. PAYNE, OF NEW YORK
(Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee.)

will succeed Mr. Cannon as chairman of the Committee on Appropriations. It is also understood that whereas Mr. Cannon and these leading chairmen, together with the great majority of the Republican members of the House, will support the President's Cuban reciprocity treaty, there will be a number of Republicans,—including Mr. Tawney, of Minnesota, and other Northwestern men,—who will continue their former opposition to any lessening of duties on Cuban sugar. They are acting in the alleged interest of the production of beet sugar in the United States. It is somewhat remarkable that these gentlemen should continue their opposition in view of the fact that the American Beet Sugar Company, which had originally organized and led this opposition, has withdrawn from the contest. The fact is that the treaty with Cuba will not affect in any way the market price of American beet sugar, nor interfere with the further growth of this new American industry.

The alignment of parties and individuals in the new Congress on this reciprocity issue will be observed with interest, as having some possible bearing upon the future treatment of tariff and reciprocity questions as bones of party contention. It will not be until the time for the regular session

of Congress, on the first Monday of December, that President Roosevelt will send in his general message containing his recommendations to Congress and his review of the work of the Government during the past year. It is understood that his message this year will be a comparatively brief and succinct document. The party in power has not yet in any manner conveyed to the public the outlines of the legislative programme which it will undertake to carry out during the coming winter. It would be a desirable thing for the leaders of the Senate and the House as early as possible to take a survey of the field, and after consultation with the President, to adopt some short and simple list of measures which might be regarded as the party programme for the session.

There is little in the way of news to add to the statements made in these pages last month about the rejection of the Panama Canal treaty by the Colombian Congress at Bogota. In view of the growing interest in the larger bearings of the whole subject, we may venture to call attention again to our somewhat extended discussion in this department of last month's REVIEW. Further information has only strengthened the argument that no further negotiation with the clique now in control of affairs at Bogota would be worth while for a responsible and dignified government like our own. The Bogota gentlemen are merely



HON. JAMES A. HEMENWAY, OF INDIANA.

making what the Tammany politicians would call a "strike" for more money. They have sent a representative to inform Dr. Herran, the Colombian minister at Washington, that they would like to get about \$25,000,000 out of this canal deal, because they have convenient present use for that amount of money. The present Colombian government is the merest travesty, and for practical purposes it has been a futility and a mistake to negotiate with it at all. This, however, is not said by way of reflection on the Department of State at Washington, which has carried courtesy to the utmost limit, and given Colombia the full benefit of every opportunity to avail itself of a most generous proposition. In view of what is not unlikely to happen in the near future, it may be well that our State Department has been so patient and so exceedingly well-mannered in its diplomatic overtures.

The United States and the Isthmus.

After all, in every real crisis for half a century the United States has been the guardian of the Isthmus of Panama as a focus of international trade. The Panama Railway has always been an American institution, and it has played a great part as a link of commerce and travel between the Atlantic and the Pacific. Old treaties, rigidly maintained and respected on our part, have made us the guarantors of order at Panama, and have alone prevented chaos. But for the United States, Colombia would have lost the Isthmus of Panama a long time ago. The present behavior of Colombia as respects the canal is in fatal contravention of the rights and interests of the people living in the Panama province, as well as in defiance of the needs and interests of the commercial world, which would like to use a ship canal across the isthmus as one of the great highways of international traffic. Colombia has no rights or concerns on the Isthmus of Panama excepting those expressed in the technical claims of sovereignty; and such claims must be made good by the show of the necessary military and administrative ability to maintain respect for them. As we remarked last month, the best thing that the people of the isthmus could possibly do would be to make a prompt and determined effort to detach themselves from Colombia; and we further remarked that "It would be absurd for the people of the United States to pretend that they did not look with favor upon so righteous and excellent a proposition."

Will Panama Declare Independence?

For some time there have been rumors of a widespread desire on the part of the Isthmian people to cut loose and form a government of their own,

largely upon the model of the Cuban republic, but having even closer relations than Cuba enjoys with the people and government of the United States. Inasmuch as the permanent control of Panama by the politicians at the remote Colombian capital has now become wholly impracticable, it may be assumed that the movement for Panama independence affords the best solution of the situation. Such a step, promptly entered upon, might bring about the much-to-be-desired stability of equilibrium at the isthmus that would alike benefit North America and South America, Europe and Asia. It would also, of course, greatly benefit Colombia, since the prompt construction of the canal would do more than anything else to develop the trade and resources of the northern part of South America, and to bring about conditions that would make for enlightenment and political progress. It would be quite too much to expect that if the merchants, planters, and business men of the Panama strip should declare their independence, adopt a suitable constitution, and appeal to the United States for friendship and protection, they would be treated with disdain. Our government will no longer follow the plan of sending warships and landing marines on the isthmus with the object, while keeping the Panama Railroad open, of holding the situation for the benefit of the Colombian government.

Attitude of the French Company.

It is not to be supposed that the gentlemen who control the new French Panama Company, and who have been thrifty enough to make a conditional sale to the United States for \$40,000,000, have been looking on at the behavior of the Bogota politicians with indifference or with mental sluggishness or indecision. The Bogota politicians have boldly demanded that these French gentlemen and their Wall Street partners should deliver to them a large share of that \$40,000,000 in consideration of their ratifying the Hay-Herran treaty. But the company and its allies have other uses for their money, and they have not believed that there is enough efficiency back of the greed of the men at Bogota either to block the completion of the Panama Canal, or to prevent so powerful and so astute an array of financial, legal, and diplomatic talent as this French corporation employs from carrying out the sale of its assets and obtaining its full \$40,000,000 from an honest and responsible purchaser like Uncle Sam. The original Panama franchise expires within a year. It is notorious that the extended franchise, which runs only six years longer, and which the new French company has undertaken to sell to the United States, was

never legally granted. A high-handed Colombian president, some years ago, dismissed an intractable congress and extended the franchise by his own personal act on payment of \$1,000,000. The Colombian Congress now proposes to declare that such extension was invalid, and to delay proceedings until next year, when the original franchise expires, and when, by the expressed terms of that franchise, the unfinished canal and its appurtenances become forfeited to the Colombian government.

Where Uncle Sam Comes In Again.

The Government at Washington has never cared very much about the details of the history of the relations between the Panama Canal Company and the Colombian government. Those relations would not bear close inspection on either side. Our government, on the advice of its own trusted experts, has simply decided that the unfinished canal and the works connected therewith, together with the Panama Railroad, are fairly worth \$40,000,000, and that the present French Panama Company is the legal possessor of those assets, and entitled to sell them and receive the money. This fact of the French company's status, as ascertained after full inquiry by Attorney-General Knox, would not be altered by the creation of a new republic of Panama. If such new republic were to come into existence, it would be capable of signing at once a canal treaty with the United States; and if such treaty were of the kind desired by our government, the new republic would naturally have not only our recognition, but also our protection and our guarantee of a peaceful career. The French company would still be entitled to its \$40,000,000. It is not very likely that Secretary Hay, having in his draft of a treaty with Colombia offered to pay \$10,000,000 for the grant of a canal strip, would reduce the amount in making a treaty with a new Panama republic. Our Secretary would not, however, permit such a new republic to assert over our canal strip any absurd pretensions of sovereignty. On the canal itself, and within the needful limits of a strip of territory on either side, the United States Government would be at liberty in its own way to administer justice, protect the public health, and do whatever it might find necessary in its capacity as a government.

The Interests that Make for Action.

The merchants and property owners at Colon, at the town of Panama, and elsewhere in the isthmus, see plainly that their property is dead and their business is ruined if President Roosevelt acts upon the alternative laid down in the Spooner act, drops

the idea of the Panama Canal, and proceeds to develop the Nicaragua route. In like manner, the French Panama Company is perfectly aware that the adoption of the Nicaragua route,—which is made mandatory upon the President in case of failure to secure a governmental concession at Panama,—will render it forever impossible to find a purchaser for its expiring franchises and for the rusting and eroding evidences of its unfinished canal work. Obviously, then, the Panama business men and the agents of the French canal company have every possible motive for acting in harmony, and for acting without a moment's unnecessary delay. How, then, about the attitude of the United States? The answer depends upon one thing,—namely, the extent to which the authorities at Washington really believe in the superiority of the Panama route over the Nicaragua route. If it were merely a difference of a few million dollars one way or the other in the estimated cost of construction, President Roosevelt would probably be very glad—after the fruitless attempts to negotiate with Colombia—to advise the prompt signing of a treaty by our State Department with Nicaragua and Costa Rica, and to go ahead (as he is fully authorized by law to do) without further action by Congress, and begin the construction of the canal along the Nicaragua route as surveyed and originally recommended by the able and expert gentlemen of the Walker commission.



MAKING A REVOLUTION OUT OF IT.

PANAMA: "This treaty the old man threw away may make a cracker that will surprise him."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

The Preference for Panama at Washington.

This is precisely what many public men and many important newspapers believe the President ought now to do. Their opinion is based upon the view that the Nicaragua route is entirely feasible from the engineering standpoint, and on some accounts decidedly more desirable than the Panama route. Among a majority of engineering experts, however, the belief prevails that the advantages are greatly in favor of Panama. To put it briefly, they feel more certain that the difficulties of the Panama route may be overcome, and a safe and workable canal provided within a reasonable term of years, than that a canal by the longer Nicaragua route could ever be realized in accordance with financial and engineering estimates. That Admiral Walker, whose views still seem to dominate expert opinion, feels this strong preference for Panama is undeniable. The French company has been ably represented at Washington, and it is accurately informed as to the pro-Panama sentiment that prevails there. The American public may be quite sure, therefore, that the agents of this company will leave nothing undone in order so to clear away existing obstacles at the earliest possible moment, as to make it still feasible for the President to take the Panama route, whereas he must otherwise fall back upon Nicaragua as the law now stands. Such are the factors in an extremely interesting situation. The American public may well await the progress of events with no small degree of curiosity and interest.

How Other Powers Would View It.

So far as the great European powers are concerned, the setting up of a Panama republic by processes and agencies in which the United States Government could not be accused of having had any direct part could not well excite criticism. And as for Washington's prompt recognition of such a republic, that would be a matter for our own decision. Obviously, the French Government would concur in a programme designed for the benefit of French citizens. The English Government has wholly acquiesced in the idea that the United States shall build and control an isthmian canal; and it desires to have the waterway open at the earliest possible date, knowing that British ships will be its largest users. South America, furthermore, will derive so much more benefit from the choice of Panama than from the Nicaragua route, that any transient expressions of displeasure, on account of the increased authority of the United States over the isthmus, would promptly disappear in the very genuine interest that would be aroused by the spectacle of Uncle Sam's big dredgers,



ADMIRAL WALKER, THE CANAL AUTHORITY.

steam shovels, and power drills making their way through earth and rock. The German naval jingoes would doubtless express some discontent, and sigh for what might have been; but German commercial interests will be heartily glad to have the assurance of a new route to the Orient.

The End of the Alaska Dispute.

If the deadlock at Bogota should, indeed, be followed by some such course of action as we have outlined as possible and inherently desirable, the long-vexed isthmian canal question would have been settled to the advantage of everybody concerned. Although to the disappointment of a group of Bogota politicians, who would have found that they had overreached themselves. This solution of one very great question of especial interest to the people of our Pacific coast would have come about at almost the same time as the settlement of another vexed question of less importance, but productive nevertheless of considerable anxiety and annoyance. This question is that of the boundary line of the southern strip of Alaska. The facts have often been stated in these pages; but now that an international tribunal has passed upon them in finality, they may be stated again

in brief outline. In 1825, Russia and England made a treaty to establish a boundary line between the coastwise possessions of Russia on the Pacific, and the interior possessions held by the Hudson Bay Company, and regarded as British in character.

The Vancouver Maps and the Treaty of 1825. In those days, although navigators and traders knew the coast line very well, there had been no careful survey or exploration of the interior. The best-known maps and charts had been those of Vancouver, which had been in common use for a quarter of a century, and which were familiar alike to the Russian and English negotiators of the treaty of 1825. These maps and charts, while fairly accurate as to their tracing of the winding shores and inlets, did not pretend to be exact in locating the mountain chains, or in other details of interior topography. But they all indicated plainly a rather regular chain of coastwise mountains situated some distance inland, leaving a strip of an average width of perhaps twenty or thirty miles along the shore,—this strip, according to all the early maps, fully including the navigable and tidal arms and inlets of the sea. The treaty of 1825 plainly said that the boundary line should follow the peaks of this range of mountains, provided the surveyors should find that it existed. But in the lack at any point of such a range, the line was to be marked at a distance of ten marine leagues (some thirty miles) from the shore.

How Disagreement Began. During the entire period that followed, until Russia sold Alaska to the United States, there had been no difference of opinion expressed in any quarter as to what the treaty meant, or as to the principles upon which the boundary should be actually fixed on the ground whenever the time came for surveying it and erecting monuments. Under these circumstances, the United States bought Russia's right and title to Alaska in 1867. English maps, official and otherwise, agreed with Russian maps and American maps in their general location of the line between Alaska and the British possessions. It was not until after American miners had discovered gold in the Yukon district, and the rush to the Klondike had set in, that the people of this country discovered an attempt on the part of the Canadians,—who had, within a comparatively recent period, been allowed by England to administer the Hudson Bay country,—to set up an entirely new theory as to the meaning of the treaty of 1825, in order to bring about the result of greatly narrowing the width of the American shore strip, and, above

all, in order to throw the line across inlets and channels in such a way as to give to the Canadians a direct access to several deep-water bays and harbors. When the Joint High Commission assembled, some years ago, to settle the fisheries dispute and some other questions at issue between Canada and the United States, it transpired that the Canadians had made up their minds to adhere to this claim to a large part of our Alaska coast with the utmost tenacity. And it soon became perfectly clear that, quite irrespective of any consistent interpretation of the original treaty, their plan was to secure, in the course of the "give-and-take" of negotiations about various subjects, a good-natured compromise from the United States which would allow them at least one harbor on the Lynn Canal, so that they could proceed directly by water from Victoria and Vancouver to Canadian territory at the point most available of all for short overland access to the Klondike region.

It turned out, however, that the American members of the Joint High Commission did not feel themselves at liberty to trade off American territory, in the process of negotiating about fishing rights, the bonding privilege, and the other matters of commercial adjustment. Meanwhile, the growth of population at Skaguay and Dyea, and the immense movement of men and supplies to the Klondike, created a situation rendered acute by the attempt of the Canadian authorities to exercise jurisdiction over soil which England had always previously treated as belonging to the United States. The immediate strain was removed by the signing of a temporary *modus vivendi* between the United States and England, providing for an arbitrary location of custom houses, and leaving the main question for further treatment. It was the general opinion in the United States that this signing of the *modus vivendi* was a great mistake. According to American opinion, the boundary line was too clearly described in the treaty to admit of any of those doubts which the *modus vivendi* seemed to cast upon it. In the Northwest, especially, the opinion prevailed that the *modus vivendi* was needless; and that the United States should, instead, have insisted without a moment's hesitation upon drawing the line in its proper place and keeping it there without any temporizing or discussion. However that may be, it is doubtless true that our willingness to sign such a *modus vivendi*, and to renew it from year to year, encouraged the Canadians to hope for ultimate success in their effort to acquire a deep-sea port on the Lynn Canal, and furthermore led the

English Government by degrees into the false position of espousing the Canadian view as to the whole contention.

*The
Recent
Tribunal.*

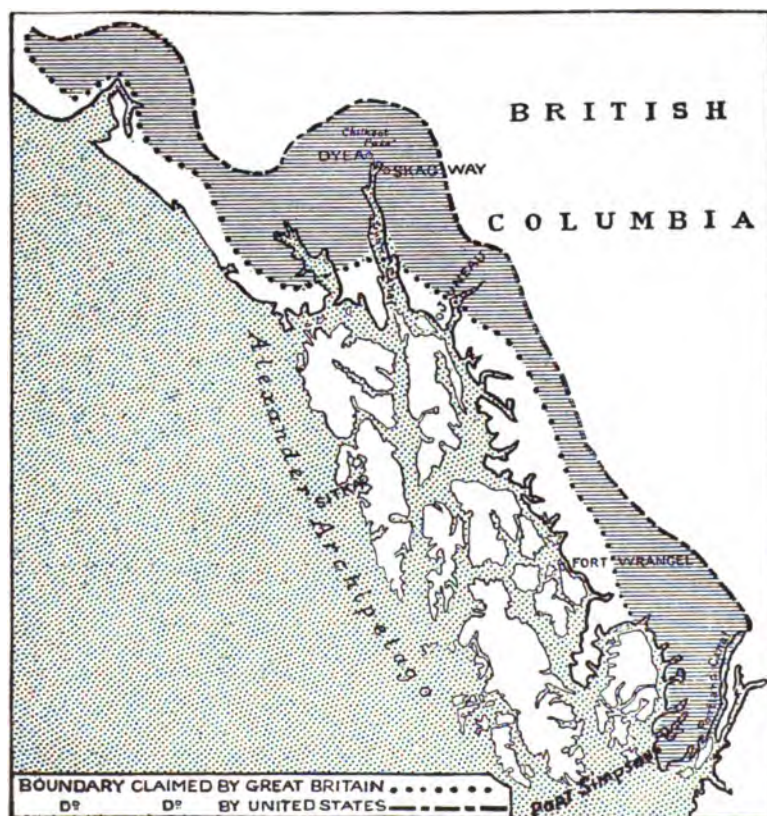
When the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, abrogating the old Bulwer-Clayton treaty arrangement about isthmian canals, was signed, there was supposed, according to rumor, to be some kind of informal understanding that the United States would in due time join England in referring the Alaska dispute to a tribunal. At the outset, the negotiators provided for a regular arbitration. This would have called in an umpire, presumably from an outside country. President Roosevelt, however, refused to submit territory long held by us in undisputed occupation to the final action of such a tribunal,—especially since no statement or argument had ever been made which cast any real cloud whatever upon our just title to the land in question. President Roosevelt was willing, however, to allow three Americans, all of whom were thoroughly conversant with the whole

matter, and fully aware of the substantial nature of the American case, to meet with three men to be appointed by the government of Great Britain, in order to give opportunity for a full discussion of the whole subject. It was not thought possible that the three Americans could recede from a position held by every intelligent person in the United States, and well known to be held by expert English international lawyers and statesmen,—like Mr. James Bryce, for example,—while also held by all Russians, Frenchmen, and other geographers and international experts who had given the matter any consideration.

*The
Award Last
Month.*

The meeting of the tribunal in London has already been described in this magazine, and it suffices to say that the award of the Alaska Boundary Tribunal was signed at noon on October 20. There was no reason to suppose that the views of the three American members of the tribunal could have undergone any change, because it was a perfectly clear case from the outset. The presiding

officer on the tribunal was the Lord Chief Justice of England; and the two other members were Canadians, committed to the new Canadian theory. It was well enough known from the start that the worst that could happen was an even division. In that case, the United States would have proceeded to make good its possession. It was also well known that if Lord Alverstone should incline to take the Canadian view, there would certainly come about this even division,—because neither of the two Canadians could have been expected under the circumstances to change his previously held attitude and go over to the American side. Obviously, then, the case was really tried before Lord Chief-Justice Alverstone, and before nobody else. The fact that the two Canadians refused to concur in the decision of the tribunal is regrettable, but otherwise of no importance. All the main contentions as presented by the counsel for the United States were sustained with-



THE ALASKA BOUNDARY QUESTION.

(The horizontal shading shows the disputed territory.)



Hon. G. Turner.
Mr. Tower, Sec'y of Commission.
Gen. J. W. Foster.

Sir Louis Jette.

Hon. Ellhu Root.
Mr. Watson.

Lord Alverstone.

Hon. H. C. Lodge.
Hon. C. Selton.

Mr. Ayesworth.
Sir R. B. Finlay.

THE ALASKA BOUNDARY COMMISSION IN SESSION AT THE FOREIGN OFFICE, LONDON.

out compromise or diminution by the decision of Lord Alverstone. As respects what was not one of the main American contentions, but a minor point, as to the ownership of an island or two in the Portland Canal, at the southern beginning of the boundary line, there was always some reasonable doubt; and the line as agreed upon will grant to Canada two islands near Port Simpson, which the United States can well spare, and may willingly enough concede.

Careful topographical surveys will be requisite to the location and marking of the exact boundary. Curiously enough, the great volume of maps presented to the tribunal as a part of the British case, and containing reproductions of a great number of earlier and later charts, might be regarded as in itself containing all the evidence necessary to the full establishment of the American claim without the necessity of any argument whatever. The Canadians have not done well to accuse Lord Alverstone of having given their case away at the instance of Messrs. Balfour and Chamberlain, in pursuance of the British

policy of friendly relations with the United States. Lord Alverstone is a great lawyer and a great jurist, and his position on this tribunal was such as to permit him to deal with the subject before him absolutely upon its merits. It remains to be said, however, that it would have been much wiser and better for the British Government,—if it were ever in any real doubt as to the justice of the position of the United States,—to have consulted Lord Alverstone and other eminent authorities for its own private guidance. It would thus have learned that the Canadian contention had no substantial grounds to rest upon, and it could have said so frankly. It did not do well to arouse false hopes in the minds of the Canadians, who had nagged it into undertaking this costly method of arriving at a foregone conclusion. The position of the United States in the whole matter forms a new precedent of courtesy beyond any experience in the history of the dealings of nations with one another. For our government has, in a word, allowed the lord chief justice of England to decide that it may and ought to keep what is its own.

The Protectionist Movement in England. The Canadian resentment toward the British Government for its method of dealing with the Alaska dispute is under all the circumstances not surprising. It has been part and parcel of that same twisted logic and twisted statecraft of the Tory government under Mr. Chamberlain's supreme direction which brought on the South African War, and which has now stirred England to a ferment by its advocacy of a protective tariff as an instrument for retaliation against Germany and the United States and a means for giving preferential favors to Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. As recorded in these pages last month, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain had made a sensational withdrawal from the Balfour cabinet, not in order to express any lack of agreement or harmony between himself and the premier, but to have the greater personal freedom to push a protectionist propaganda with which Mr. Balfour was in cordial sympathy. Mr. Balfour, knowing full well that Mr. Chamberlain was going to leave the cabinet, carefully concealed that fact from other leading members of the ministry, who, being free traders, were thoroughly opposed to the new Chamberlain programme. And so it happened that Mr. Ritchie, the chancellor of the exchequer, and several others were allowed by Mr. Balfour to resign for the sole reason that they could not consistently stay in a ministry largely dominated by the colonial secretary, never dreaming that at the very moment their resignations were accepted Mr. Chamberlain's letter of resignation was also in the prime minister's pocket.

The Reorganized Balfour Cabinet. It was on September 17 that Mr. Chamberlain resigned. Along with Mr. Ritchie, Lord George Hamilton, secretary for India, withdrew; and a few days later, Lord Balfour, of Burleigh, secretary for

Scotland, and the Hon. Arthur Elliot, financial secretary for the treasury, sent in their resignations all on the ground of opposition to the new protectionist programme. The vacancies thus created were well filled. First came the promotion of Mr. Austen Chamberlain from postmaster-general to chancellor of the exchequer. Mr. Austen Chamberlain is now about forty years old, and the eldest son of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. Although well trained by a decade of experience in Parliament and in ministerial service, the younger Chamberlain has done nothing on his own account which would have seemed to mark him for so high a dignity as chancellor of the exchequer. His appointment, therefore, must be looked upon as intended by Mr. Balfour to be the highest compliment and token of approval he could possibly pay at the moment to the young man's distinguished father. To succeed Mr. Joseph Chamberlain as secretary for the colonies, Mr. Alfred Lyttelton was appointed. Mr. Lyttelton is an eminent lawyer, forty-six years old, the most famous amateur athlete in England, and a member of a very distinguished and numerous family, of highly aristocratic connections. The place vacated by Lord George Hamilton was filled by the transfer of Mr. Brodrick from the War Department. Mr. Brodrick's attempt to reform the British army system had dismally failed, and Mr. Balfour was doubtless glad of an opportunity to try a new hand at that difficult job. The new hand is Mr. Arnold-Forster, who had unquestionably been making a success as head of the Navy Department. Mr. Arnold-Forster is a son of William E. Forster, at one time secretary for Ireland, and a grandson of the famous Doctor Arnold, of Rugby. Mr. Andrew G. Murray, the Scotch lawyer and golfer, succeeds Lord Balfour, of Burleigh, as secretary for Scotland; and young Lord Stanley, famous for his interest in racing and shooting, who had for two or three years been financial secretary to the War Office, succeeds Mr. Austen Chamberlain as postmaster-general. These men are all willing to follow the lead of Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain in reconstructing the fiscal policy and system of the United Kingdom.



MUM'S THE WORD.

Going to the cabinet council (September 14, 1903). No comment is needed. From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).

Balfour and the Duke of Devonshire.

The most eminent member of the Balfour cabinet, and its leader in the House of Lords, was the Duke of Devonshire, who held the nominal office of president of the council. Mr. Balfour had fully supposed that the Duke of Devonshire was going to stand by him and remain in the cabinet. Such was the situation when, on the first of October.



From the *Illustrated London News*.

MR. BALFOUR INAUGURATING HIS POLICY OF RETALIATION AT SHEFFIELD LAST MONTH.

the great annual gathering of the Tory party, known as the Conference of Conservative Unions, assembled at Sheffield. The occasion gave Mr. Balfour opportunity for a noteworthy speech. He skillfully avoided English prejudice against protectionism by advocating the advisability of giving the government "freedom of negotiation." He called attention to the high tariff walls which other countries had steadily been erecting against English trade, and declared that the principles of Cobdenism no longer sufficed for the situation. He did not advocate a similar policy of high protectionism for England, but believed it feasible to adopt a system which would enable Great Britain to discriminate against the products of protectionist countries. To Mr. Balfour's great surprise, this speech was immediately followed by a letter from the Duke of Devonshire repudiating the Balfour ideas and peremptorily withdrawing from the cabinet.

Chamberlain's Detailed Scheme. It was evident that the public at large attached no great degree of importance to Mr. Balfour's curiously amateurish disquisitions upon free trade and protection, and his suggestion of a tariff system for the purpose of retaliation. But Mr. Chamberlain's

long-anticipated speech of October 6, at Glasgow, was awaited with the deepest interest, because it had been promised that the real leader of the new movement would on that occasion tell concretely what he meant and wanted. This speech was a very cogent and brilliant exposition of England's commercial position as seen by Mr. Chamberlain through the new spectacles of his conversion to protectionist doctrines. His practical tariff programme was very simple. He would continue to allow wheat and flour to be imported free from the British colonies, but would put a tax of two shillings a quarter (about six cents a bushel) on its importation from the United States and other countries. He would also put a tax of about 5 per cent. on foreign meats (except bacon), leaving Australian and other British meats to be imported free. To meet the cry that he was making food dearer to the workingman, Mr. Chamberlain proposed to reduce very much the present duties on tea, sugar, cocoa, and coffee; and he calculated that as a net result the workingman's total food bill would cost him not more than at present, but less by four or five cents a week. As to manufactured goods, Mr. Chamberlain would put a moderate duty of about 10 per cent. upon the importation of foreign wares.



MR. CHAMBERLAIN INAUGURATING HIS FISCAL CAMPAIGN
AT GLASGOW LAST MONTH.

In return for the preference given to breadstuffs and meats from the colonies, Mr. Chamberlain expects that Canada and Australia will arrange their tariffs in such a way as to give great advantages in their markets to English manufactures, even to the point of ceasing henceforth to create any new industries of their own.

An Absorbing Controversy. The discussion thus precipitated has aroused Great Britain from political stagnation, and created a live issue which must result in a considerable reshaping of parties. The new questions have rent asunder the Unionist combination so long led by Lord Salisbury, and are uniting the discordant factions of Liberalism. The most notable lack, however, is a Liberal leader able to secure the confidence and allegiance of the elements which could readily unite in framing a party programme. The preference that Mr. Chamberlain's plan proposes to give to colonial products would seem hardly great enough to warrant much enthusiasm for it in Canada or Australia; and the opportunity of retaliation that it would afford is not of a kind that as yet has caused either agricultural or manufacturing industries in the United States any anxiety. In a House of Commons of more than six hundred members vacancies are frequently occurring, through the death or resigna-

tions of members, necessitating special elections,—or, as they are called in England, by-elections,—to fill vacant seats. Such by-elections, within the past few weeks, have on the average shown a strong reaction against the Balfour government and a widespread opposition to the new protectionist views. It seems to be the prevailing opinion that a general Parliamentary election will not be held until next spring.

The Macedonian Situation. It is undoubtedly true that the terrible reports from Macedonia have begun to arouse the British conscience in a manner that faintly recalls the excitement over Turkish atrocities in Bulgaria in 1876. But it is the unofficial British conscience that is aroused; and there is no possible chance that the Balfour government will say or do anything toward relieving a hideous situation for which England is even more responsible than Turkey. At a cost of 100,000 lives and hundreds of millions of dollars, Russia had liberated all the western provinces from Turkish rule. Whereupon England demanded and secured a Congress of the Powers, and, assisted by Germany, succeeded in thrusting back under



A MACEDONIAN DEMONSTRATION IN SOFIA.

(A procession of 15,000 Macedonian refugees parading the principal streets of the capital of Bulgaria, bearing an effigy of their dead leaders.)

Turkish rule these very Christian districts in Macedonia where now the Turks are pursuing a career of massacre and devastation far in excess of anything they perpetrated in Bulgaria proper in 1876. England's price for her shameful work was the island of Cyprus, obtained from Turkey by a secret bargain. Mr. Balfour was a very young man at that time, but he was present at the Congress of Berlin with his uncle, Lord Salisbury, who was Disraeli's chief colleague and confederate in the infamous business. The Czar of Russia, with his foreign minister, visited Vienna in September, and there the Austrian and Russian governments reaffirmed the agreement under which they were previously pledged to act in harmony and co-operation in their dealings with the problem of Turkey's position in Europe. They have again sent a joint demand to the Turkish Government that it shall give effect to reforms in Macedonia; and they have warned the government of Bulgaria that it must not interfere. Many thousands of refugees of Bulgarian blood and speech have meanwhile crossed the boundary line from the Turkish provinces into Bulgaria proper; and in the city of Sofia, the capital of Bulgaria, there are now some fifteen or twenty thousand of these unhappy fugitives,—thousands of whose relatives and friends have been massacred by the Turkish soldiers. It is not strange that the people of Bulgaria should have become aroused to an almost uncontrollable pitch of indignation. Prince Ferdinand and the Bulgarian Government, however, are well aware that to enter upon war with Turkey at this time would mean almost certain defeat, with other consequences that might be profoundly disastrous to the principality. If the English Government were in the hands of a Gladstone, it might be possible to call a congress of the powers which should deal effectively with the Macedonian question; but at present there is no prospect of any radical or satisfactory solution.

*Russia
Stays in
Manchuria.*

Those who are aware of the facts concerning Russia's position in Manchuria were not much surprised by the announcement last month that the beginnings of evacuation, which had been solemnly promised for October 8, had been postponed indefinitely. We have never for a moment believed that the Russians would evacuate Manchuria, any more than that the English would evacuate Egypt. Russia's excuse is that her interests are so large that she could not withdraw her troops and turn over the Manchurian administration to China without having received certain guarantees not yet granted at Peking.

The commercial powers which had most concerned themselves about Manchuria are making no protests, and are contenting themselves with statements to the effect that they will expect Russia to keep open for them the same opportunities of trade that they formerly enjoyed under China's control. On the other side, it is to be said that, from the commercial standpoint, Russia is making a wholly new Manchuria,—with railroads, new cities, and great areas of Russian-tilled wheat-fields. It is quite too much to suppose that all the conditions of trade with this new Russian Manchuria can be subjected indefinitely to the terms of agreements with China relating to a very different sort of Manchuria that is already almost entirely a thing of the past. We must expect to see Manchuria in due time made an integral part of the Russian Empire; and when that takes place, it will very soon come under the same tariff laws as the rest of the Czar's dominions.

*Japan
and Russia.*

The declaration that the Russians are going to stay in Manchuria would have attracted greater attention than it did last month but for the fact that the Korean situation was one of still more critical interest. Russian activity in Korea had reached such a pass as to lead the Japanese to the very verge of declaring war. The one supreme object of Japanese policy is to prevent the Russians from getting the upper hand in Korea. It is the opinion of the statesmen and the army and navy leaders of Japan that they are in better position to fight Russia just now than they are likely to be at any time in the future. Russia, however, has no intention whatever of getting into a bloody and expensive war with the Japanese, nor, on the other hand, do Japan's British allies wish to run the risk of being dragged into a general conflict. The best advice, therefore, indicated late last month that the conflict which for a few days seemed inevitable is likely to be deferred for the present. To have accomplished her purposes in Manchuria is quite enough gain for Russia to make this year; and she can well afford to leave Korea to the future. Meanwhile, Russian diplomacy seems to be potent at Peking. The internal troubles of Russia are far more serious than any or all of her external difficulties. There is a new finance minister as successor to M. de Witte, who will find his task a burdensome one. The minister of the interior, M. de Plehve, seems now to have gained the most influential position in the empire. We publish elsewhere in this number a remarkable letter that he sent to Mr. Stead in justification of his policy in Finland.



PROFESSOR AND MADAME PIERRE CURIE, THE DISCOVERERS OF RADIUM, IN THEIR GARDEN AT PARIS.

(See article on "Radium," by Mr. George F. Kunz, on page 585.)

Notes of Progress. Amidst all the strenuosity of international disputes, war rumors, and political struggles, the nations make steady progress in the pursuits of peace and civilization. England and France have signed a brief treaty looking toward a limited resort to arbitration. A peace conference has been held in Vienna. Many current illustrations might be given of progress in science, in education, and in other beneficent fields of endeavor. A remarkable instance of scientific advance is the discovery of the wonderful new element called "radium,"—an important and learned account of which we publish this month from the pen of a distinguished American scientist, Mr. George

F. Kunz. The English educators under Mr. Mosely's direction are receiving every possible courtesy in their tour of the United States. The French Government is trying hard to find school accommodations for the children displaced by the closing of many of the schools of the religious orders. Sir Norman Lockyer, the astronomer, in a brilliant address as president of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, declared that the British Government ought to invest at once one hundred and twenty million dollars in the business of education, in order to bring English efficiency up to the standards of the United States and Germany.



RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From September 21 to October 20, 1903.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

September 21.—Justice Lore, of Delaware, delivers a charge to the grand jury calling for the punishment of the lynchers of the negro, George White.

September 23.—Republican and Citizens' Union conventions in New York City renominate Mayor Low.

September 26.—Iowa Republicans open the campaign in that State; Governor Cummins expresses views on the tariff question in accord with those of President Roosevelt.

September 28.—President Roosevelt returns to Washington.

September 29.—Colorado Republicans endorse the administration of President Roosevelt.

October 1.—Rhode Island Democrats renominate Governor Garvin....Massachusetts Democrats nominate W. A. Gaston for governor....New York City Democrats nominate George B. McClellan for mayor, and renominate Comptroller Grout and President Fornes of the Board of Aldermen (see page 545).

October 2.—Massachusetts Republicans renominate Governor Bates and the other State officers, and pledge support to President Roosevelt for the campaign of 1904.

October 5.—The grand jury at Washington, D. C., returns fifteen indictments in the postal fraud cases President Roosevelt appoints John P. Nields, an anti-Adicks Republican, district attorney for Delaware.

October 6.—Rhode Island Republicans nominate Col. Samuel P. Colt for governor, and endorse the administration of President Roosevelt.

October 7.—Republican and Citizens' Union conventions in New York City nominate F. W. Hinrichs for comptroller and E. J. McGuire for president of the Board of Aldermen (see page 545).

October 15.—In a test case, the North Carolina Supreme Court decides that a United States district judge must pay the income tax on his salary.

October 20.—Presi-

dent Roosevelt issues a proclamation convening the Fifty-eighth Congress in extra session on November 2, to consider the commercial treaty with Cuba.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

September 23.—The Austrian Reichsrath reconvenes.

September 24.—Sir Edmund Barton, having resigned the premiership of the Australian Commonwealth, he is succeeded by Alfred Deakin, who reconstructs the ministry....The Servian cabinet resigns.

September 28.—M. Kossuth, the leader of the Hungarian independence party, issues a manifesto.

September 29.—Alderman Sir T. J. Ritchie is elected lord mayor of London for the ensuing year....As the result of an adverse vote in the Hungarian Diet, Count Hedervary submits his resignation as premier.

September 30.—The Canadian House of Commons passes the transcontinental bill.

October 2.—Lord Milner declines the British colonial secretaryship.

October 4.—A new Servian cabinet is formed by General Gruitch, with Colonel Andrejevitch as minister of war.

October 5.—The following appointments to fill vacancies in the British cabinet and ministry are announced: The Right Hon. W. St. John Brodrick, secretary of state



THE RECENT MILITARY MANEUVERS IN ENGLAND—SWIMMING HORSES ACROSS A RIVER.



THE STATUE OF GENERAL SHERMAN, UNVEILED AT WASHINGTON ON OCTOBER 15.

for war, succeeds Lord George Hamilton as secretary of state for India; the Right Hon. J. Austen Chamberlain, postmaster-general, succeeds the Right Hon. C. T. Ritchie as chancellor of the exchequer; the Hon. Alfred Lyttelton, recorder of Oxford, succeeds the Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain as secretary of state for the colonies; H. O. Arnold-Forster, parliamentary secretary to the admiralty, succeeds Mr. Brodrick as secretary for war; the Right Hon. Andrew Graham Murray, lord advocate of Scotland, succeeds Lord Balfour of Burleigh as secretary for Scotland; Lord Stanley, financial secretary to the War Office, succeeds Austen Chamberlain as postmaster-general. The resignation of the Duke of Devonshire from the cabinet is announced.

October 7.—The Servian National Assembly is opened by King Peter.

October 20. — The Italian cabinet resigns.... The French Parliament reassembles.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

September 21.—The powers formally present their claims against Venezuela.

September 22.—The time limit for the exchange of ratifications of the Panama Canal treaty between the United States and Colombia expires.... It is announced that the Porte has rejected the proposal of an international commission to deal with Macedonian affairs.

September 23.—Mr. D. F. Watson opens the argument for the United States in the Alaskan boundary arbitration.

September 25.—The Sultan names Hilmi Pacha as president of the commission to carry out reforms in Macedonia.

October 2.—The summing up for the United States before the Alaskan Boundary Tribunal is begun by Mr. J. M. Dickinson.

October 3.—It is announced that the Czar of Russia and Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria have agreed on an amplified reform programme to put in operation in Macedonia.

October 4.—Russia and Austria send an identical note to Turkey promising speedy aid to the victims of cruelty in Macedonia.

October 5.—It is announced that President Castro, of Venezuela, has authorized the forcible collection from foreigners of disputed taxes and duties.... The Hon. Wayne MacVeagh concludes his plea for Venezuela before the tribunal at the Hague.

October 6.—Mexican capitalists are awarded claims against Venezuela to the amount of \$510,000.... President Roosevelt appoints three American members of an international commission to consider water routes from the Great Lakes to the Atlantic.

October 7.—Japan's refusal of Russia's proposals for the partition of Korea is announced.

October 8. — The commercial treaty between the United States and China is signed at Shanghai.... Mr. Dickinson, of counsel for the United States, closes his argument before the Alaskan Boundary Tribunal.

October 12.—It is announced at the British foreign office that the powers have decided to uphold treaty rights in Manchuria.

October 14.—The Anglo-French arbitration treaty is



SIR NORMAN LOCKYER.

(Whose address at the recent meeting of the British Association, on the subject of England's need of universities, has aroused great interest. See page 632.)

signed at London....The committee of the Colombian Senate decides that the President has power to negotiate a canal treaty without the Senate's authorization.

October 20.—The award of the Alaskan Boundary Tribunal in London sustains all the main contentions of the United States, and gives to Canada Pearse Island and a few other small islands in the Portland Canal.



THE DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE.

(Whose resignation from the British ministry last month threatened the disruption of the Unionist party.)

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

September 28.—Discharged employees of the Consolidated Lake Superior Company attack the officers of the company at the Canadian "Soo;" they are driven off by militia, but the rioting spreads through the town; a receiver is appointed for the company and an injunction issued restraining a forced sale.

September 29.—The University of Porto Rico is opened at San Juan....Nine men are arrested at the Canadian "Soo" charged with inciting the riots of the Consolidated Lake Superior Company's employees.

September 30.—The International Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers, in session at Kansas City votes moral and financial support to Sam Parks' Union in New York City, to which it makes a loan of \$1,000....The Rev. Dr. David H. Greer is elected Protestant Episcopal bishop coadjutor of the diocese of New York.

October 6.—A service in memory of Sir Michael Herbert, late British ambassador to the United States, is held in Washington, President Roosevelt being present.

October 7.—A grand jury in Tennessee indicts twenty-

two members of a mob for murder in the second degree for the lynching of a negro.

October 9.—The Honorable Artillery Company of London visits Washington, accompanied by the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company of Boston.

October 6.—An electriccar on the Marienfelder-Zossen experimental line in Germany reaches a speed of 125 4-5 miles per hour.

October 15.—President Roosevelt makes the principal address at the unveiling in Washington of an equestrian statue of General Sherman....Ex-Lieut.-Gov. James H. Tillman, of South Carolina, is acquitted of the charge of the murder of N. G. Gonzales on January 15, 1903....Regular troops and militia go into camp on the Fort Riley Reservation for a series of maneuvers (see page 564).

October 16.—John Alexander Dowie, "Elijah the Restorer," arrives in New York City, with nearly four thousand followers, and begins an evangelistic campaign.

October 18.—Monsignor Merry del Val is appointed Papal secretary of state....Statues of the Emperor and Empress Frederick are unveiled at Berlin.

October 19.—M. Santos Dumont's new dirigible balloon is satisfactorily tested near Paris....The Maryland Trust Company and the Union Trust Company, both of Baltimore, go into the hands of receivers...."Cresceus"



THE LATE SIR MICHAEL HERBERT.

(British ambassador to the United States.)

trots a mile in 1:59 $\frac{3}{4}$ at Wichita, Kan., thus lowering the world's record.

OBITUARY.

September 21.—Frederick S. Gibbs, a well-known Republican politician of New York City, 58....Col. Charles Victor Deland, a veteran newspaper man of Michigan, 75.

September 22.—Louis Arsène Delaunay, the French actor, 77....Col. J. M. Underwood, one of the builders of the Northern Pacific Railroad, 61....Alson Smith Sherman, one of the early settlers of Chicago, 92.

September 23.—Ex-United States Senator Charles B. Farwell, of Illinois, 80.



THE LATE HENRY D. LLOYD, OF CHICAGO.

September 25.—Justice William Gillespie Wyley, of the Louisiana Supreme Court, 72.

September 26.—William L. Jenkins, formerly president of the Bank of America, New York City, 97.

September 28.—John H. Dolph, the American painter, 60....Ex-Judge Herbert J. Davis, of Chicago, 45.... Henry Demarest Lloyd, the well-known writer on sociological subjects, 56....Henry J. Willing, a pioneer business man of Chicago, 67.

September 29.—Marie Geistinger, the German actress and singer, 67....Prof. Benjamin G. Brown, of Tufts College, Mass., 66....John Baynes, inventor of photographic appliances, 61.

September 30.—Sir Michael Henry Herbert, British ambassador to the United States, 46.

October 1.—Henry S. Washburn, the Massachusetts iron manufacturer, author of "The Vacant Chair," 90.

October 3.—Chief Justice J. Brewster McCollum, of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court, 71....Gen. Orland Smith, ex-vice-president of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, 78.

October 4.—Gen. William P. Carlin, U.S.A., retired, 75....Col. Leonidas William S. Pratt, one of the surviving members of the South Carolina Secession Convention, 84.

October 5.—Gen. Bradley T. Johnson, a Confederate veteran, 74....Rev. Edward A. Rand, the story writer, 66....Simon Yandes, the Indiana philanthropist, 86.

October 6.—Wilson S. Bissell, Postmaster-General under President Cleveland, 56.

October 7.—Dr. John B. Johnson, for over sixty years a leading physician of St. Louis, 86.

October 8.—Gen. John A. Leggett, territorial governor of Montana under President Grant, 71.

October 11.—Col. Richard Henry Savage, soldier, author, traveler, and scientist, 57.

October 12.—Justice William H. Adams, of the New York Supreme Court, appellate division, 62.

October 13.—Archbishop John Joseph Kain, of St. Louis, 62....Dr. Marcus M. Jastrow, a prominent Hebrew scholar of Philadelphia, 74.

October 14.—Henry C. Jarrett, the well-known theatrical manager, 75....Ex-Gov. Henry T. Mitchell, of Florida, 69...."Mother" Eliza D. Stewart, the famous temperance crusader.

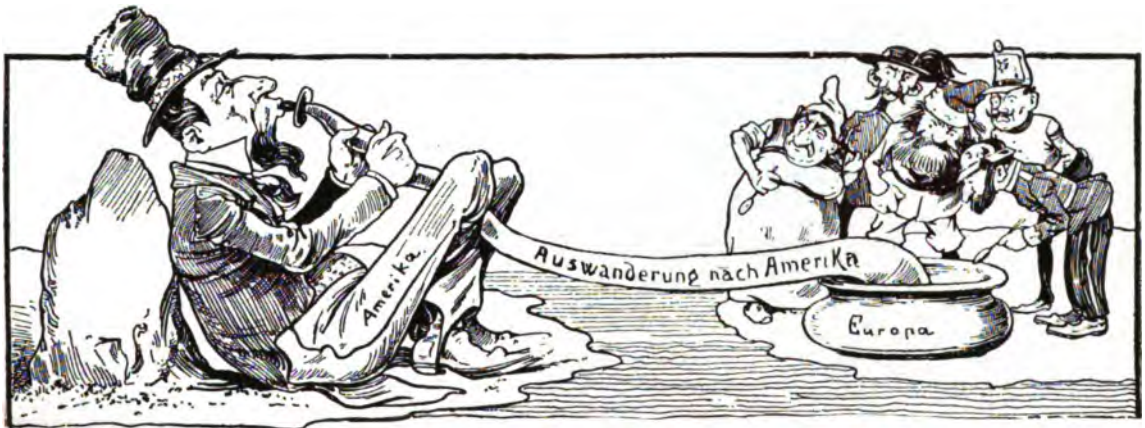
October 16.—Col. Sir William Colville, King Edward's master of ceremonies, 76....Prof. Charles E. Greene, dean of the engineering department of the University of Michigan, 60....A. C. Fulton, an Iowa pioneer, 92.



BUST OF WASHINGTON, BY D'ANGERS.

(This bust has been presented to the United States Government by certain French families, whose ancestors fought under Washington in the American Revolution.)

CARTOONS, CHIEFLY EUROPEAN, ON CURRENT TOPICS.



AMERICA DRAINING THE STRENGTH OF EUROPE.

CHORUS OF POWERS: "The rascal is drinking up all our soup."—From *Wahre Jacob* (Berlin).



THE AMERICAN MILLIONAIRE IN BERLIN.

AMERICAN (to the Emperor's son): "Well, well, so you are the young gentleman who will be king one day."
From *Simplicissimus* (Berlin).



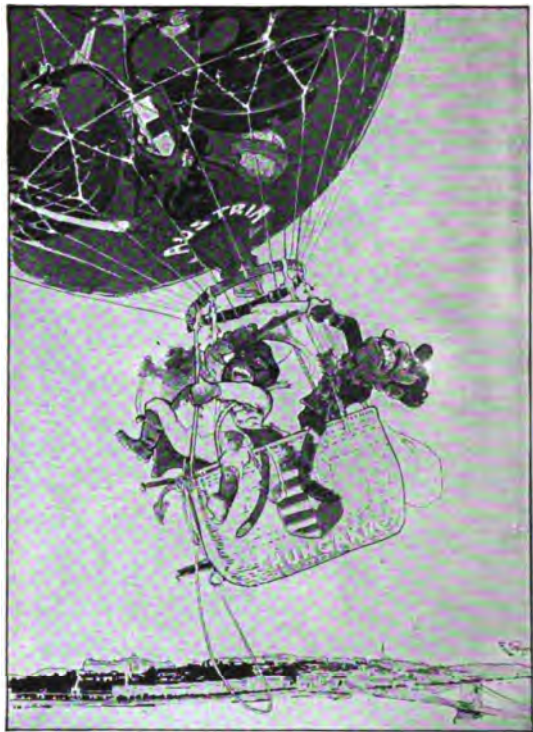
A GERMAN VIEW OF THE WORLD'S FAIR OF 1904.

The worship of the Golden Dollar in St. Louis.
From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).



THE EMPEROR'S ISLAND—A CASTLE IN THE AIR OF THE
"VORWÄRTS."—From *Ulk* (Berlin).

(It was absurdly rumored that the German Kaiser was fortifying an island as a personal refuge from the Socialists.)



THE SOLUTION OF THE HUNGARIAN QUESTION,—“FREE
FROM AUSTRIA.”—From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).

(The Hungarians are represented as so eager to be free as to be committing an act of virtual suicide.)



IN THE SERVIAN ZOÖLOGICAL GARDENS: KING PETER AND
HIS MILITARY ADVISERS.

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



IN DARKEST GERMANY.

Double-faced Justice—or one law for the rich and another for the poor.—From *Simplexissimus* (Berlin).



THE ALLEGED SUPPLYING OF ENGLISH MUNITIONS OF WAR
TO THE MULLAH.—AN ITALIAN VIEW.

From *Fischetto* (Turin).



KING LEOPOLD GOES TO FRANCE TO DEFEND HIMSELF.

LEOPOLD (to Loubet): "What do you think? John Bull swears that I have killed and destroyed much more than he . . ."

LOUBET: "No, your Majesty; that is impossible."

From *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).



MACEDONIA COMES BRUSQUELY AND DISTURBS THE PEACE
CONFERENCE AT VIENNA.—From *Pasquino* (Turin).



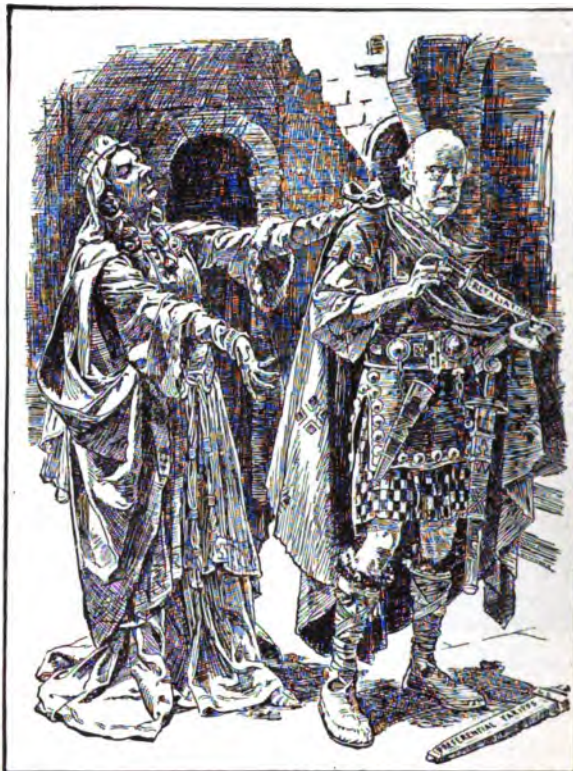
THE MACEDONIAN TROUBLE.

FRANZ JOSEPH (to the Czar): "What a good thing it is, O head of the Greek Church, that our Christianity does not demand of us the ending of that bloodshed . . ."

CZAR (to Franz Joseph): "Indeed it is, your most Christ-like Majesty!"—From *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).



A DUTCH VIEW OF MR. CHAMBERLAIN'S RESIGNATION.
From *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).



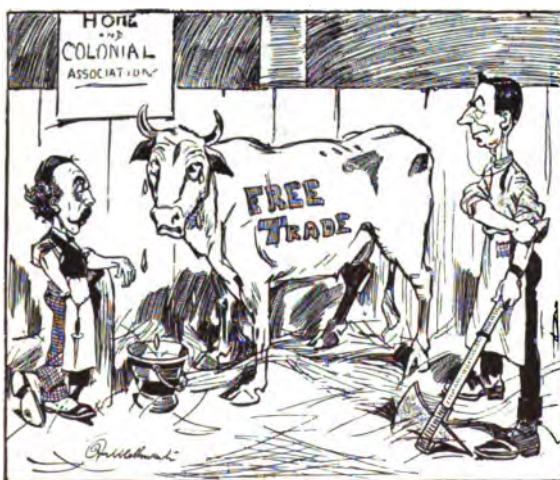
THE PREDOMINANT PARTNER.

Lady Macbeth—Mr. Chamberlain. *Macbeth*—Mr. Balfour.

LADY MACBETH (about to retire): "Give me the dagger lying disengaged. I'll do it on my own."

Shakespeare (Birmingham edition), *Macbeth*, Act II., Scene 2.

From *Punch* (London).



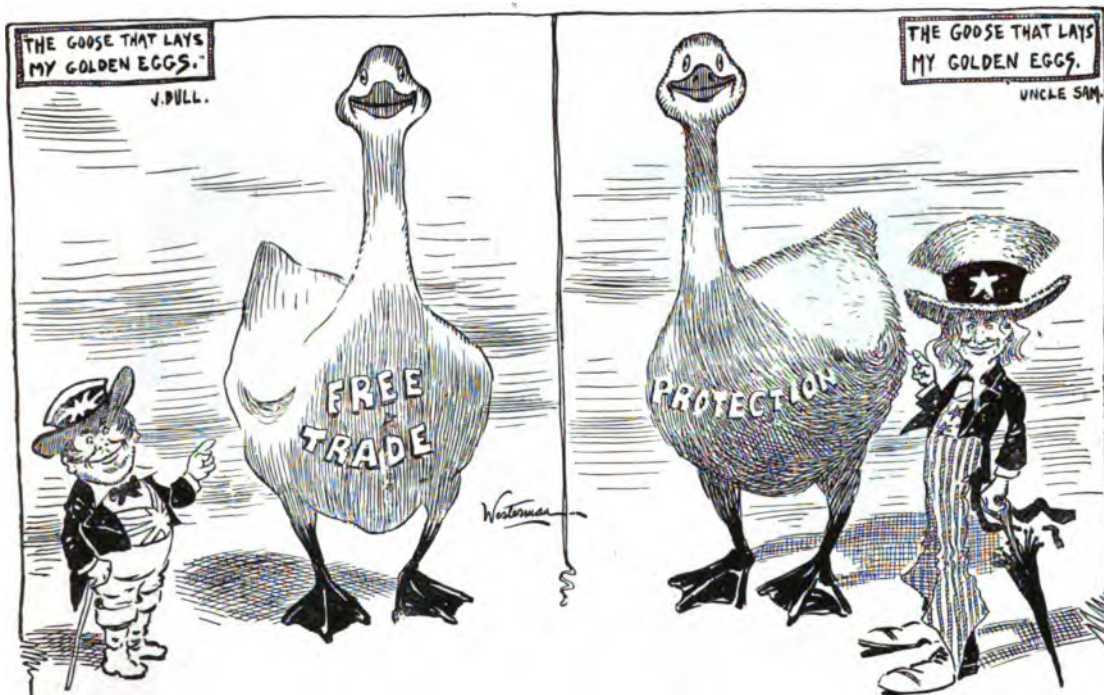
BALFY: "I say, Joel it's getting a fearful bore, knocking these kind of things on the head, dontcherknow."

From *Judy* (London).



ENGLAND'S "SPLENDID ISOLATION," UNDER CHAMBERLAIN'S PROTECTIONIST SCHEME.

From *Le Grelot* (Paris).



TWO GEESE.—From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus).



THE NEW TUG OF WAR.

JOHN BULL: "Yes; this is better than a boat race, Brother Jonathan."

UNCLE SAM: "It would be mighty unneighborly if we two had no point of difference, wouldn't it, John?"

From the Journal (Minneapolis).

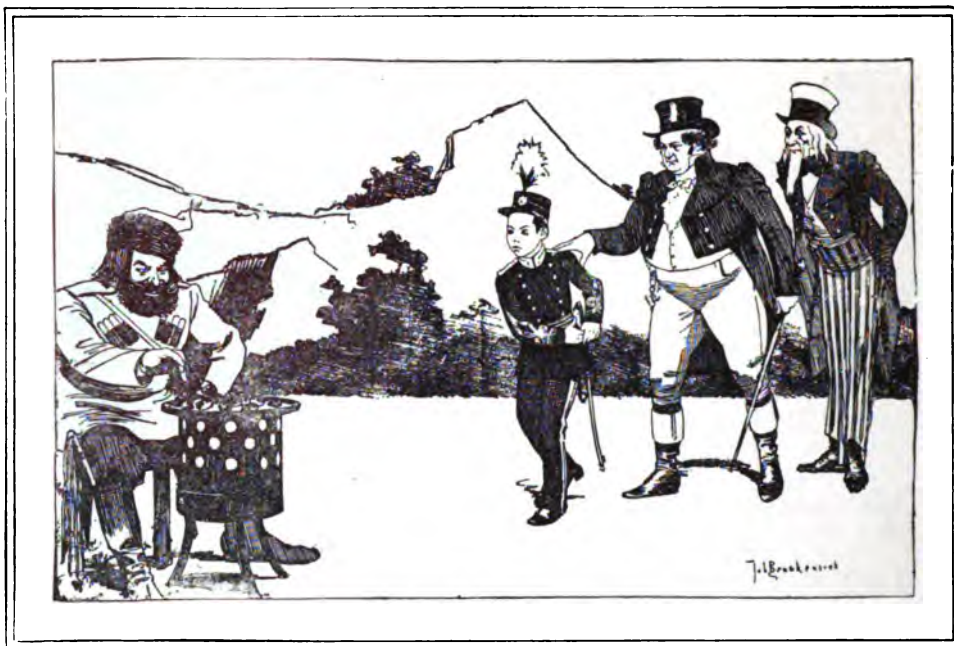


QUESTIONS REGARDING ALASKA.

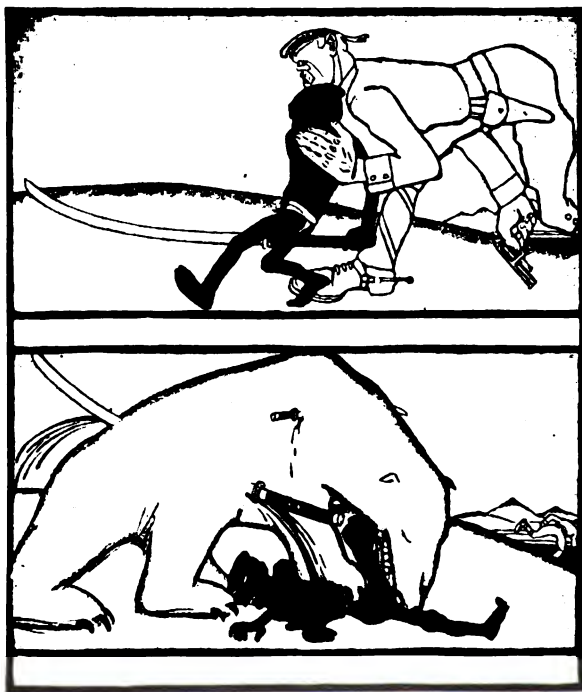
CANADIAN (reads): "If our commissioners come back without the full extent of our claims, they need not show their faces in our country again."

JONATHAN (sharply): "Which of your rags prints that, Davie Macdonald?" (Sees title and whistles.) "Darned if it ain't one of our New Yorkers."

From Britannia (London).



JOHN BULL (to Japan): "You just pull the chestnuts out of the fire for us, else the Cossack will eat them all up."
From *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).



FAITHFUL ALLIES.

The English-Japanese Alliance put to the test for the first time in Manchuria.

From *Stimpfclausen* (Berlin).



BRAIN POWER.

JOHN BULL: "No wonder the bloomin' Americans get ahead; look at the power plant."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

MEN AND ISSUES OF THE NEW YORK CITY CAMPAIGN.

BY ERVIN WARDMAN.

(Editor of the *New York Press*.)

SIX months after Mayor Low began his non-partisan administration of New York City, in January, 1902, its political foes, with jubilant jeers, were proclaiming it a Fusion become Confusion; and tens of thousands of voters who had helped to put Mr. Low at the head of their

municipal affairs were confessing, sorrowfully or irritably, the aptness of the vulgar pun. Six weeks before this election of 1903, that recently derided Fusion was showing a firm front and a power of cohesion not more the admiration of its friends than the astonishment of its enemies.

If Mayor Low had not aroused enthusiasm for his personality and his peculiar ego, he had, by the time this campaign opened, so ordered his official household and so performed the works of Fusion that there was established a compelling cause, failing a great leader, for all men of civic ideals to follow.

FUSION'S MOTLEY HOST.

Perhaps no greater tribute could be paid to Mr. Low's singleness of purpose as mayor, despite what large numbers of those who will vote again for him are convinced was a defect of manner and method, than the remarkable fact that so many different Fusion elements, so irreconcilable on nearly all other questions, are rendering to the mayor's administration—his handiwork—the honor which they decline to render to him the man. For Jerome, Roundhead intolerant, with the ardor and gallantry of the Cavalier, has denounced with bitter scorn the Republican party, the Citizens' Union, and every other Fusion factor for permitting the renomination of Mr. Low, has heaped even violent abuse upon him, has scoffed at the very idea



Copyright, 1901, by Marceau.

HON. SETH LOW.

(The present "reform" mayor of Greater New York, and "Fusion" candidate for reelection.)

that men could be asked to vote for him. Yet this Prince Rupert of 1901, the leader of those New York Democrats who are self-styled decent, has taken the field for him, and no man's voice is clearer in the fight, and no sword swings more valorously. Herman Ridder, who from the day that Mr. Low began to enforce the excise law fought him with German truculence to the very hour of his renomination, leads out his famous "Ridderbund," the German-American Reform Association, which its allies call 40,000 strong and its opponents 40, but which, when all is said and done, has always been a power in local elections, and nearly, if not quite, always on the "Winning Side." Mr. Thomas C. Platt, always till now a champion of reform when out, its scoffer when in, a proverbial despiser of Mr. Low in all political weather, marches at the front of the regular Republican organization, of which he is the titular head, with banners flying for Low; and cheek by jowl with his ranks are the anti-Platt Republicans, even more numerous probably in voting strength, though not in office-holding, than the regulars. From Brooklyn come partisans and non-partisans representing similar groups of citizenship. Tim Woodruff,—an enormous success in commercial life, an administrative genius in practical affairs, shrewd to apply business methods to politics,—heading the Republicans, though no lover of Low. Kings County Democrats are running "wild-cat." In the same ranks are the Cleveland Democrats of Manhattan to a man. Even portions of the Greater New York Democracy, dubbed mercenaries by both great political parties, send battalions to the host, though its leaders themselves—chiefly John C. Sheehan, a professional public contractor, and "Jake" Cantor, adroit in turning politics to personal advantage—have once more crossed over, this time to Tammany.

Lastly, there is the force which, confessedly, in municipal affairs, knows no party nor faction, the Citizens' Union, which, if it is not the creation, is at least the charge, of Mr. R. Fulton Cutting, and to which—every man, partisan or non-partisan, must confess—is due the credit for the fact not only that this Fusion movement came into existence and won its first success, but remains in existence, and is not to-day,—as nine men out of ten, perhaps, expected,—an unlamented corpse.

Here is a host so motley that were it ranked in any other cause than that of municipal decency must seem a collection grotesquely absurd,—the careful and (so far as lies in his power to remain so) inconspicuous Cutting, of unselfish purpose and stainless ambition, a man of good life,



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HON. GEORGE B. McCLELLAN.

(Democratic nominee for mayor.)

seeking to have good work the public hallmark of the city in which he lives, and in which he has become so influential a part. He has reproached Jerome, the fiery and dauntless, and Jerome has taunted him with a scorching tongue. Each has mistrusted the professional wiles of Platt, the politician, and he in turn has assailed them with a venom singularly his in political attack. The German type, represented by Ridder with his *Staats Zeitung* newspaper, is irreconcilably hostile to Platt, sympathetic with Jerome because of his excise views, unappreciative of Cutting, particularly suspicious of the anti-Platt Republicans (the Roosevelt and Odell members), and filled with wrath toward Mayor Low himself. Yet are they altogether in support, and beyond doubt, for the most part, earnestly in support of that man for mayor.—the man for whom no one of them has a trace of friendly feeling, with the single exception of Mr. Cutting, and with whom no one of them, save again Mr. Cutting, is more than on bare speaking terms.

A CAUSE THAT LEADS ITSELF.

Now, it is the extraordinary anomaly of this situation, as it is its extraordinary strength, that

there is not a foremost leader of the Fusion forces. With such normally opposed influences, opposed diametrically, and with such naturally bitter enmities aiming for the same purpose, there could be no possibility of a leader. There is no William of Orange holding by sheer will-



Photo by Dana, Brooklyn, N. Y.

MR. FREDERICK W. HINRICHS, OF BROOKLYN.
(Fusion nominee for comptroller.)

power a wavering Protestant federation to half-hearted zeal in a cause made strong by him. There is, on the contrary, a cause holding to itself by its own great strength a variety of elements having naturally no cohesive qualities, having every possible tendency, otherwise exerted, to fly in all directions.

And this is the work of Mayor Low in having builded an administration which from promise came to fulfillment in the founding of a cause, proved now to be a theoretic ideal and a practical possibility both,—simply the work of an honest and an earnest man, whatever his failings, tilling fields before given over to corruption. Mr. Low is not the leader. The majority of the captains who are fighting with him for the Fusion ticket declare—perhaps they are right—that he possesses none of the qualities of leadership. But if he does not, he has set up in New York, by enforcing President Roosevelt's vernacular axiom of "making good," something which gives promise of being more formidable, as certainly it is more permanent, than personal leadership—the leadership of a cause.

THE TAMMANY LINE.

And that is the one and all of the temper and the inspiration, the blood and sinew of the campaign transformed back again from Confusion to Fusion, and from wavering doubt to a growing power, which has compelled the one-man absolutism of Tammany Hall to go to Fusion's ranks and steal away some of its ammunition in the persons of Messrs. Grout, comptroller, and Fornes, president of the Board of Aldermen! One-man absolutism, because admittedly in Tammany Hall there is one Boss, to whom all others must bow down.

Here, also, is the vast difference between the opposing forces lined up in New York on the eve of election. In the Fusion mass there are elements almost innumerable, knowing no common leader, but following the cause represented in a word significantly dropped from men's lips in these recent months more often than any other—decency. The Tammany thousands follow one leader, Murphy, the putative Boss, and,—you shall hear it everywhere from all the Fusion voters,—with a single burning ambition—Graft! Graft to be parceled out in generous share among the mighty warriors, flung in contemptible fragments for the lesser, in the municipal trough.

THE M'LAUGHLIN DEMOCRATS OF BROOKLYN.

Because of this supreme leadership of one Boss were omitted purposely from the Fusion cata-



MR. EDWARD J. M'GUIRE.

(Fusion nominee for president of Board of Aldermen.)

logue the McLaughlin Democrats of Brooklyn, who are counted on to aid, secretly at least, the Fusion ticket at the polls. They were passed over in that enumeration as being not an element of, but an influence for, Fusion. They do not follow the cause of Fusion; they are lusting after vengeance. To defeat Tammany they offer no championship of Mr. Low or of his administration; they prate to their followers of an unfair share of future spoils to inflame the passions. They are not up in front abreast of the Fusion ranks; they are hanging at the Tammany rear, to stab it in the back.



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DISTRICT-ATTORNEY JEROME.

(The sturdy champion of the Fusion cause.)

The McLaughlin Democrats have been fighting Tammany Hall because of what they call the greed of the Boss—the greed of a system which in its relation to the general Democratic party is not so much a political organization as a shrewdly planned and unscrupulously conducted business for personal gain. The McLaughlin rising is an act of self-defense, for the supreme Boss-ship of Tammany Hall threatens to swallow the hitherto supreme rival Boss-ship of “Willoughby Street,” Brooklyn’s regular organization of Democrats. Aaron Burr never went so far as that, nor Fernando Wood, nor William M. Tweed, nor John Kelly, nor Richard Croker, unless Richard Croker is still the supreme Boss,



Photo by Hollinger.

MR. R. FULTON CUTTING.

(President of the Citizens’ Union.)

and Charles Murphy, as the Democrats who still repudiate Tammany Hall declare, only his proxy. Already the Brooklyn organization is in the jaws of the tiger. It will go all the way down the yawning throat unless it cuts its way out with a knife at the polls!



MR. LINN BRUCE.

(Chairman of the New York Republican County Committee.)

THE MINOR CANDIDATES.

Never before was there a situation in New York like this, where factors in the Fusion councils assume more importance than the Fusion candidates themselves; where the Fusion supporters are more prominent and count for more than their chosen representatives on

the ticket ; where probably not one man in ten who is going to vote the Fusion ticket knows what candidates are on it—Hinrichs for comptroller in place of Grout, apostatized to Tammany Hall ; McGuire instead of Fornes, likewise translated to a new allegiance—where the voter neither knows nor cares, because the personalities of candidates, even of Mr. Low himself, are swallowed up and absorbed in the cause that is served. No more do they know or care, either, against what candidates they are voting,—a McClellan for mayor, Grout for comptroller, or Fornes for president of the Board of Aldermen,—because, again, they vote against the Tammany system.

Never before was there a situation like this in New York, where in the midst of the campaign Tammany drafted from Fusion for its ticket Comptroller Grout, long a non-partisan reformer and anti-Tammany worker, and Mr. Fornes, president of the Board of Aldermen, they in turn then being put off the Fusion ticket. Mr. Grout was replaced by Frederick W. Hinrichs, a man of broad education, an expert in railroad law, a lover of art and music, ranking high among literary men, a graceful speaker, a student who won honors in the University of Göttingen, Germany, and honor man in Columbia College Law School ; prominent twenty years ago



HON. CHARLES V. FORNES.

(President of Board of Aldermen, and Tammany candidate for reelection.)



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HON. EDWARD M. GROUT.

(The present comptroller of New York in the Low administration, and the Tammany candidate for reelection.)

in Brooklyn as an advocate of clean politics ; one of the organizers of the movement to prevent David B. Hill's snap convention of 1892 from having effect on the political fortunes of Grover Cleveland ; stumping Brooklyn against the Willoughby Street machine in 1893, 1894, and 1895, and supporting Seth Low in 1897, and again in 1901, although Edward M. Shepard was and is his close friend. Mr. Fornes gave way to Edward J. McGuire,—a civil lawyer of wide experience, one of the organizers of the Catholic Club, graduated with high honors from college, consistently anti-Tammany from his first vote, a hard worker in every movement to elevate the standard of Democratic politics in the city and State ; against Bryan in 1896 and in 1900, and for Seth Low in 1897 and 1901 ; for two years one of the chief assistants in the office of Corporation Counsel Rives, and winning the commendation of Supreme Court justices by the manner in which he has handled cases for the city.

OLD ISSUES NO LONGER AT THE FRONT.

Never before—to repeat—was there a situation like this in New York,—not two years ago, when all the regular organization rank and file, Brooklyn as well as Manhattan, stood shoulder to shoulder against the shock of a disgusted and

infuriated public hurling itself at the municipal corruption within the Tammany "square." There is no fury now at the Red Light cadet shame, for the Red Light cadet has had his commission canceled by Police Commissioner Greene. There is no "brass check" to inflame the indig-



Photo by Falk, New York.

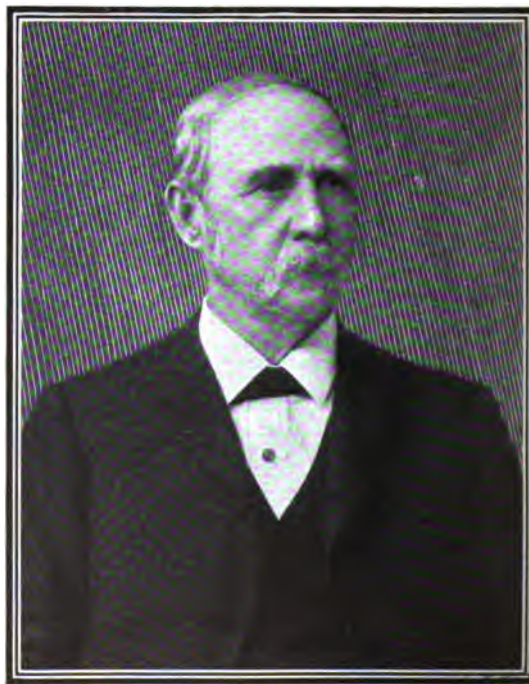
MR. CHARLES F. MURPHY.

(The leader of Tammany Hall.)

nation of honest men, as Jerome inflamed it in 1901, with that eloquent token of a badge that tagged women and young girls into a bondage of harlotry, "Kept submissive there by the police;" for the slaveholders who lived on their loathsome earnings threw away all the brass checks as Jerome pursued them into State prison. There is no impassioned cry for the suppression of the copartnership between municipal officers and gamblers, policy men, keepers of brothels and dives, which were only the shield for crime; for blackmail and Graft and division of those base wages have been suppressed by the Low administration. There is no towering rage of righteousness to sweep away the evil that was flaunted everywhere, for the evil is gone.

Alas! on the contrary, there have been murmurings at the zeal of officials who were over-stiff-necked in the performance of their public duty; discontent with the somewhat stupid con-

scientiousness which, eager to do its work, tore up an important thoroughfare in Brooklyn,—for example, Fourth Avenue, from Fortieth Street to Flatbush,—to achieve the praiseworthy purpose of making it beautiful with landscape gardening and parks along its length, and has kept it impassable till shopkeepers have lost their business, many of them, and some of them been ruined; resentment by respectable Germans, who have been told it was criminal for them to buy beer in beer gardens on Sunday,—something they had done without discredit or comment through untold generations; uneasiness by taxpayers, who fear that the increased assessment valuation of real estate may come to mean increased tax payments, which it has not and will not unless municipal expenditures are made with extravagance; mutterings from the pushcart peddlers (there are thousands of them), who have been butted from pillar to post by the policemen now alive to the regulations of the department,—there are all the dissatisfactions (many of them due to the unwise methods of petty but self-important officials) of the variable natures which quickly forget past evils of hideous aspect in the contemplation of slight irritations that are present; for the average man, as Thomas B. Reed loved to remark, will go wild over a little sand that is actually in his shoe at present and never



MR. HUGH M'LAUGHLIN, OF BROOKLYN.

(Democratic leader of Kings County.)

worry at all over the damnation of his soul that is remote.

THE FIGHT TO "KEEP THE GRAFTERS OUT."

But the Fusion workers rely,—and they thank Mayor Low for the strength of their Rock of Reliance,—on their cause, the cause represented by the evil that has been suppressed and banished, and that they proclaim cannot return unless there returns to the mayor's office a Tammany official representing what the Fusion forces have made the keynote of their campaign—Graft.

No Fusion worker doubts that with Mr. McClellan in the Mayor's chair there would be, despite his amiable but somewhat flabby personal respectability, a restoration of the reign of Graft. Van Wyck was a gentleman by birth, as is McClellan, and the Graft operations under Van Wyck's administration, they point out, became a debauch so gross that it shocked New Yorkers from habitual indifference to a political revolution that was little short of frenzied. They have no doubt that Graft would become paramount, under the Boss absolutism of a Murphy, as it was under the Boss absolutism of a Dick Croker, a John Kelly, a Bill Tweed, a Fernando Wood, a John Bingham, an Aaron Burr,—the dynasty stretches back a century. McClellan, as a minor official of the former Brooklyn Bridge Commission, as presiding officer of the Board of Aldermen in the old city, and as a Representative in Congress since 1897, has had a clean, if a colorless record, yet no Fusion worker, Republican, Democrat, or Independent, believes that it would be possible for him, under the Tammany system, to be more than a figurehead for the Tammany absolutism of Murphy, if he is to be supreme Boss, *de facto*; of Richard Croker, if Murphy is but his proxy.

THE CALIBER OF TAMMANY'S LEADERSHIP.

That one outside the atmosphere of New York may understand, the extreme differences between the opposing forces in this campaign as well as the wide natural variances between the Fusion elements here, there must be placed in contrast with the typical Fusion workers uniting for the election of a man whom they do not admire personally—Cutting, the gentleman born and bred; Jerome, the lawyer and judge, of high education and honored lineage; General Greene, the soldier and man of affairs; Major Woodbury, the army surgeon and college graduate; Corporation Counsel Rives, the respected lawyer; Tenement House Commissioner De Forest, the philanthropist and scholar,—not to mention others of the long list and the same standard,—must be placed in contrast the Tammany cap-

tains who will seize the places, must seize the places under the Tammany system, of those other irreproachable citizens if Mr. McClellan is elected mayoralty deputy for the Boss absolutism of Tammany. Contrast, too, the transcendent importance of these professional personalities in whose fierce political light the Tammany candidates, from the highest to the lowest, shine thin and pale.

Although the German population now outnumbers the Irish population of Greater New York, and although the foreign population coming from Europe proper outnumbers the Irish nearly two to one, about 90 per cent. of the Democratic Assembly district leaders in the boroughs of New York City are either native-born Irish or sons of Irishmen. German leaders in Assembly districts are not only few, but they rarely survive the Tammany primary contests. Only two of the sixty Assembly district leaders have a college education. About 20 per cent. never had a common-school education, except in the primary grades.

But the Tammany leaders and their organization fellows in Brooklyn are men of extraordinary natural capacity, and of long and tried experience in bending and holding large followings of men to their will and their uses. Able and successful are they from the James Kanes in Kings County, the John Morrissey Grays, and the William R. McGuires, to the three big men of Brooklyn, Hugh McLaughlin, James Shevlin, and Patrick Henry McCarren, who have been the center of the savage conflict between Tammany Hall and "Willoughby Street,"—as the McLaughlin organization is locally designated. It was the McLaughlin-Shevlin Boss-ship which denied the right and the power of Murphy to name the whole city ticket and to force Grout and Fornes down the throats of McLaughlin Democrats. It is McCarren, on whom Murphy has relied, the one-man ticket having been named, to flog the McLaughlin Democrats into the Tammany harness. Hugh McLaughlin, the Richard Croker of Brooklyn for thirty years, from a job in the navy yard to politics as a member of the "White House Gang," and then its leader by virtue of his physical prowess; a hunter and fisherman for sport; for business a peacemaker within the organization when possible, the strictest sort of disciplinarian when harsh measures were necessary; possessed of a fortune, the lowest estimate of which is seven millions, the highest fourteen; owning more improved and unimproved property in Brooklyn than any six other men, probably the largest holder in that city of telephone, electric light, and gas stock, yet never owning a carriage and taking his most expen-



MR. JAMES SHEVLIN, OF BROOKLYN, HUGH McLAUGHLIN'S
CHIEF LIEUTENANT.

(Mr. Shevlin stands at the left.)

sive ride, except to a funeral, on a trolley car ;—James Shevlin, the “workingman” in the organization, known as the Sphinx, advancing from his first job as a fighter on the frigate *Constitution* in the Civil War to the wealth of a millionaire, though he never held any political office except that of warden of the penitentiary twenty-five years ago, but having had personal charge of the organization in all the details of government that apply to party politics in respect of franchises or contracts ;—Patrick Henry McCarren, who went from a cooper's shop to politics with his first vote, and who now is six feet tall, sallow, of light weight, clean-shaved, and with a cowl would make a typical monk of centuries gone by. He has been in the Legislature twenty years, at a salary of \$1,500, and has had no other visible sources of income until recently, when, with Tim Sullivan, he bought interests in local race tracks.

TYPICAL DISTRICT “LEADERS.”

In New York City, the men regarded as of the largest brain power, overshadowing the Tammany candidates beyond measure, are James J. Martin, Timothy D. Sullivan, George W. Plunk-

ett, Patrick Keenan, Charles F. Murphy, and William Dalton. These men have grown up from nothing, absolutely nothing—unless clerkships in Tweed's time may be regarded as having had some value—and they are to-day all above the necessity of hard work, in a money sense, and above the necessity of any work.

Martin was a car conductor before he got a small job in John Kelly's time. Then, by the force of his own personality, he went by easy stages to the office of police commissioner, but long before that had been known as Tammany Hall's lobby man. Since the going out of Gilroy, Martin has been regarded as the shrewdest man in Tammany Hall. He never talks for publication. He will always help a friend, whether it is to get him into a public office or a job in a printing shop. Accurately, it is believed the ill success of Croker came only when he pushed Martin aside as an adviser and took less astute men into his confidence.

Tim Sullivan's whole success has come from doing things for his constituents and standing by anybody, criminal or not, who is a member of his party, to the very extreme. From a newsboy he became a Bowery politician, then a member of the Assembly, and a Senator. Now he has gone to Congress for some object as yet unknown ; but as he has made Representatives in Congress for twelve years, it is not ambition or love of the place that has sent him there.

Sullivan gives away money faster than many men can make it, yet since he ceased gambling he has become a millionaire. He is a large race-track stockholder, has an interest in four theaters, is a large property-holder, and an owner of stock in transportation companies.

In a financial sense, Sullivan was down and out when the Van Wyck administration came in, but in four years he had easily reaped a half million dollars because of his autocratic control of the police on the East Side of the city.

George W. Plunkett has accumulated a million in twenty-five years of political life, and probably would have twice that sum, only that he has found it necessary to expend about 50 per cent. of his income to produce and keep the other 50 per cent. He has fought every central leader in authority and kept possession of his Assembly district. He gets down among the women and the children as well as the men. He obtains small contracts for small men, and takes big ones for himself. He starts men in liquor saloons, and takes notes over a long period of time in payment. He helps widows, and has his charities well advertised. He is a politician waking and sleeping. He expends ten cents a day on a “shine,” except on Sundays, and wholly for the

purpose of holding his office on the bootblack's stand, where he is to be found at a certain hour every day. His office, when not there, is in his hat. He regards all laws that interfere with his friends as bad laws.

Patrick Keenan, never seen waking or sleeping without a smile, has held office for thirty-five years, and, like the others, has accumulated a handsome fortune. He is an Irish leader in a district made up almost wholly of Jews, Austro-Hungarians, Swedes, Germans, and a sprinkling of Irish. He is not the only leader who has that sort of district,—as, for instance, P. J. Scully, Florrie Sullivan, and Tom Dunn.

William Dalton became a politician as a small butcher, became a greater one as a liquor dealer, caught the friendly eye of John Kelly and the commendation of Hugh J. Grant when mayor, and, thus intrenched, easily became the leader of a district.

MURPHY AS CHIEFTAIN.

Charles F. Murphy, now the supreme Boss or regent for the Croker absolutism, from the ice wagon to the liquor store, with the poolroom

overhead, with a brownstone house, and to the leadership of Tammany Hall, only followed the footsteps of others. His ability to say yes or no, to keep his word, and to back up his opinions with his fists, made him to be thought something of when he was a bartender. When he had a following on a street corner he became useful to former Senator Hagen, then district leader; and when he came into possession of two liquor stores, and then three liquor stores, his following was big enough to make Richard Croker cast his eye upon him occasionally, and to make him the successor of Hagen when that much loved person in Tammany Hall died suddenly.

Murphy is shrewd, silent, and aggressive. Money stays with him. He has a long row of tenement houses on his list. He prefers a street corner to his clubroom when he wants to talk to lieutenants. He has a direct way of making known what should be done, whether it be in an election district or in the whole Assembly district. He believes in organization, from the tenement house to the whole block, and from the whole block to the four sides of his district.

CAMPAIGN METHODS.

So the opposing forces are ranged with one more unusual feature,—a campaign compressed by reason of the late and sensational change in the tickets into three short weeks, but with close, sharp fighting of cavalry-charge swiftness and rapid-fire-gun intensity; with nightly mass meetings in great halls and parks, "cart-tail" speakers at the street corner, the Citizens' Union conducting an enormous output of dodgers, circulars, and other campaign literature, and a steady volume of cartoons distributed from house to house; with every fence a campaign billboard, and every surface and elevated car a "display position" for poster, motto, verse, and epigram bearing on the campaign watchword of "Graft;" and with Tammany Hall, by reason of its lack of press support, employing newsdealers to smuggle Tammany literature into the anti-Tammany newspapers which are sold to Fusion readers.

SOME CRITICISMS OF THE REFORM ADMINISTRATION.

Now revert once more, for it is a consideration of moment, to those faults and errors of the reform administration before mentioned, for with all the strong elements of Democratic leadership there is not a question that a large minority, if not actually a majority, of the Democratic party would prefer not only different men, but a constantly ascending scale of good government, if the changing of administrations would still keep within the city what those Democrats hold to be an atmosphere of liberality not



From the N. Y. Tribune.

HON. PATRICK H. MCCARREN.

(Senator McCarren has headed Tammany's "invasion" of the Brooklyn Democratic organization.)

necessarily in violation of the law in carrying out or interpreting the statutes or local ordinances. It has been the misfortune of reform movements that the men elected to carry out the will of the voters while honest, frequently have been either narrow-minded or unpractical in office. The Germans indignantly cite an illustration in the enforcement of the excise law. The Raines act closes the liquor saloon on Sunday, but permits the Raines law hotel to remain open, so the place which has the ten requisite bedrooms may remain open and serve meals, while the liquor saloon without those rooms must, under the law, be closed.

THE EXCISE QUESTION.

The most strenuous endeavors of the Police Department under Mayor Low, the German-Americans have contended with indignation and bitterness, have been aimed at a great proportion of the German population, who, in districts of great area, as in Williamsburg and in the Bronx, have caused to be built commodious halls where they may have their saengerfests, their bowling alleys for themselves and their wives, and their gardens where they may meet their old friends from over the sea, with their wives, over a glass of beer or Rhenish wine on Sundays. The police have harassed the proprietors of those places, they charge, as if the proprietors were the promoters of all vice in the metropolis; have outraged the feelings of the Germans and their families and practically have forced them to give up old associations. Men accustomed to do as the Germans do in the big halls of Brooklyn and the Bronx, and along lower Second Avenue in Manhattan, incensed by this illiberal construction of the law, are likely to forget the old evils of Tammany or the evils that would follow a return to power in the resentment which they feel against an administration which regards, through its police force, as the Germans see it, a glass of beer in wholesome surroundings on a Sunday as a crime requiring reprisal by the city government.

THE TENEMENT HOUSE AND BUILDING DEPARTMENTS.

The administration of the new tenement-house law, in some respects, has caused more dissatisfaction than the administration of the excise law. Good that never can be counted undoubtedly has been done by the honest administration of this law in filthy tenements. Lives far into the hundreds have been saved by forcing heartless and greedy landlords to put in the commonest sanitary arrangements in houses holding many families; but these tenement inspectors, with an

excess of zeal that was Calvinistic, have gone into the private houses of modest persons, from a worldly point of view, who had sublet, into the three-story flat houses of men who, by years of sacrifice, have scraped enough together to live in one flat and let two others, and have, under the law, forced them to carry out in every detail, at unexpected cost, all the requirements of a law which was meant to be enforced in whole, eventually, but in whole at first in those sections of the city where humanity dictated their rigid enforcement. The law being new, those who have suffered in this manner say a practical administration would have given plenty of notice to all houses of any violation and a liberally limited time to make them. In many known cases, men having ownership of tenement houses or three or four story flats, with mortgages thereon, have been compelled to make second mortgages in order to carry out the sweeping provisions of the law. The cost to many a householder has been as high as \$200, where sanitary safety for the time being, with a proper interpretation of the law applied to the circumstances, could have been had for small cost.

Likewise, ill feeling for the Fusion cause has been aroused by the Building Department. Under Tammany builders had license and liberty and anything, perhaps, that they wanted which money could buy or political influence bring. The shaving down of this thing was a necessity for the city, and something which the people voted for in turning Tammany out, but now fault is found that the men in charge of the Building Department have gone to the other extreme, and they have interpreted the law to the dotting of an i and the curl of a comma, and to such an extent that builders are harassed in regard to the smallest technical violations, and are compelled to journey themselves to the complaint clerks of the department in the several boroughs of the city.

OTHER HANDICAPS.

The public improvements have been well planned, let at the lowest contract price, prepared without any division of the spoils, and carried on as a man would carry on his private business,—that is, these things have been done to as large an extent as is possible under the direction of any city government, but there have been mistakes which have aroused the vexation and anger of many citizens. To pave a street, the whole street has been torn up along its length. To build a parkway, the whole avenue has been opened, destroying trade, preventing vehicular traffic, exasperating citizens, while having the object in view of making a record

for swiftness and dispatch in the work of improvement.

Of course, the cutting down of the mayor's term from four years to two years by Thomas C. Platt has done more to endanger the good results of a Fusion administration than anything else. The people who have been exasperated by all sorts of narrow interpretations of the law, as they deem them, are having their places taken by others who see the great good that is being done and the wholesome growth of the city, but the latter people might not be numerous enough in the short two years of Fusion to fill and overflow the ranks of those who have their personal objections to a continuance of this sort of government.

Then there is the more serious thing, unless you can get deep down in the campaign under the minds of the people, and overcome the Tammany lies by driving home the truth and the cause of it. The failure to better the water supply in large sections of Brooklyn and in northern Manhattan and in the Bronx has exasperated persons who have not gone into the reasons for delay, and who are impatient because well-laid engineering plans are being considered, and who forget that the cause of their misery is not the neglect of the Fusion administration, but the robbery of the city treasury in the past by Tammany Hall.

SCHOOL ACCOMMODATIONS.

Then, again, there are the schools. The man whose child is on half time does not always stop to think of the fact that as many were on half time under Tammany, and that with a proper administration of past affairs this would not have happened. Nor do they stop to think, unless it can be brought home directly to them by some one or some paper in which they have confidence, that the Fusion government, in a short twenty months, in spite of the building strike and the delay in getting material, has almost completed enough schoolhouses to put every child on full time, and, by the grace of Sam Parks' Building Trades Council, will, if continued in power, have a seat for every child under the contracts already let, within fourteen months, and seats for seven thousand more children within six months! A misunderstanding of these conditions undoubtedly will have effect in many districts of the city, which again makes clear the political crime committed in shortening the mayor's term, for undoubtedly, if the present mayor's term were four years, all the

criticisms as to schools and water would be convincingly removed, and long before that period a clean police force would permit sanity in the administration of other laws.

THE REAL STRENGTH OF THE FUSION CAUSE.

Yet if it would be foolish to ignore those influences which cast weight, each a little, perhaps, but none the less some weight, and all a very considerable adverse power against the Fusion movement, there is none the less a confidence among the cool and calculating,—Democrat as well as Republican, Abe Gruber, the cunning professional, and Cutting, the frank idealist,—that the Fusion cause will prevail because New York, as a population mass verging on four million souls, has come to accept the principles of the Fusion cause as against what is its conviction is the primal instinct and the absorbing passion of the Tammany absolutism—Graft; and because New York trusts Mayor Low absolutely, though he be not personally popular, to continue an administration not only clean and decent, but efficient and economic, while an establishment of the Murphy rule would be a restoration, in some other form no doubt, but of the same spirit and purpose, of a new Graft cabinet like the Forty Thieves' Council.

That confidence is based upon:

First, the fact, almost without precedent in public affairs, that Mayor Low has "made good."

Second, the fact, as a *sequitur* of the first, that Fusion has stood like a rock against internal disorder, demoralization, and even treason to its cause.

Third, that the newspapers of New York, both in units of publications and in numbers of readers, are ranged overwhelmingly for Fusion, there being only three newspapers supporting Tammany in Manhattan, and none at all in Brooklyn.

Fourth, that the registration shows gains in anti-Tammany and losses in Tammany districts.

Should Fusion in New York fail this year, however, through paying penalties for the mistakes that have been made,—and there have been mistakes,—and through the popular fault of forgetfulness, still would non-partisan Fusion remain a powerful force in New York and a shining star to other municipalities, to rise triumphant again after other shameful experiences of hideous contrasts, by reason of the permanence given its existence when Mayor Low, by "making good," set the foundations of a great cause in enduring stone.

THE NATION'S PRINT SHOP AND ITS METHODS.

BY J. D. WHELPLEY.

A THOROUGH investigation of the Government Printing Office at Washington, such as has been made by the direction of President Roosevelt, should emphasize certain facts.

First, that the cost of printing done by the Government is in excess of such reasonable allowance as might be made for exceptional conditions.

Second, that the establishment in detail has been largely governed by labor unions and Congressional influence, rather than by the executive head.

Third, that a lack of modern business methods has prevailed in many of the operations of the plant.

Unfortunately, this is and has been for years the real condition of the public printing establishment of the United States Government. It is the greatest print shop in the world, as it employs four thousand people, and will call this year for an appropriation of over five million dollars to meet its requirements. In justice to all, however, it must also be said that from this same shop can be turned out in the shortest time and in greatest quantity the best work known to the printing trade of any country.

WHY THE GOVERNMENT DOES ITS OWN PRINTING.

The question as to whether it is expedient or not for the Government to do its own printing is one of purely academic interest at this time. The only answer is, that the Government is doing the work, and will continue to do it. Congress would never consent to a change involving, as it would, the abandonment of a great plant, the doing away with a large department of government work and its attendant patronage, and the disappearance of many privileges now granted to members in connection therewith.

The advocates of a government print shop assert

that under no form of contract could the peculiar character of work now carried on be accomplished successfully. They point to the irregularity, the speed required, the great number changes made in form and copy, and the secrecy necessary to be maintained in connection with a great part of the printing. It is also asserted that in the comparisons of cost made between the work done by the Government and the bids of contractors many points are not taken into consideration, such as quality of the work, quality of the material used, the interchangeability of forms, headings, etc., and, above all, when estimates are asked of contractors, they make the figures with the understanding that they are not to get the work, but are merely furnishing the figures for purposes of comparison.

Those who believe that the Government printing could be done by contract to the better advantage of the taxpayers assert that all these obstacles could be overcome, and that the advantages which might be allowed as pertaining to a government institution are more than offset by an increase of cost ranging as it does from



SECTION OF PRESS-ROOM, NEW GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

30 to even 100 per cent. above that which would be incurred by letting the work to private parties.

Such a discussion is useless, however, as the Government Printing Office has come to stay. It only remains to determine as to whether or not it is economically and properly administered, and, if not, to see that it is. This is what President Roosevelt has determined to do, and will do so far as his power may extend.

HOW THE SYSTEM GREW UP.

The present system of public printing is the result of over one hundred years' consideration of the matter by Congress, progress being marked at many stages by bitter political and personal controversies, some of them the most notable in the history of the national legislative body. The first reference to public printing is found in the *Annals of Congress*, now called the *Congressional Record*, in a report presented in the first session of the First Congress, recommending that proposals be invited for printing the laws and "other proceedings." It is now presumed that this included the printing of bills, resolutions, and other Congressional documents. In 1794 is found the first specific appropriation for public printing, for Congress then set aside ten thousand dollars to pay for "firewood, stationery, and printing work."

During the succeeding years the printing seems to have been done in a haphazard way, partly by direct appropriation and partly under incidental allowances. In 1818, in the Fifteenth Congress, a joint committee of the two houses was appointed to report whether any further provisions of law were necessary to insure "dispatch, accuracy, and neatness" in the printing done for the two houses. This committee, after visiting various cities and investigating the subject, made an elaborate report, and in this report is the first official suggestion in favor of creating a national printing office as the best and most economical method of doing printing for the Government. It is interesting to note that this suggestion was not adopted until fifty years later.

That report intimated, however, that it was doubtful whether the work could be done in this manner as cheap as through some other channel, but the committee insisted that there was no question as to its being the best way to secure the kind of work wanted by Congress. The estimated cost of such a printing office was sixty-five thousand dollars a year. In 1819, a joint resolution was adopted regulating the public printing. This resolution was passed as a result of the great delay and inaccuracy in the

printing done, which became such a serious matter as to materially hinder the legislative bodies in their work. Numerous changes were made in the printing laws between 1819 and 1852, and it was in the latter year that Congress adopted a general law upon the subject involving a radical change in the system, prices, and methods of executing the work.

The present printing law still retains many features of the law of 1852. It was under this law that the office of superintendent of public printing was created. The law of 1852 was considered a decided improvement over that of 1846, but the printing done under its provisions was very expensive. One great difficulty was the want of a building with proper facilities for doing the work. The demands made by the Government increased to such an extent that up to 1856 no single printing office in Washington was capable of handling it all, and the result was that a variety of styles prevailed in the forms used, producing general dissatisfaction and inconvenience.

No session of Congress closes without a more or less acrimonious debate concerning the Government printing. The controversy between those who favor a government establishment and those who believe that the work should be done by contract has raged from the First to the Fifty-seventh Congress; and as there is no probability of the institution being abolished, it will continue to rage so long as members seek topics for discussion.

In 1861, the Government purchased, at a cost of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, what is known as the old Government Printing Office, now used as a part of the new establishment, and in this building has been done all the Government printing of the past forty-two years. When the Government moved into its new quarters, in 1861, there were three hundred employees upon the printing-office rolls. The office of "public printer" was created by a law of 1876, and it was also provided that it should be filled by appointment by the President, "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate."

VASTNESS OF THE PLANT.

The first year the Government occupied a building distinctively set apart for the conduct of its printing business the operating expenses amounted to something over five hundred thousand dollars. The cost of the public printing grew, therefore, in over sixty years from about ten thousand to over half a million a year, and has grown in the last forty years from the half-million mark to ten times that sum. Some idea of the growth of this institution is shown by the

fact that when the first government printing office was established 60,000 square feet of floor space was sufficient, whereas at present 377,200 square feet is none too much to give all branches of the work ample quarters.

The employees now number nearly four thousand, about one-third of whom are women. The entire establishment is conducted upon an enormous scale. As to the size and extent of the plant, the number of people employed, and the material consumed, there is no printing office in the world which approaches it in any of these particulars.

Germany and France are among the large countries which do their own printing. England does hers by contract, and the officials of the Government Printing Office in Washington take great satisfaction in comparing the English Government stationery, printed on inferior paper and showing inartistic workmanship, as evidence that the American way of doing is by far the best. Some of England's colonies, however, do their own printing, Canada especially having a printing plant of considerable size and modern efficiency. New South Wales is another colony which also maintains a government printing office. As stated, however, no public or private institution anywhere in the world approaches in size or facilities the one in Washington.

Here there are always a million and a half pounds of type in stock, and yet this is not considered sufficient, for at least two hundred and fifty tons are always tied up in live standing matter on the galleys. The payroll of the establishment approaches three and a half million dollars. The proof-paper alone consumed in the composing room costs twenty-five hundred dollars a year. Over forty thousand pounds of printing ink are used in twelve months, and ten tons of roller composition are necessary to keep the presses in good order. The paper bill, of course, is the largest supply item, and amounts to over eight hundred thousand dollars a year, which means a daily average of about fifteen tons of paper and cardboard. These figures, however, will convey but a vague impression to the mind of the layman. Only a practical printer can understand the amount of work which must be done to consume this enormous aggregate of material. It may be said, however, that during the past year 1,648,214 bound volumes figured as a formidable part of the output.

THE NEW BUILDING—A MODEL BUSINESS STRUCTURE.

The growth of the buildings now occupied by the Government Printing Office tells the story of the increase of the work done. The first

building acquired by the Government, in 1861, was a four-story structure, then considered large; and in 1896, Congress provided for a new seven-story annex, 27 x 169 feet; and within the past two months the printing plant proper has been moved into a new seven-story, fireproof building, which has a frontage of 408 feet on one street, 175 feet on another, and 278 feet on the alley. This new building cost about two and a half million dollars. It is as absolutely fireproof as modern science can devise, and is equipped with a power plant which operates five hundred electric motors.

There is no shafting or belting employed anywhere in the building, and the electric plant has been pronounced by experts, considering the variety of uses to which the power is put, to be the finest in the world. Owing to the immense weight to be carried by the walls and floors the maximum strains were provided for, and the foundations of interior columns and walls are pyramids of concrete extending to bed rock. The new building rises to the height of 125 feet. The architecture is of the Italian Renaissance, modernized. Six thousand tons of steel were used in the framework, and nearly fifteen million bricks were required to enclose the walls. The floors are so constructed as to carry a load of three hundred pounds to the square foot. Every machine operated in the building has its own motor, the electricity being carried in the floors. Between the floor and ceiling spaces are conduits for this purpose, the floors themselves being built of solid brick arches and hollow tiles.

All the window and door frames are of iron, as are also the baseboards, so that, with the exception of the floors themselves, which are of hard maple laid in asphalt, there is absolutely no wood about the building. The walls of the building are devoted wherever possible to window space, there being nine hundred windows in the structure. The plumbing, heating, and ventilating systems are of the most modern character, and fifteen elevators for passengers and freight are to be found in various parts of the building. The provision made for the comfort of employees in the matter of lavatories, drinking water, and other necessities are most complete. In fact, the entire building as it stands can be regarded as the most modern business structure in the world.

UNCLE SAM'S PRINTING—RECORD PERFORMANCES.

The character of the work done in the Government Printing Office covers almost every conceivable phase of the typographical art. It ranges from the printing on sheepskin of a single

copy of an important treaty to the issuing of some report contained in a score or more of large volumes. It also includes the publication of what is practically a daily newspaper in the shape of the *Congressional Record*. Secrecy, as can easily be understood, is often an important factor in the handling of government work, yet with the hundreds of confidential reports, President's messages, treaties, and other documents of like character which pass through the hands of the responsible men in the employ of the Government Printing Office, there is yet no story to tell of any great leak.

There have been occasions in the past where certain documents have appeared prematurely in print, but in each and every instance the leak has been traced to men outside of the printing-office force. Numberless stories could be told of record occasions when publications of great importance and great volume have been issued from this printing office at short notice. One or two will suffice as an indication of what can be done in this magnificent plant operated by its thousands of employees.

In 1899, the President of the United States sent to the Government Printing Office, accompanied by a short message, the report of the Naval Court of Inquiry upon the destruction of the *Maine*. When printed, that report contained 298 pages of text, 15 x 7 inches, twenty-four full-page engravings, and a four-color lithograph. It was not until 3 o'clock in the afternoon that the shop got the originals of the illustrations, and it was after 6 o'clock that night when the manuscript of the text reached the foreman's hands. Before Congress assembled the next morning a complete copy of this bulky volume, bound in pamphlet form, was upon every desk in the Senate and House, containing, as it did, the illustrations, lithograph, and text as perfect as if a job printer had been given a month in which to do it. That is to say, a thousand copies of a book of more than three hundred pages were manufactured in sixteen hours from the time the manuscript reached the foreman's composing room.

On another occasion, at 4 o'clock on a Saturday afternoon, the office received the manu-



THE NEW PUBLIC PRINTING OFFICE.

script report of the committee which investigated hazing at the Military Academy at West Point. By 9 o'clock Monday morning each member of Congress had on his desk a volume containing two thousand pages, or the committee report in full.

Two years ago, the record was made in the printing of a bill which was no other than the revised statutes of the District of Columbia. This bill contained three hundred pages, and was ready for delivery to the White House for the President's signature ninety minutes after the copy reached the printing office.

All original laws and a few other important documents are printed upon sheepskin parchment. The copies of the laws are then filed in the State Department. It is only when they are printed in the form of statute books, however, that the book plates are made to be preserved in the vaults of the office. The composition upon the *Congressional Record* begins at 7 p. m. each day Congress is in session, and the proceedings of the day before are issued from the printing office in time for a 6-o'clock mail delivery the following morning. The *Record* varies from an issue of four pages to, perhaps, one hundred and fifty pages; but no matter what its size or character, it must be printed and ready for distribution within the hours named. The copy comes in a most irregular way, and the *Record* is printed upon a special press built for that purpose. Thirty-two pages can be locked on the rotary frame of this press, which has a feeding capacity

of sixty thousand sheets an hour, and four hours after the first sheets come from the presses fifteen thousand copies of the *Record* will have been bound and made, this being the size of the regular edition.

Every moment during the night the foreman of the composing room must be prepared for any emergency which can possibly arise. If there happens to be a night session, and about 10 o'clock a Congressman addresses the House, and in the course of his speech introduces some government report which he requests shall be included in the *Congressional Record*, this report is just as much part of the proceedings as the speech itself, and it may run anywhere from a thousand to fifty or sixty thousand words. Perhaps, after this has all been put into type on a rush order, the member of Congress may request that his remarks be held for revision, or he may conclude to leave out part of the matter put in type. This is true not of one Congressman only in a day or night, but a dozen Congressmen might adopt the same course. In the reports of the proceedings of the first eighteen Congresses each one fell within a limit of two million words. The proceedings of the last Congress, which are comprised within the seventeen thousand pages of the *Record* printed during that period, make many volumes, and each volume contains as much or more than the record of an entire session of earlier days.

OFFICIAL RESPONSIBILITY.

The head of the Government Printing Office is the public printer, Mr. Frank W. Palmer. The printing office is an independent bureau of the Government, the public printer reporting directly to the President and being responsible to no one else. The principal officers under him are the chief clerk, Capt. H. T. Brian, who has an honorable record of several decades in various capacities, and the foremen of the mechanical departments. The Department of Commerce and Labor has conducted the investigation of the printing office ordered by the President, and it is expected that within a short time it will also be one of the bureaus included within the permanent jurisdiction of the new department.

Some of the abuses which have arisen are due to the entire independence of this bureau in the past. The President of the United States is unable to give much attention to details of government work. The public printer, therefore, was an officer of considerable importance and almost unlimited authority. He was in a position where he could do very much as he pleased, the President being compelled to leave practically every-

thing to him. The only other power with which he dealt was the joint committee on public printing. This consists of three members of the Senate and three of the House, meeting together as a joint committee, and presided over by the chairman of the Senate committee, who at present is Senator Platt, the senior Senator from New York.

The law governing the printing office is peculiar in many respects, one of the provisions being that the joint committee should let all contracts for advertising, and make all contracts for the purchase of paper. It is at the time these contracts for paper are to be made that the Congressional committee shows its greatest activity. It lies within its power to reject any and all bids, and upon it devolves the responsibility for every feature of this important outlay for the Government printing. In all the investigations so far, there has been no testimony to the effect that any of these contracts for paper have been let in any way other than that contemplated by the law, and it is considered doubtful whether a detailed investigation into this feature would disclose any irregularities, with the possible exception of the favoring of some constituency for political reasons. It can be said, however, that while there have been numerous demands made for an investigation of the letting of these contracts for paper, so far, at least, no tangible evidence has been forthcoming that there is any wrongdoing in connection therewith.

It is stated by the printing-office officials that the interest of the joint committee in the conduct of the institution is largely perfunctory, except in regard to these contracts for paper. There is, however, a point of contact where the members of Congress become particularly active, and that is in the matter of promotions. This brings up the question of labor,—a most important one, and in which is involved the most undesirable feature of the conduct of this great business.

THE QUESTION OF UNION LABOR—THE MILLER CASE.

Public attention was first drawn to the labor question in government employ by the publication of a letter received by W. A. Miller, a bookbinder in the employ of the Government Printing Office. This letter was written to him by the public printer, and in it he was notified of his discharge on the ground that as he had been dismissed by the bookbinders' union, he was no longer acceptable as an employee of the Government Printing Office. This matter was brought to the attention of the Civil Service Commission.



HON. FRANK W. PALMER, THE PRESENT PUBLIC PRINTER.

and finally to that of the President, and as a result of an investigation, President Roosevelt wrote a letter which is notable as being a definition of the attitude of the administration toward all government employees.

This letter of the President's, expressed in forcible terms, laid down the general principle that the Government could not differentiate between union and non-union labor, and that so long as a man obtained his employment through the regular and accepted channels, and was satisfactory to his employers, it was no concern of the Government as to whether or not he was a member of any labor organization. Miller was at once reinstated by the President's order, and is still an employee of the office. Charges of a personal nature have been preferred against him by the union employees, and these have been investigated solely to determine his personal fitness for government employ and association with his fellow-employees. The case will be decided on its merits along these lines, although it is understood at this writing that the offenses charged are not of sufficient importance or of sufficiently recent date to cause him to lose his position.

The Government Printing Office has always been accepted as a union or "closed" shop, and some of the officials are inclined to maintain that it is still so. This opinion, however,

is in the face of strong opinion to the contrary, held by officials of greater authority, and also contrary to the intent and purpose of the administration.

In a thorough investigation which has been given this matter, it has been found that since the civil-service regulations went into effect there has been very little abuse of the appointive power. When a man is wanted for the printing office a call is made upon the Civil Service Commission. The names of the three highest eligibles on the list are sent to the public printer. From these three he chooses one. There is no doubt but that if an influential member of Congress has urged the appointment of a certain man, and his name is among these three, that he has been made the first choice. Under



CAPT. H. T. BRIAN.

(Chief Clerk Government Printing Office.)

the rules of the commission, however, the names of the two rejected applicants go back again to the public printer in the next draft, hence the time must come when they must be seriously considered for an appointment.

If among these men drawn there happens to be a non-union man, it has been found that he rarely outlives the probationary term of six months unless he was gathered into the union fold and thus complied with union requirements.

It is in the matter of promotions and reinstatements that the Congressional influence enters largely, and there have been, undoubtedly, very serious abuses of this power. The record of the office for the past few years in this respect is exceedingly bad, and it is a matter which is extremely difficult to control owing to the absolute authority given to the official in charge of the office and the absence of any detailed regulation enforcing a merit system.

It can be accepted as a fact that the Government Printing Office has, up to the Miller case at least, been a union or "closed" shop, notwithstanding such exceptional cases as might be cited. That it will not be in the future is the determination of the higher administrative officials of the Government. The Miller case serves as a precedent. Since that episode no non-union man has happened to have been drafted for employment. By the time Congress gets under way, however, several hundred new employees will be taken on. It is expected that a number of these will not be members of labor unions. There is no objection to their becoming such; but if they elect to the contrary, they will be fully sustained in their positions so long as they and their work are acceptable. The theory upon which the Government Printing Office is to be transformed into an open shop is in effect that the number of non-union employees will, within reasonable time, so increase as to give that element a feeling of greater safety and security in their positions, and thus prevent any discrimination. The oldest and best-informed men in the shop do not believe that under present circumstances a strike over this question is within the bounds of probabilities. The Government will not make war upon any individual or class. This is to be a peaceful revolution brought about by a definite position maintained with firmness,—at least, this is the programme. It is not entirely safe to predict results, for while success is probable, no man dare say where a well-organized and serious strike of government employees would end. It would be a conflict to be deplored.

THE GOVERNMENT WAGE SCALE.

The lowest wage paid in the Government Printing Office is a dollar and a half a day, the amount received by female laborers. The lowest wage paid to men is two dollars per day. Foreman receive two thousand dollars per annum, and the highest rate per day is to proofreaders, who sometimes make four dollars and sixty-eight cents. Employees work eight hours per day and are allowed thirty days' leave each year, with some other privileges not common to pri-

vate employment. Night work is paid for at 20 per cent. increase of the day scale.

The assertion is constantly made that Congress fixes by law the rate of wages. This is not strictly true, for the law merely establishes a maximum, and the public printer has authority to pay less if he should so determine. The law in regard to the employment of labor in navy yards specifies that the going rate in that locality shall be the scale, and those who have looked into the matter believe that this should be the law in relation to the printing office also. The fact that printers working in Washington for private firms labor nine hours per day, and receive one dollar per day less wages, is instanced as showing unnecessary expenditure.

In figuring the cost of government work, it must be remembered that the plant is the best and largest in the world; that there are no fixed charges for rent, insurance, taxes, or interest on investment. In fact, there are no fixed charges whatever, and in the purchase of supplies the buyer has the credit of the national government behind the contract, and the advantage of dealing in enormous quantities.

COMPARATIVE COST OF GOVERNMENT PRINTING.

When printing is done for the Government by public letting, as is required by law in some instances, the Government Printing Office also bids, but it may be said never gets the job. One instance toward which public attention has lately been turned is the printing of the money-order blanks for the post office. The Government bid was about 15 per cent. higher than any private bid. The printing-office officials, however, were well satisfied with an ensuing scandal concerning the quality of the material furnished and the work done. They say that their bid was based on the requirements of a first-class job. Considering the absence of fixed charges, the Government bid was evidently much higher than would appear superficially.

NO TYPE-SETTING MACHINES.

With one exception, labor-saving devices are in use throughout the Government printing office. That exception lies in the practise of setting type by hand instead of using the machines common in every private printing office throughout the country, large or small. Of course, in this matter the influence of the labor union has been felt. The public printer asserts that these machines are as yet an untried quantity in the class of work done in his shop, but apparently no effort has ever been made to try them. It would require a Congressional appropriation to put in machines, but they could have been tried

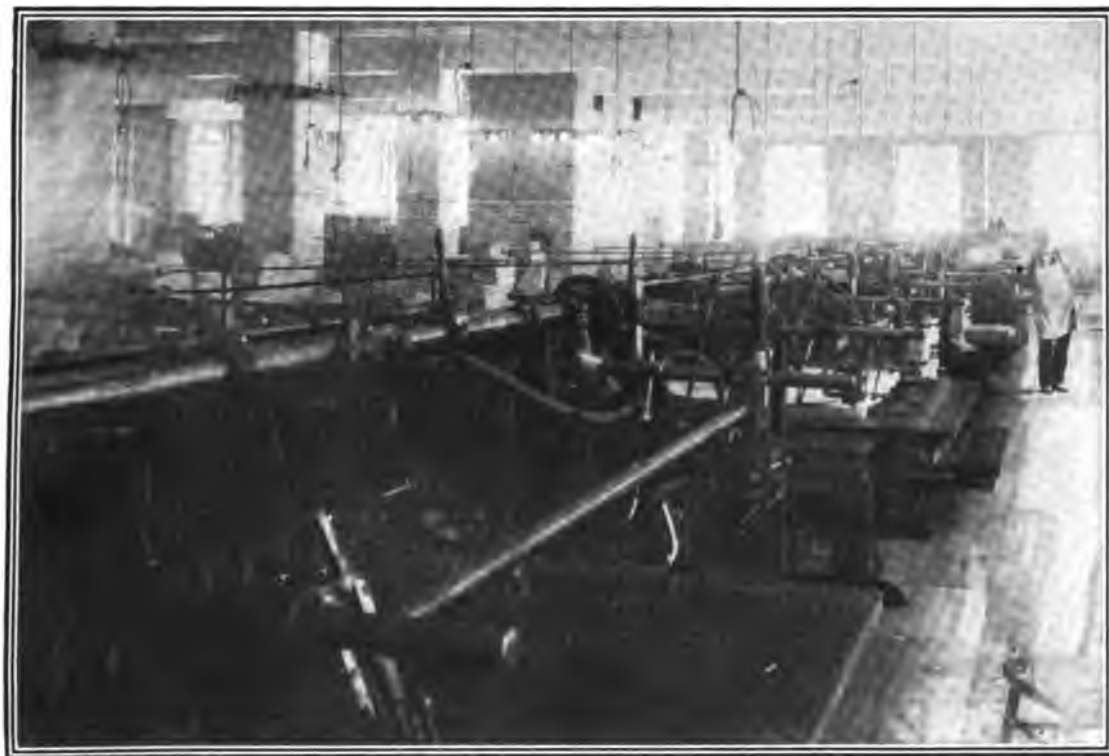
long ago without this, and their desirability determined. There is, undoubtedly, a large amount of work which could be done mechanically at a saving of time and money. The excessive cost of government printing appears to be due directly to high wages and extravagance and waste in the use of material, and indirectly to other defects in the general system.

FAULTS OF ADMINISTRATION.

As to the general administration of the office, it has been found that questions of labor and wages have been determined by Congressional influence and that of the laborers themselves rather than by the responsible administrator. That a lack of modern business methods has prevailed in the choice of machinery, the purchase of supplies, stock-taking, waste, the distribution of work, and other details of administration is the opinion of those in a position to know and competent to judge with fairness. In all probability, however, there would be no scandals of magnitude unearthed in any investigation.

The evils in the conduct of the Government Printing Office are those common to nearly all government business exposed to direct Congressional influence, carrying a large quota of patronage, remote from close supervision by a high responsible administrative authority, and are representative of the cumulative and progressive abuses of a century. As stated, however, the character of the enterprise is such that comparison with private industry is possible. For this reason the faults are more easily detected as they assume more tangible and concrete form, and can thus be more quickly and more easily corrected if this correction be desired by the powers that be.

The Government Printing Office is a wonderful and astounding institution. Great in its mechanical features, the magnitude of its output, the high character of its finished product, the number of its laborers, and their expertness and loyalty to their tasks, it is deserving of an honest, intelligent, non-political and thoroughly modern administration, conducted absolutely in the interests of the best public policy.



FOLDING-ROOM OF THE GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.



THE FIRST REGIMENT, KANSAS NATIONAL GUARD.

(This regiment is commanded by Col. Wilder S. Metcalf, Lawrence, Kan., who succeeded Funston as colonel of the Twentieth Kansas in the Philippines, and who was brevetted a brigadier-general for meritorious service in the Philippines.)

THE FORT RILEY MANEUVERS.

BY PHILIP EASTMAN.

FROM the old-fashioned "Training Day," once typical of New England, when the members of the militia companies met annually at some convenient village for a few hours, company drill with flintlocks, to Camp William Cary Sanger, on the Fort Riley Military Reservation, near Junction City, Kan., where regiments of State militia joined with the troops of the regular army in the most extensive land maneuvers ever held in the United States, is a great advancement toward the perfecting of the military system of the country.

In these maneuvers, held from October 15 to 27, the National Guard was, for the first time, placed on the same basis as the regular army. From private to brigadier-general the militiamen ranked with the regulars, drew the same pay, and performed the same duties. In 1902, maneuvers were held at Fort Riley, and militia took part, but the States sending troops bore the expenses, while this year, under the provisions of the "Dick bill," introduced in Congress by Representative Dick, of Ohio, the War Department met the expenses of both the regular troops and the militia. This bill provides—

That the Secretary of War is hereby authorized to provide for participation by any part of the organized militia of any State or Territory on the request of the governor thereof in the encampment, maneuvers,

and field instruction of any part of the regular army at or near any military post or camp, or lake or seacoast, defenses of the United States. In such case the organized militia so participating shall receive the same pay, subsistence, and transportation as is provided by law for the officers and men of the regular army, to be paid out of the appropriation for the pay, subsistence, and transportation of the army; provided, that the command of such military post or camp and of the officers and troops of the United States there stationed shall remain with the regular commander of the post, without regard to the rank of the commanding or other officers of the militia temporarily so encamped within its limits or in its vicinity.

The Fort Riley Military Reservation, chosen as the theater for the maneuvers, is centrally located, and is the largest of its kind in the country. Fort Riley was located in 1852 by Major E. A. Ogden, and the monument there to his memory marks the geographical center of the United States. The Smoky Hill and Republican rivers join on the reservation and form the Kansas River. There are smaller streams, ravines, hills, timber, and prairie,—rough and level stretches that present suitable conditions for varied problems. There are twenty thousand acres in the reservation, and enough adjacent farm land was leased for use during the maneuvers to provide upward of sixty square miles for the operations. Approximately, fifteen

thousand men took part in the maneuvers. This was but two thousand less than the number of soldiers engaged in the battle of Wilson's Creek in the Civil War.

The maneuvers furnished object lessons both for the regular troops and the militia. To the regulars they were particularly valuable, for the reason that all arms of the service were given an opportunity to act in conjunction and to observe the movements of each other. To the militia the maneuvers presented opportunities never before accorded the citizen soldiers. The theories taught from the tactics and drill regulations were put into use. The militiamen emerged from the humdrum of the school of the soldier, and the ceremonial and prescribed movements of a dress parade, to the formations, movements, and conditions of actual warfare, which stopped short only of bullets. The maneuvers did not degenerate into sham battles.

Col. Arthur L. Wagner, assistant adjutant-general of the United States army and chief umpire of the maneuvers held this year and last, in his official report on the maneuvers of 1902, said: "The exercises carried out more than surpassed my expectations. It is extremely difficult in the conduct of maneuvers to maintain the conditions of actual warfare and prevent the contact of opposing forces from assuming 'impossible' conditions and degenerating into a 'sham battle.' It is gratifying to note that the conditions of actual warfare were maintained to a striking degree. This I attribute mainly to the fact that most of the officers engaged in the maneuvers had participated in actual warfare. They appreciated the value of the exercises as training for real campaign duties, and their zeal, experience, and ability contributed to an immeasurable degree to the success of the maneuvers. The opinion generally—I think, universally—expressed by the officers participating in these exercises was that a great deal had been learned that could not otherwise have been acquired. In my opinion, everybody who participated in the encampment learned something, and many of us learned a great deal."

Last year, but two States, Colorado and Kansas, sent militia organizations to take part in the maneuvers. This year, Arkansas, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, and Texas were represented. The Colorado troops were prevented from attending by strikes at home which demanded their attention. The encampment, as an annual event for the militia, is yet new. It is expected that the number of States to take advantage of the opportunities offered for the militia will increase year by year.

Major-Gen. John C. Bates, commanding the



MAJOR-GEN. JOHN C. BATES IN HIS HEADQUARTERS TENT AT FORT RILEY.

Department of Missouri, with headquarters at Omaha, was in command of the maneuver camp. The troops participating constituted the Provisional Division, the organization being as follows:

PROVISIONAL DIVISION.—Major-Gen. John C. Bates, U.S.A., commanding; First Battalion, United States Engineers; Hospital Corps Company of Instruction, No. 1; Company B, United States Signal Corps; Signal Company, Nebraska National Guard.

FIRST BRIGADE.—Brig.-Gen. Frederick D. Grant, U.S.A., commanding; Second United States Infantry; Twelfth United States Infantry (First Battalion); Twenty-first United States Infantry; Provisional Battalion, Texas National Guard.

SECOND BRIGADE.—Brig.-Gen. J. Franklin Bell, U.S.A., commanding; Sixth United States Infantry (eleven companies); Twenty-fifth United States Infantry (eleven companies); Fifty-fifth Regiment Infantry, Iowa National Guard.



PACK MULES CARRYING THE AMMUNITION FOR THE TWENTY-EIGHTH MOUNTAIN BATTERY.
(The small guns of the battery are taken apart and the pieces packed on mules for travel.)

THIRD BRIGADE.—Brig.-Gen. Thos. H. Barry, U.S.A., commanding; Provisional Regiment, Arkansas State Guard; Provisional Regiment, Missouri National Guard; Second Regiment Infantry, Nebraska National Guard.

FOURTH BRIGADE.—Brig.-Gen. James W. F. Hughes, Kansas National Guard, commanding; First Infantry, Kansas National Guard; Second Infantry, Kansas National Guard.

CAVALRY BRIGADE.—Brig.-Gen. Camillo C. C. Carr, U.S.A., commanding; Fourth United States Cavalry (eight troops); Eighth United States Cavalry (eight troops); Tenth United States Cavalry (eight troops).

DIVISIONAL ARTILLERY.—Major William H. Coffin, Artillery Corps, commanding; Sixth, Seventh, Nineteenth, Twentieth, Twenty-fifth, Twenty-eighth, and Twenty-ninth batteries, United States Field Artillery; Batteries A and B, Field Artillery, Kansas National Guard.

While but few States were represented in the camp by militia organizations, the majority of the States sent officers of the National Guard to witness the maneuvers. These officers were given every advantage to witness the exemplifications of the war problems and to take part in the discussions regarding them. Besides these militia officers from the various States, several foreign countries were represented by military attachés.

Many of the regular troops marched between their stations and the maneuver camp. The First Battalion of Engineers, Second Squadron Fourth Cavalry, the Twenty-eighth Mountain

Battery, the Sixth Infantry and band of Fort Leavenworth, marched to and from Fort Riley. The Second Battalion of the Twenty-fifth Infantry traveled between Fort Reno, Oklahoma, and Wichita, Kan., by rail, and marched between Wichita and Fort Riley. The First Squadron of the Eighth Cavalry returned from Fort Riley to Fort Sill, Oklahoma, by marching a distance of over three hundred and fifty miles. The First and Third battalions of the Twenty-fifth Infantry marched between Fort Niobrara and Norfolk, Neb., and made the remainder of the journey by rail. The band and First and Third squadrons of the Tenth Cavalry marched both ways between Fort Robinson and Sidney, Neb., making the rest of the journey by rail.

The problems for the maneuvers were prepared by a board of regular army officers. The two forces engaged were uniformed, and known as the "Blue" and the "Brown." All the troops were encamped together, and for each maneuver were divided and assigned to the Blue or the Brown, as was contemplated in the problem. The Blue forces wore the familiar blue uniform, the Brown forces wore the khaki or brown canvas blouse and trousers.

During the solution of the problems prepared for the officers and troops to solve, the umpires followed the various commands and decided when proper or improper moves were executed, the proper positions occupied, the troops distributed to the best advantage, and the necessary precautions taken. The umpires noted the actions of the commands on each side



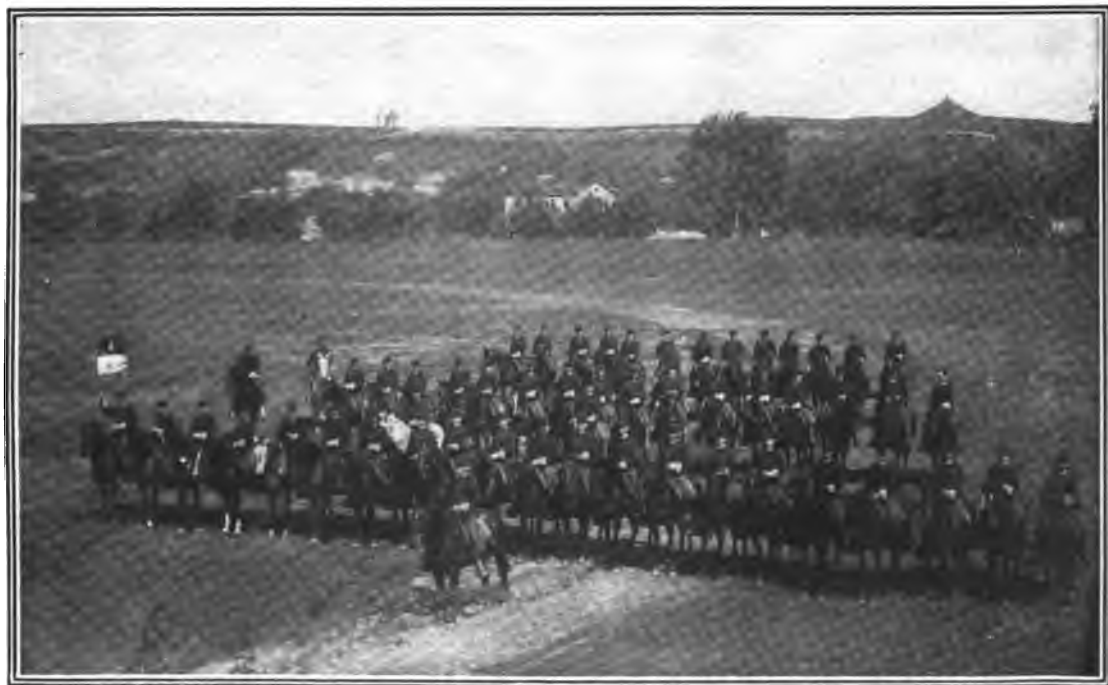
BATTERY IN ACTION.

(Caissons, with ammunition, in the rear.)

singly and collectively, and also observed the conduct of all engaged, from the highest officer to the privates. None of the opposing forces were allowed to come closer than one hundred yards of each other, as there is danger of accidents from even blank cartridges at a close range. If a charge were made, the movement stopped when the lines were within that distance of each other.

The maneuvers were stragetical, and ceased when nothing short of actual conditions of bat-

tle could decide the victory. When a condition was brought about, by either the Blue or the Brown, that in actual warfare would be productive of results, then the umpires rendered a decision accordingly. Certain rules were followed; for instance: cavalry standing to receive a charge was considered defeated; patrols fired upon within one hundred and fifty yards by dismounted men or scouts were considered captured; in a cavalry *versus* cavalry charge of equal forces the victory went to the side bringing up a formed



TROOP "A," SIXTH CAVALRY.

reserve ; when unprepared and attacked by cavalry on the flank, infantry or dismounted cavalry, although superior in strength, was declared defeated if the attackers were not discovered until within four hundred yards ; cavalry could not move at a walk when exposed to the fire of artillery which was less than twenty-five hundred yards away ; artillery could not go into action under infantry fire within eight hundred yards under ordinary conditions ; at one thousand yards artillery could hold out against dismounted skirmish fire.

The assistant umpires reported to the chief umpire, and a final report on the outcome of the maneuver was prepared. Major-General Bates and Colonel Wagner met with the army and militia officers in a large tent, where the final report and the outcome of each maneuver was discussed, with the aid of a large map. In this same tent the militia officers attended lectures by officers of the regular army.

The signal corps of the army and the militia worked together with the Blues and the Browns, stringing field telegraph and telephone lines and maintaining signal stations. The engineering corps built the pontoon bridges across the Kansas and Republican rivers. The hospital corps maintained a field hospital and provided ambulance service. In the maneuvers the umpires



SIGNAL CORPS STRINGING TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH WIRES USED IN THE MANEUVERS.

declared a certain number of men killed or wounded on each side. It was the duty of the



SEVENTH BATTERY FIELD ARTILLERY READY FOR QUICK WORK.

(This is known as a "horse battery," and the caissons with the extra ammunition are left behind. The ammunition for use is carried in the limber chests.)



MAJOR-GEN. JOHN C. BATES AND STAFF CROSSING THE PONTOON BRIDGE BUILT BY THE ENGINEERS
ACROSS THE KANSAS RIVER.

hospital corps to care for the wounded. The members of the corps received lectures from army surgeons during the encampment.

The Twenty-eighth Battery, which took part in the exercises, is the only mountain battery in the army. The small guns used are taken apart and packed on mules, making it possible for them to be transported in the roughest of mountain country.

The best of order was maintained in camp. Liquor dealers were prohibited from the reservation. The enlisted men displayed a decided interest in the event, and the enthusiasm and *esprit de corps* were marked. Several militia regiments have made clean records, the reports showing no men under arrest and none in the guardhouse during the encampment.

The officers and men engaged in athletic contests for the championships of the Department of Missouri. The officers from the various commands met in polo games. For the enlisted men,

running, jumping, obstacle races, wall-scaling for infantry, artillery drivers' contests, tent-pegging and tent-pitching contests, mounted bareback wrestling for the cavalymen, and hurdle races for man and horse were held.

Every precaution was taken for the perfect sanitation of the maneuver camp, and the strictest orders were those pertaining to cleanliness. Experience has taught that far more soldiers die from disease and sickness in camp than are killed in battle. Especial attention was given to the selection of a suitable location for the camp, and by lectures and example the militia officers were instructed on this important point. Straw and crude petroleum were used daily in burning out sinks. Lime was used freely as disinfectant. The men were ordered to keep the tent walls up every day when the weather permitted, and the daily airing of clothing was required. Twice daily an inspection of the tents, kitchens, and surroundings was made.





EVOLUTION OF AMERICAN SMALL ARMS.

(1. New Springfield magazine rifle, caliber .30, with rod-bayonet. 2. Kräg-Jorgenson magazine rifle, caliber .30, with knife-bayonet; used during the war with Spain. 3. Springfield breech-loader, single shot, caliber .45, with rod-bayonet; issued to army in 1873; the rod-bayonet, however, was adopted in a later issue. 4. Old Springfield muzzle-loader, using percussion caps, with long angular bayonet, used during and before the Civil War. 5. Flintlock musket, used before and after the Revolution.)

THE NEW SPRINGFIELD RIFLE AND THE IMPROVEMENT IN SMALL ARMS.

BY CHARLES J. LEACH.

WHEN the new Springfield rifle is issued to our army, the United States will be equipped with the most serviceable and powerful military rifle in the world. It embodies the best features of the present Kräg-Jorgenson and the Mauser rifle, and has been given the most exhaustive tests under conditions likely to be met with in active service. These include placing the rifle in water so that some of its parts might rust, and also throwing sand in the mechanism.

The new weapon is what is known as the clip-loading magazine gun, being provided with a cut-off, which enables the firer to use it as a single loader, with the contents of the magazine (five cartridges) in reserve.

At present, only a few of these guns have been issued to expert shots in the army for firing tests; but about December, 1903, their manufacture for issue to the entire army will commence. Sixty thousand will be required, and they will

be turned out at the rate of about two hundred and fifty per day. In case of emergency, however, a larger number can be turned out, and private manufacturers could be called upon to make the rifles. The arming of the militia with the new rifle will be completed as soon as possible after the army is equipped with them.

The new Springfield weighs 9.47 pounds, against 10.64 for the Kräg, and its barrel is 24 inches, while that of the Kräg is 32. Over all, the new piece measures 43 inches, against 49 inches for the Kräg. Although the caliber of both rifles is the same,—namely, .30,—the shooting power of the Springfield is vastly superior.

While the bullets of both rifles are of the same weight, the smokeless-powder charge of the new rifle is increased to 43.3 grains, that of the Kräg being 37.6 grains. The increased charge gives the new Springfield a muzzle velocity of 2,300 feet per second, which is just 300

feet per second faster than the Kräg, and increases the muzzle energy from 1,952 foot-pounds to 2,582.

This increased energy causes the bullet to travel in a flatter trajectory, the rise above the ground at the highest point of the trajectory being much less. This increases what is known as the danger space, or the space covered by the bullet at a height above the ground not exceeding that of a man. Thus, in shooting at 1,000 yards, the bullet at its greatest height, which is at 500 yards, rises only 20.67 feet in the new Springfield, whereas the bullet in the Kräg rises 25.8 feet.

As an example of the tremendous decrease in the height of the trajectory of modern arms and the increase of the danger space by the flatter trajectory, it is interesting to note that in shooting at 300 yards with the smooth-bore muskets used before our Civil War the bullet rose at the turning-point of the trajectory 129 feet in the air. This turning-point was at 175 yards.

The new Springfield has a range of five miles, although it is, of course, impossible to see a human target at that distance. The piece will be sighted up to at least 3,000 yards; but even this distance is too great for actual aiming at a man or house, but will aid in dropping shots at random. At 1,000 yards, a line of men resembles a broad line, the uniform width of which is broken above by the line of heads and below by the line of legs. At 1,200 yards, cavalry is distinguished from infantry, and movements can be seen. At 2,000 yards, bodies of troops can be distinguished, and a man or horse appears like a dot. The whites of a man's eyes can be seen at 30 yards. At a distance of 53 feet, the new Springfield has penetrated 54.7 feet of pine boards, and 6.3 feet at 1,500 yards.

To provide for the rare occasions when the bayonet is needed, and at the same time provide a rod for cleaning, the new gun will be provided with a rod bayonet, which is raised from the wooden casing under the barrel, and held in its place when raised by a spring. It is similar to the rod bayonet adopted for the old Springfield caliber .45, some twelve years ago. This has dispensed with the clumsy bayonet scabbard, and will enable the soldier to carry on his person instead an efficient intrenching tool, not in any way connected with the rifle, and provide him with an efficient bayonet and cleaning rod, which can also be used for driving out any defective shell that may possibly stick in the gun.

An important feature in both the new Springfield and the present Kräg is the entire absence

of recoil when firing, and bruised shoulders and arms, caused by the heavy recoil of the .45 Springfield and older rifles, are now a thing of the past. The barrel of the new Springfield will be entirely incased in wood, instead of only part of it, as in the present rifles.

The old cartridge box, carrying some twenty rounds, has now been replaced by the web belt, carrying one hundred or more rounds, as the small caliber of the present bullet, which in diameter is about the same as an ordinary lead pencil, permits of a larger supply on the person of the soldier than in the case of .45 or .50 caliber bullets.

With accuracy, twenty rounds have been fired with the new Springfield by experts in 15½ seconds, fifteen of these rounds being fired singly and five from the magazine. The average soldier, except when rapid fire was ordered, would probably not shoot more than ten shots a minute, if that many.

In 1878,—twenty-five years ago,—the .45 caliber Springfield of the United States had a rear sight graduated to 1,100 yards, and the sights of the rifles of some of the other European powers were graduated as follows: France, 1,968; England, 1,300; Spain, 1,093; Italy, 1,093; Germany, 1,750 yards. The velocity of the bullet at 82 feet from the muzzle of the rifle was then,—for the United States, 1,350 feet per second; France, 1,410; England, 1,263; Spain, 1,345; Italy, 1,345; Germany, 1,394.

To-day, the muzzle velocity per second of the rifles of the above powers is as follows: United States Springfield, 2,300; French Lebel, 2,073; English Lee-Metford, 2,000; Spanish Mauser, 2,388; Italian Mannlicher-Carcano, 2,100; German Mauser, 2,034 feet. Sights on these rifles are now graduated thus: United States, 2,000; France, 2,187; England, 2,800; Spain, 2,187; Italy, 2,100; Germany, 2,187 yards.

The high power of the modern rifle has led to several inventions for the protection of the soldier. These include the cuirass, or jacket, and the rifle shield. From tests made of these, not long since, by officers of the Ordnance Department, United States army, it was found that the cuirass, or jacket, furnishes protection against a revolver bullet at very close ranges, but at a range of twenty-five yards the jacket is easily pierced by a bullet from the caliber .38 revolver. It does not give protection against the jacketed bullet of the automatic pistol, caliber .38, at any moderate range.

The adoption of the cuirass, therefore, would require the soldier to carry a heavy weight which would give him no protection against rifle or carbine bullets at any fighting range, and would

not protect him against the revolver bullet even at moderate ranges greater than twenty-five yards.

The rifle shield, consisting of steel plate one-sixteenth of an inch thick, backed by a 1-inch thickness of bullet-proof fabric, will give protection against the caliber .30 rifle at ranges of five hundred yards, or greater.

The bullet-proof fabric one inch thick appears to possess resisting power about equal to or perhaps slightly greater than that of the steel plate one-sixteenth of an inch thick. Its weight, however, is greater than the steel plate, the steel plate 12½ by 18 inches weighing 3 pounds 11 ounces, while the fabric one inch thick, same dimensions, weighs 5 pounds 8 ounces when dry and 10 pounds 8 ounces when saturated with water. From this it will be seen that of two shields of equal weight, one of steel and one of bullet-proof fabric, the steel shield will afford the greater protection. The fabric, moreover, would have the objection of being more liable to damage than steel; and when wet its weight would be almost doubled, while its bullet-resisting qualities would be greatly reduced. None of these devices are considered practicable for the soldier.

Tests as to penetration of the present rifle bullets in sand, loam, and steel have been made, showing that the penetration into sand and loam at 50 feet does not exceed 6 inches; at 500 yards, 13½ inches; and at 1,000 yards, 16½ inches. At the short range of 50 feet the velocity is so high that before displacement of the sand can result the bullets are completely destroyed,—the lead is fused and the steel casing torn into ribbons.

From the above it will be seen that the least penetration in sand occurs at the shortest ranges, and that at fifty feet distance six inches of sand is sufficient protection. At this distance the projectile is moving with so great a velocity that the particles of sand do not have time to admit of motion among themselves before the bullets are completely destroyed.

The penetrations at one thousand yards were greater than those at five hundred yards, the explanation being that having less velocity at that range their action is more of a pressure, like that of a cane being thrust into the sand, giving time for movement of the particles. At both 500 and 1,000 yard ranges the bullets were found uninjured.

Sweden has an American arm, the new Remington, sighted to the extreme range of 2,624 yards.

All the civilized powers of the world have adopted the magazine rifle of small caliber, and use smokeless-powder cartridges.

The following shows the penetrative power of the bullets of modern rifles: United States, new Springfield at 53 feet, 54.7 inches of pine; United States, Kräg-Jorgenson at 3 feet, 24.2 inches in dry oak; Canada, Lee-Enfield at 25 yards, 42 inches in fir; Great Britain and Egypt, Lee-Metford at 25 yards, 42 inches in pine; Belgium, Mauser at 109 yards, 32 inches in pine; France, Lebel at 218 yards, 24 inches in pine; Germany, Mauser at 109 yards, 32 inches in pine; Mexico, Mondragon at 25 yards, 42 inches in pine; Russia, Mouzin at 310 yards, 20 inches in fir; Spain, Mauser at 13 yards, 55 inches in pine; Sweden, new Remington at 109 yards, 4 inches in deal; Switzerland, Schmidt-Rubin at 218 yards, 23 inches in pine; Turkey, Mauser at 35 yards, 49 inches in pine.

Some of the great powers of Europe are even now looking for a still more deadly arm, and are experimenting with an automatic magazine rifle, or one in which the energy of the recoil is used to reload the rifle. All that it is necessary to do is to press the trigger, and the weapon continues to fire until all the cartridges in the magazine are used up. One of the serious difficulties to contend with in such rifles would be the supply of ammunition on the firing line.

The modern breech-loading and magazine rifle has been made possible by the American invention of the metallic cartridge; and the ideas which have resulted in the development of heavy ordnance, as well as small arms, also originated in America.

During the war between Russia and Turkey, in 1877, the long-range American rifle, in the hands of the Turks, first showed its deadly effectiveness. Anywhere from half a mile to a mile and a half the Russians found themselves subject to a fire beyond the range of their own guns.

The caliber of muskets used during the Revolution was 75-hundredths of an inch, and two hundred yards was a very extreme range for accurate shooting, as it was in the Mexican War. In 1812, muskets of .70 caliber were used, with no rear sight. This was a Springfield gun, and a smooth-bore flintlock; and some of them, it is said, were used in the Mexican War. The powder charges were, with the bullet, made up in the form of a cartridge, wrapped in linen or stout paper, with a thin paper on the end to bite off before the charge was inserted in the gun. This form of cartridge was used over a hundred years ago, and during our Civil War, but with the addition of the percussion cap.

The caliber of the Springfield, in the Civil War, was .58, but there were not enough of them to supply the vast army of the North, and arms

in great quantities were purchased in Europe from different countries, but the majority were the English Enfield.

The guns varied in caliber, and caused endless confusion, and were very injurious to the efficiency of troops. There were calibers of .54, .58 and .69, and even others, and frequently the ammunition would get mixed up. The Enfield was sighted up to 500 yards, but 300 or 400 yards was considered a long range. Berdan's sharpshooters, who used some rifles that weighed 35 pounds, and had to be fired from a rest, were thought to be doing wonders when they fired at 600 yards.

Effective fire with the old musket could not be delivered at a range over two hundred or two hundred and fifty yards.

A breech-loader was issued to our troops for trial in 1816, or half a century before the Prussian needle-gun made itself famous.

The development of our small-arm manufactories during the Civil War resulted in a large demand from European countries for American arms, and within two or three years, commencing about 1868, \$100,000,000 was sent to this country in payment for military arms and ammunition. The Remington Arms Company alone received \$25,000,000.

The great range of the modern arm and the use of smokeless powder by skilled shots was best demonstrated in the Boer War, where the Boers, like our troops in the Revolution, trained from boyhood in the use of the rifle, caused such slaughter among the better drilled but poorer marksmen of Great Britain. The Boer War still further emphasized the necessity of using cover wherever possible against the present deadly small arm. The necessity of competent scouts and patrols and of the open-order formation was also demonstrated. Not the least important lesson was the need of mounted infantry to operate against such a mobile force as the Boers, and over such vast territory so difficult to traverse. The war in South Africa also developed the need of accurate sights, for the British sight proved defective, and no less than 250,000 of them had to be sent out to the troops in the field to replace the defective ones. The sights on our American Kräg, during the Spanish War, were also defective, those on the Spanish Mauser being most accurate. Had our troops met a better-trained army than that of Spain, under the circumstances, the superior Mauser would have told heavily against them. The defective sights have now been remedied.

Under the new tactics, when the supply of ammunition is ample, and the enemy is in large bodies, volleys may be fired at extreme ranges. The fire at will and the fire with counted cartridges are used from four hundred to eight hundred yards. The rapid fire is used at short ranges, at the decisive moment of action.

The squad is the basis of the extended-order tactics, and men are taught to regard the squad as the unit from which they should never be separated. If their squad should be broken up, or the men become separated, they place themselves under the orders of the nearest squad leader, as if it were the one to which they originally belonged.

Men firing at the enemy, who may be beyond the control of the squad leader, do not fire at a distance of over 400 yards at a man lying down, 500 yards at a man kneeling, 600 yards at a man standing, 700 yards at a horseman, and at not over 800 yards at a small squad of men or line of skirmishers.

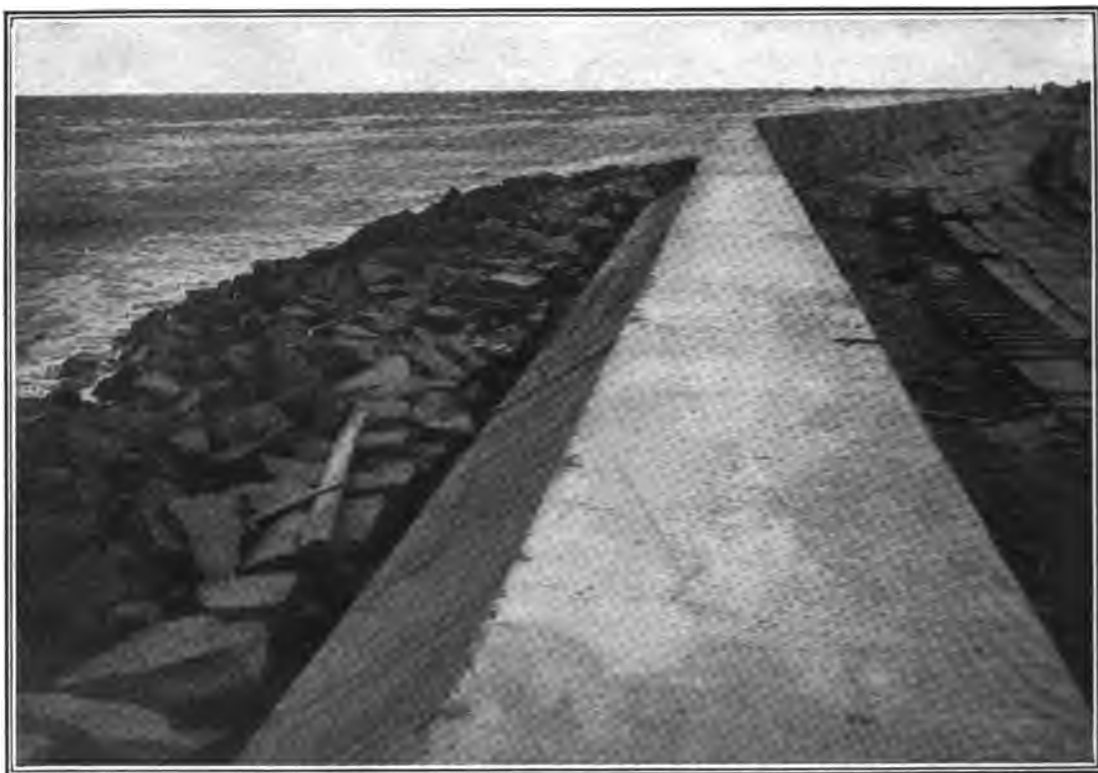
Under the new tactics, the command "Load" can be given from any position, and when the firing of volleys is needed the commands are simply, "Load," "Ready," "Aim," "Fire."

With the muzzle-loading guns, even in the Civil War, it required ten commands to load, as follows: (1) "Load," (2) "Handle cartridge," (3) "Tear cartridge," (4) "Charge cartridge," (5) "Draw ramrod," (6) "Ram," (7) "Return ramrod," (8) "Cast about," (9) "Prime," (10) "Shoulder arms," (11) "Ready," (12) "Aim," and (13) "Fire."

Effectiveness in battle depends upon the skill of the marksman as much as upon the perfection of his weapon. It was estimated that at the battle of Churubusco, during the Mexican War, the Americans expended one hundred and twenty-five shots for each of the enemy disabled, and the Mexicans eight hundred.

The South African, Spanish-American, and Chinese wars show that the wounds inflicted by the high-powered small-caliber bullets are of a merciful nature, producing but little shock, and unless in a vital part, the wounds yield readily to treatment and recovery.

This merciful quality of the bullet is found objectionable in warfare against savages, and the British in North Africa are finding that the small caliber bullet does not stop the rush of the fanatical followers of the Mad Mullah. The .45 and .50 caliber bullets made frightful wounds, and had a far better stopping effect, than those now in use.



A SECTION OF COMPLETED SEA WALL AND RIP-RAP FACING.

GALVESTON'S GREAT SEA WALL.

A LITTLE over three years ago,—in September, 1900,—the city of Galveston, Texas, experienced one of the greatest disasters in American history. The storm which swept over the island destroyed such a large section of the city that it was considered doubtful if Galveston could recover from the blow which it had received, for the heart of the business section of the city and a number of the most pretentious residence districts were literally ruined, the loss aggregating many millions of dollars in money, to say nothing of the number of persons who were killed.

When the question of rebuilding the city came up, the plan was suggested of changing the site to another locality and abandoning the present city altogether. As is well known, it was built upon an island which is merely a sand-spit not exceeding three miles in width at any point, and extending parallel to the mainland a distance of about thirty-one miles. The fact that the city almost directly faces the Gulf, and that the highest part of the land on which its build-

ings stand is but a few feet above high tide, caused many to fear that a repetition of the storm of 1900 might totally destroy it.

The majority of the citizens of Galveston, however, opposed the removal of the city, since it would be necessary to abandon the harbor which had been created, and the railroad terminals, which would entail a great loss, aside from the value of the other property which would have to be relinquished. A strong feeling of civic pride was also developed which opposed the idea, and as the result of public sentiment, it was determined to wall the city against further inroads of the sea. Government engineers and other experts, who were called to investigate the feasibility of this project, gave the opinion that such a plan was practicable. Then the question of how to pay for it arose. It was decided to issue bonds to the extent of \$1,500,000, a large portion of which was taken by residents of the city. As an indication of the feeling among the people, it may be added that the securities were purchased not only by

the wealthier class, but by clerks, laborers, and many who could not afford to buy more than one or two of the bonds.

With the money thus realized the contracts were let to carry out plans submitted by a board of engineers, which consists of Gen. H. M. Roberts, of the United States army; Alfred Noble, of Chicago; and H. C. Ripley, of Ann Arbor, Mich. As a result a remarkable breastwork is being completed by which, it is believed, that the city will be able to defy any further attacks of the sea. The structure is available not only as a protection, but in other ways. It is over three miles in length, or nearly 18,000 feet, skirting the shore of the island in front of the most exposed portion of the city. Its top is three feet above the highest point reached by the water in the storm of 1900. Here the wall is five feet in width, gradually extending to sixteen feet on the bottom. It is concaved on the side exposed to the Gulf, in order to minimize the force of the waves; but an additional barrier is provided in what is called "rip-rap" work, composed of blocks of granite laid along the water face of the wall. This formation is twenty-seven feet in width, and the stone is piled to a height ranging from three to five feet above the surface of the water. When it is stated that some of the single blocks weigh a ton apiece, an idea of the massiveness of this protection can be gained, while special care has been taken to prevent the wall from being undermined, since the island is composed so largely of sand. Before it was laid a foundation was made by driving wooden piles through the sand



DRIVING PILES FOR FOUNDATION OF WALL.

into the clay formation which exists below it. To the piling was fastened a face of heavy planks, also driven down to the clay. A trench three feet deep was excavated back of the planking, which was filled with concrete, and upon this blocks of the same material laid to form the wall proper, the material being manufactured by special machinery on the spot and molded into the proper size and shape.

To further strengthen the wall, the shore back of it is being filled in with earth and stone to a depth of two hundred feet. Those in charge of the improvement have taken advantage of this to form an ornamental feature which will be one of the greatest attractions of the city. The top of the wall proper will be used as a walk, back of which a driveway thirty feet in width will be arranged, paved with stone and concrete. On the



SIDE VIEW, SHOWING CONTOUR OF WALL.

inner side of the driveway is another walk, the balance of the space being sodded. This portion will be planted with trees and shrubs, as well to keep it impacted as to make a decorative feature, so that, instead of an unsightly structure along the beach front, the wall will form an attractive esplanade with the features of a boulevard and promenade.

The people of Galveston are so determined to protect themselves from further storms, however, that they have decided upon another improvement which is almost as important as the sea wall. Beyond the points where it terminates is a considerable area of low ground, which it has been determined to elevate to a height equal to that reached by the storm of 1900. The work is to be done by covering the area with material pumped from the water in the vicinity and distributed by pipes. This will be performed by the employment of powerful dredges, which take the sand and mud from the bottom by suction and force it ashore through conduits. It is esti-

mated that the cost of the improvement will be fully \$2,000,000, but bonds are to be issued immediately to pay for it, and the indications are that most, if not all, will be taken by the citizens.

When the small population of Galveston is considered, and the extent to which it was crippled financially by the disaster referred to, the determination and courage of the community form a notable illustration of the spirit which dominates the Southwest. In rebuilding the portions of the city which were devastated the people have been compelled to pay a sum closely approaching the total loss by damage, the smallest estimate of which was \$50,000,000. Yet they have almost unanimously favored the extra expense to protect themselves, although its cost to each inhabitant represents nearly \$100, but with the decision to construct this bulwark has come a feeling of hopefulness for the future which pervades all classes, and the moral effect of the improvement will really be one of its most beneficial results.



VIEW OF WALL FROM SEA FRONT, SHOWING VARIOUS STAGES OF COMPLETION.

A DEFENSE OF RUSSIA'S POLICY IN FINLAND.

BY HIS EXCELLENCY M. DE PLEHVE.

(Russian Minister of the Interior.)

[It is not often that a great minister of state will deign to meet criticism of his policy or methods by writing in explanation and defense for the pages of a foreign periodical. It is certainly out of the ordinary course of things that such a man as M. de Plehve, the Russian Minister of the Interior, should write for publication in England and America a vindication of Russian policy in Finland. The present article was evoked by an "open letter" addressed to the Russian minister by Mr. W. T. Stead, and published in the English *Review of Reviews* for August. Its point of view is not essentially different from that taken by the eminent Russian jurist, Professor de Martens, when last in New York, in conversation with the editor of this magazine. Mr. Stead absolutely dissents from M. de Plehve's views as here expressed. Curiously enough, the chief difference of opinion between them is based upon a matter that neither of them discusses. Mr. Stead takes it for granted that the relation between Finland and Russia is defined by the terms of an express compact which Russia may not alter or violate without Finland's consent. M. de Plehve assumes that the Duchy of Finland is a part of the Russian Empire in the full sense, and therefore amenable to such general principles relating to military, fiscal, and other matters as are deemed necessary for what to the Russian mind is always the paramount consideration,—namely, imperial unity. Professor de Martens always distinctly asserts that Russia is not in the least bound by any such compact with Finland as Englishmen and Americans have commonly supposed to exist. M. de Plehve ignores altogether the idea of such a compact, and takes it for granted that the Czar's government has the right throughout the Czar's dominions to take such measures from time to time as the larger objects of Russian public policy require.]

DEAR SIR,—The esteem with which I have always regarded the tendency of your journalistic labors in the British press has led me to read the "open letter" you addressed to me in the August number of the *Review of Reviews* with that consideration which is due to the frankly expressed opinion of a foreign writer inspired with friendly feelings toward Russia.

In your "open letter" you enumerate the accusations which are brought against the Russian Government with regard to its policy in Finland (the manifesto of February 3–15, 1899, the new military law and the special powers conferred on the governor-general for preserving order). You then ask whether the benefit derived by the Russian Government from the extraordinary measures which it has applied to Finland during the last four years counterbalances the harm which, in your opinion, these same measures have done it in the public opinion of western Europe and America, as well as in the feelings and attitude of the local population, which has replied to them by emigration *en masse*.

Before answering your question, permit me to point out that in criticising Russian policy in Finland a distinction should be made between its fundamental principles,—i.e., the ends which it is meant to attain, and its outward expression, which depends upon circumstances.

The former,—i.e., the aims and principles,—remain *unalterable*; the latter,—i.e., the way in which this policy finds expression,—is of an incidental and temporary character, and does not always

depend on the Russian authority alone. This is what should be taken into consideration by Russia's Western friends when estimating the value of the information which reaches them from Finland.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT AS A RUSSIAN PRINCIPLE.

As to the programme of the Russian Government in the Finland question, it is substantially as follows :

The fundamental problem of every supreme authority,—the happiness and prosperity of the governed,—can be solved only by the mutual coöperation of the government and the people. The requirements presented to the partners in this common task are, on the one hand, that the people should recognize the unity of state principle and policy and the binding character of its aims ; and, on the other, that the government should acknowledge the benefit accruing to the state from the public activity, along the lines of individual development, of its component elements.

Such are the grounds on which the government and the people should unite in the performance of their common task. The combination of imperial unity with local autonomy, of autocracy with self-government, forms the principle which must be taken into consideration in judging the action of the Russian Government in the Grand Duchy of Finland. The manifesto of February 3–15, 1899, is not a negation of such a peaceful coöperation, but a confirmation of the aforesaid leading principle of our government in its

full development. It decides that the issue of imperial laws, common both to Russia and Finland, must not depend altogether on the consent of the members of the Finland Diet, but is the prerogative of the Imperial Council of State, with the participation on such occasions of members of the Finland Senate. There is nothing in this manifesto to shake the belief of Russia's friends in the compatibility of the principles of autocracy with a large measure of local self-government and civic liberty. The development of the spiritual and material powers of the population by its gradual introduction to participation in the conscious public life of the state, as a healthy, conservative principle of government, has always entered into the plans of the sovereign leaders of the life of Russia as a state. These intentions were but lately announced afresh from the throne by the manifesto of February 26 of the current year. In our country this process takes place in accordance with the historical basis of the empire, with the national peculiarities of its population.

The result is that in Russia we have the organization of local institutions which give self-government in the narrow sense of the word,—i.e., the right of the people to see to the satisfaction of their local economic needs. In Finland the idea of local autonomy was developed far earlier and in a far wider manner. Its present scope, which has grown and developed under Russian rule, embraces all sides, not only of the economic, but of the civil, life of the land. Russian autocracy has thus given irrefragable proof of its constructive powers in the sphere of civic development. The historian of the future will have to note its ethical importance in a far wider sphere as well: the greatest of social problems have found a peaceable solution in Russia, thanks to the conditions of its political organization.

ITS APPLICATION TO FINLAND.

For a full comprehension, however, of the manifesto of 1899, it must be regarded as one of the phases in the development of Finland's relations to Russia. It will then become evident that as a legacy of the past it is the outcome of the natural course of events which sooner or later must have led up to it. The initiation of Finland into the historical destinies of the Russian Empire was bound to lead to the rise of questions calling for a general solution common both to the empire and to Finland. Naturally, in view of the subordinate status of the latter, such questions could be solved only in the order appointed for imperial legislation. At the same time, neither the fundamental laws of the Swedish period of rule in Finland, which were com-

pletely incompatible with its new status, nor the Statutes of the Diet, introduced by Alexander II., and determining the order of issue of local laws, touched, or could touch, the question of the issue of general imperial laws. This question arose in the course of the legislative work on the systematization of the fundamental laws of Finland. This task, undertaken by order of the Emperor Alexander II. for the more precise determination of the status of Finland as an indivisible part of our state, was continued during the reign of his august successor, the Emperor Alexander III., and led to the question of determining the order of issue of general imperial laws. The rules drafted for this purpose in 1893 formed the contents of the manifesto of 1899. Thus we see that during six years they remained without application, there being no practical necessity for their publication. When, however, this necessity arose, owing to the lapse of the former military law, the manifesto was issued. It was, therefore, the finishing touch to the labor of many years at the determination of the manner in which the principle of a united empire was to find expression within the limits of Finland, and remained substantially true to the traditions which for a century had reigned in the relations between Russia and Finland. It presented a combination of the principle of autocracy with that of local self-government without any serious limitations of the rights of the latter. Moreover, while preserving the historical principle of Russian empire-building, this law determined the form of the expression of the autocratic power within the limits of the Grand Duchy in a manner so much in accord with the conditions of life in Finland that it did not touch the organization of a single one of the national local institutions of the duchy.

This law, in its application to the new conscription regulations, has alleviated the condition of the population of Finland. Contrary to the information you have received, the military burden laid on the population of the land has not been increased by 5,000 recruits annually, but has been decreased from 2,000 men to 500 per annum, and latterly to 280. As you will see, there is in reality no opposition between the will of the Emperor of Russia as announced to Finland in 1899 and his generous initiative at The Hague Conference. But, you ask me, has not this confirmation of the ancient principles of Russian state policy in Finland been bought at too dear a price? I shall try to answer you. The hostility of public opinion toward us in the West in connection with Finnish matters is much to be regretted, but hopes may be entertained that under the influence of better infor-

mation on Finnish affairs this hostility may lose its present bitterness. We are accustomed, moreover, to see that the West, while welcoming the progressive development of Russia along the old lines it, Europe, has followed itself, is not always as amicably disposed toward the growth of the political and social self-consciousness of Russia and toward the independent historical process taking place in her in the shape of the concentration of her forces for the fulfillment of her peaceful vocation in the history of the human race.

ATTITUDE OF THE FINNISH PEOPLE TOWARD RUSSIA.

As to the present attitude of the population of Finland toward us, to you, as to a friend of Russia, I am ready to make the most reassuring statements. The attitude of the population of Finland toward Russia is not at all so inimical as would appear on reading the articles in the foreign press proceeding from the pen of hostile journalists. To the honor of the best elements of the Finnish population, it must be said that the degree of prosperity attained by Finland during the past century under the *egis* of the Russian throne is perfectly evident to them; they know that it is the Russian Government which has resuscitated the Finnish race, systematically crushed down as it had been in the days of Swedish power. The more prudent among the Finlanders realize that now, as before, the characteristic local organization of Finland remains unaltered, that the laws which guarantee the provincial autonomy of Finland are still preserved, and that now, as before, the institutions are active which satisfy its social and economic needs on independent lines.

CAUSES OF EMIGRATION.

They understand, likewise, the real causes of the increasing emigration from Finland. If, along with them, political agitation has also played a certain part, alarming the credulous peasantry with the specter of military service on the distant borders of Russia, yet their emigration was and remains an economic phenomenon. Having originated long before the issue of the manifesto of 1899, it kept increasing under the influence of bad harvests, industrial crises, and the demand for labor in foreign lands. Such is also the case in Norway, where the percentage of emigration is even greater than in Finland.

According to a Stockholm correspondent of the German *Neue Preussische Kreuz-Zeitung*, reprinted in many other papers, the increase of emigration from the Scandinavian states has be-

come a genuine calamity, last summer Norway alone giving two thousand emigrants per week. This growth of emigration the Stockholm correspondent explains by the very causes to which I have referred, as well as by the agitation carried on by the agents of the social-democratic party, who breed dissatisfaction with their condition among the workmen and the lower classes of the population in general. Moreover, in the question of emigration from Finland we must not forget that many of the emigrants, having earned money abroad return to their native land again.

ANTI-RUSSIAN AGITATIONS.

Having elucidated the substantially unalterable aims of Russian policy in Finland, let us proceed to the causes which have led to its present incidental and temporary form of expression. This, undoubtedly, is distinguished by its severity, but such are the requirements of an utilitarian policy. By the by, the total of these severe measures amounts to twenty-six Finlanders expelled from the country and a few officials dismissed the service without the right to a pension. It was scarcely possible, however, to retain officials in the service of the state once they refused to obey their superiors. Nor was it possible to bear with the existence of a conspiracy which attempted to draw the peaceful and law-abiding population into a conflict with the government, and that, too, at a moment when the prudent members of the population of the duchy took the side of lawful authority, thereby calling forth against themselves persecution on the part of the secret leaders of the agitation party. The upholders of the necessity for a pacific policy toward Russia were subjected to moral and sometimes physical outrage, and their opponents were not ashamed to institute scandalous legal processes against them for the purpose of damaging their reputations.

Very different is the attitude of the great mass of the population, as the following incident shows: The president of the Abo Hofgericht, declining to follow the instructions of the party hostile to Russia was, on his arrival in Helsingfors, subjected to a variety of insults from the mob gathered at the railway station. On his return to Abo he was, on the contrary, presented with an address from the peasantry and local landowners, in which the following words occur,—"We understand very well that you have been led to your patriotic resolve to continue your labors in obedience to the government by deep conviction, and do not require gratitude either from us or from any others; but at the important crisis our people is now experiencing

it may be of some relief to you to learn that the preponderating majority of the people, and especially in broader classes, gratefully approve of the course you have taken."

It will scarcely be known to any one in the West that when signatures were being gathered for the great mass-address of protest dispatched to St. Petersburg in 1899, those who refused their signatures numbered martyrs among them. There are some who for their courage in refusing their signatures suffered ruin and disgrace and were imprisoned on trumped-up charges (v. the case of K., schoolmaster, of Seinijoki). Moreover, the agitators aimed at infecting the lower classes of the population with their intolerance and their hatred of Russians, but, it must be said, with scant success. The whole of the Western press reproduced the story of the Russian *korobeiniki* or peddlers, whom it was attempted to compare to wild beasts, for the capture of which rewards are given in Finland. During the year 1899 about two thousand of these peddlers were expelled from Finland, and were thus deprived of their accustomed earnings.

With our reference to the persecution of Russian peddlers we touch on a fresh series of accusations which may be brought against the leaders of the Finland opposition party. These charges amount to this, that the agitators of Finland have turned all their efforts to instilling into the minds of the local population and of the people of western Europe the idea of an impassable gulf lying between Russia, on the one hand, and western Europe, including Finland, on the other, and thus strive to stir up the West against Russia. In your article you speak of the former happy, cordial union between Russia and Finland which reconciled us with the West. In reality all the while a ceaseless agitation was going on in the Grand Duchy for the separation of Finland from Russia in all spheres and forms of life, economic as well as spiritual. Those Finlanders who were working for this separation, expressing themselves more freely in the foreign press, represented Finland as a bulwark of the West against Russia, regarded the Grand Duchy as a militant outpost of Western civilization and of Protestantism against the orthodox Slavonic East. Our ancient, perpetual Eastern foe—so, literally, were we styled in papers published in Stockholm by hostile Finlanders.

IMPERIAL UNITY AS AN END.

After these explanations I shall give the following answer to your entreaty to put an end to the present policy of Russia in Finland, which you are pleased to call the policy of General Bobrikoff. First of all, it is incorrect to connect the present course of Russian policy in Finland with the name of the present Governor-General of Finland alone, for, as regards the fundamental purpose of his labors, all the advisers and servants of his Imperial Majesty who have to do with the government of Finland are at one with him in their firm conviction that the measures now applied in Finland are called for by the pressing requirements of our state. With regard to the essence of the question, I repeat that in matters of government temporary phenomena should be distinguished from permanent ones. The incidental expression of Russian policy, necessitated by an open mutiny against the government in Finland, will, undoubtedly, be replaced by the former favor of the sovereign toward his Finnish subjects, as soon as peace is finally restored and the current of social life in that country assumes its normal course. Then, certainly, all repressive measures will be repealed. But the realization of the fundamental aim which the Russian Government has set itself in Finland,—i.e., the confirming in that land of the principle of imperial unity,—must continue, and it would be best of all if this end were attained with the trustful coöperation of local workers under the guidance of the sovereign to whom Divine Providence has committed the destinies of Russia and Finland.

We are entitled to hope for the possibility of such coöperation, as already all the branches of the imperial authority are acting freely with the active coöperation of natives of Finland. The prudent members of the population, who are in an immense majority, have calmed down, and show confidence in the Government; at the last summons for the conscription about 80 per cent. of those who were of conscription age put in an appearance, which is but little below the ordinary percentage of those who in former years appeared for conscription in Finland. Finally, in pamphlets circulating in Finland authoritative voices already state: "The Finnish people must recognize that the interests and demands of its Eastern neighbor are just."

Believe me, sir, yours truly, V. PLEHVE.
ST. PETERSBURG, August 19, 1906 (September 1).

REBIRTH OF THE JAPANESE LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

BY STANHOPE SAMS.

RECENT press dispatches from Tokyo contained a brief announcement that the government had decided to promote the adoption of the "Roman letter," as used in the books and newspapers of this country and of western Europe, and known in Japan as the *Roma-ji*, for writing and printing the Japanese language. While the newspapers of Europe and America were filling pages with partly fanciful narratives of Turkish atrocities, or with harrowing stories of the latest murder, a few words were deemed an adequate record of an event that crowned with success one of the most important reform movements in the history of civilization.

Briefly and primarily, this reform means a complete change in the handwriting and in the type of the newspapers, magazines, and books of more than forty million people. Briefly and secondarily, it means the sweeping away of the most hideous, cumbrous, and difficult system of writing ever devised, and the substitution for it of the simplest and clearest system of writing that civilization and art have evolved, and the consequent simplification of the Japanese language. Briefly, again, it means the opening of the outside world for Japan, and the letting out upon us, through gates long shut and barred, the refining influences of its own beautiful literature and art.

Changes in a language come very slowly, and usually they are unperceived by the generations that used it as a living speech during the period of its transformation. It was thus that Greek and Latin grew from tribal dialects into the polished classic tongues we know, and so French and English slowly emerged from jargons of Gaul and Britain. But a rare opportunity is presented to the Japanese and to us in this generation of witnessing, if we choose, what will probably be the most sweeping transformation that has ever taken place in the language of a great nation. To appreciate this tremendous revolution, we must have some notion of the present method of writing Japanese.

The Orientals are wonderful chirographers, and the systems of writing they have invented have been extremely intricate, though many of them have been of great beauty. No penman of the West can at all approach the exquisite craft of the scribes of Bagdad or Tahrán, who

write the Arabic character so gracefully as to make each scroll a finished picture, or of those of Peking, who paint the Chinese ideographs on silk so finely that each writing is worthy an exhibition in the Louvre. But even in the Orient there is no longer sufficient leisure for the practise of this art, and Japan has suddenly awakened to the fact that her very language, the only means by which she may hope to receive the message of the outside world or deliver her own, has isolated her and shut her in by impassable barriers.

Centuries ago, Japan borrowed the picture-writing of the Chinese. It was ill-suited for the purpose, because Japanese is inflected, and when the inflexible Chinese signs are used they must be read with verbal and other terminations, which are now usually written in *Kana*, or the native writing, in the text. Later, the Japanese invented a syllabary of fifty sounds, and wrote it by means of fragments of certain Chinese signs, these fragments being called *Katakana*, or *Hiragana*, according as they were square or "block" signs, or cursive. The *Hiragana* became the more popular, and has developed into seven or more styles, all of tremendous difficulty as to both writing and reading. So complex has become the Japanese writing that a single page of a magazine may show three different styles or systems, and many variants. First come the Chinese characters, representing the body of the writing; but as these are no longer intelligible to the average reader, they are rewritten at the side in *Katakana* or *Hiragana*. Then all grammatical inflections,—endings of verbs, plurals of nouns, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.,—are in *Hiragana*. Foreign words, especially names, are generally written in *Katakana*.

The acquisition of these intricate systems of writing constitutes the most difficult of all linguistic tasks. It is safe to say a foreigner never quite masters it; and the Japanese children have to spend three or four years in acquiring enough of it,—say, 3,000 or 4,000 signs,—to enable them to go on with even elementary studies. This stupid task has cramped and shrunk the intellectual life of Japan. When it is ultimately abandoned, the national mind, released from captivity, will spring forward with elation.

An illustration showing exactly how Japan-

ese is printed, and how the same words look when transliterated into the Roman letter, will make this description clearer. The following is part of a long sentence taken at random from a page of the most widely circulated magazine of Japan, the *Tai-yo*, or *Sun*:

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(The same in Roman letters)

Tenmei hachi nen no Shogatsu,
Kisanji "Bunbu Nido Bankoku Doshi"
to iyu wo idaseshi ni; korewa korera
no shippan-butsu arite irai no
ō-atari ō-ryuko nite.

(Translation)

Kisanji published the Encyclopedia of
Military and Literary Arts in January
of the eighth year of Tenmei. Ever
since works of this kind have appeared,
it has held the highest rank and popu-
larity.

The beginning is at the right and top, and the printing is read down; then back again to the second column to the left, which is read down, and so on. There are only two lines of reading, although there are four lines of printed characters. The large signs are Chinese ideographs, some of them followed in the same column by *Hiragana* signs. The Chinese ideographs convey to the eye the meaning of the writer. The small characters to the right of each line of Chinese signs are the Japanese *Hiragana*, and are used to indicate to the unlearned the Japanese words that are represented by the Chinese ideographs. For instance, the first two Chinese signs mean, if used separately, *ten*, "heavenly," and *mei*, "brightness," or the conjunction of sun and moon. Taken together they make the word *Tenmei*, the name of one of the historical eras of Japan, about a century and a half ago. To the right of *tenmei* in Chinese are four Japanese *Hiragana* signs, *te-n* and *me-i*. And so on down column after column of magazines and newspapers.

The *Romaji* reform movement is not of recent origin. The more liberal Japanese scholars, indeed, have never been satisfied with their writing, and as soon as the simplicity of the Roman character became known in Japan a movement was started to adopt it. A society was organ-

ized to promote the reform and called itself the *Romaji-kai*, or Roman Letter Society. But the first of these reformers met with defeat, chiefly because the scholars had found that the knowledge of the old and difficult writing gave to mere learning an autocratic and exalted state. Within the last few years, however, there has been renewed activity on the part of the friends of the *Romaji* movement. Many of the Japanese in New York city have been especially enthusiastic and persistent. The result of these latest efforts is found in the official sanction of the reform.

The pertinacity of the Japanese in clinging to the Chinese ideographs has astonished all who have observed the facility with which these plastic people have adapted themselves to new conditions. It was not

due to an aversion to change, for they had changed their entire civilization. It was largely due to the fact that there was, and still is, among the Japanese a deep veneration for the old Chinese characters. They have a peculiar charm and individuality of their own. Besides, they come nearer to being a universal language than any other language has been or will be. Compared with their wide demesne, Russian seems a neighborhood dialect and English but a provincial tongue. This broad universality is due to the fact that a Chinese sign stands for an idea and not a word. A certain sign of two simple strokes means "man," and may be read instantly by some 600,000,000 people into fifty or one hundred languages or dialects. Such an ancient masterpiece of human art and ingenuity could not be lightly abandoned in favor of a new system of writing that was neither beautiful nor venerable.

The *Kana* scripts, however, can present no such high claims to consideration. But they are national, and have long been in possession of

the field. Again, they were a vast improvement upon the Chinese signs in respect to ease of writing and learning. However, the advocates of *Romaji* have generally concentrated their attack on the Chinese signs, knowing that if they could be routed the entire system of Japanese writing would fall with them.

A short example of the *Katakana*, which is principally used now in writing foreign words and names that occur in Chinese or *Hiragana*, will show the third kind of script or character used by the Japanese. The following is the most famous short poem in Japanese literature :

モ	ウ	ア	Asagao ni
ラ	ル	サ	Tsurube torarete -
イ	ベ	カ	Morai - midzu!
ニ	ト	オ	(Translation)
ズ	ラ	ニ	By the morning-glory
	レ		My well-bucket has been seized --
	テ		Give me water!

THE ASAGAO (MORNING-FACE) MORNING-GLORY.

(Like the Chinese and *Hiragana*, the *Katakana* is read down the columns, and the columns are read from right to left. This script, however, is sometimes written horizontally, and from left to right, or from right to left.)

The chief disadvantages to the Japanese of the use of the Chinese ideographs are the difficulty of learning enough of them for extensive reading and study, the time thus lost to other studies, and their unsuitableness for writing the Japanese language. But there is another disadvantage that would alone be fatal to any system of writing. This is the lack of definiteness in the meanings of the signs. A sentence written in ideographs may be read in several different ways, while if written in *Romaji* it could not possibly be read in but one way. To illustrate: the sign for the city of the imperial residence, which is used in the final syllable of Peking, Nan-king, and Tokyo, may be read as the common Japanese word *miyako*, or *kyo*, or *kei*, or *kin*, or *king*. As to how it must be read, depends upon the context and a knowledge of four or five different systems of reading the signs. A civilized and progressive people cannot long consent to be fettered by such an oppressive superstition.

The chief advantages of the *Romaji* are so apparent that they were easily presented and understood, and this enabled it to overthrow the inherited prejudices of the Japanese against a foreign system. They are: ease of learning, of writing, and of reading; the great rapidity with which it may be written with pen or typewriter, or "set up" in a printing shop; and the definiteness and fixity of form and meaning. But what has appealed most strongly to the aspiring Japanese was the argument that the Chinese and *Kana* systems kept them, as a nation, sealed within the old walls of feudalism, while the *Romaji*, an enlightened system of writing, would open Japan to the world, and the world to Japan. The most deeply rooted objection to the *Romaji* reform was not, as is generally supposed, to the change in the manner of writing and printing the language. The manifest advantages of the new system soon triumphed over this. Moreover, it is a very common occurrence in history for one people to borrow the alphabet or the hieroglyphics of another. Hellas borrowed from Phœnicia, and Phœnicia had borrowed from some other people, probably the Egyptians. The Russians got their alphabet from the Greeks, all western Europe has borrowed the Roman

character. Our own letters are neither the runes of the Vikings, nor the black letter of the Gothic and the Teutonic, nor the crude characters of the Anglo-Saxon. Six countries,—Turkey, Persia, Egypt, India, Afghanistan, and Abyssinia,—and probably 500,000,000 people, use the alien Arabic character in transcribing more than a hundred different languages and dialects. The Japanese themselves are using the borrowed ideographs of China. The adoption of *Romaji* meant only another change, and a change for the better.

The principal objection was that the adoption of *Romaji* would cause great changes in the Japanese language itself. The first change will be the abandonment of the ancient idiom known as the "classic," or "literary," or "written," or "book language," which is affected by the scholars and is not understood by the people. It bears to modern colloquial Japanese about the relation that Chaucer's idiom bears to Macaulay's. Then must follow the selection of some one of the many colloquial dialects as the na-

tional speech. This is certain to be that of the capital, Tokyo, although it will probably take over a large body of words and idioms from the colloquial of the old capital, Kyoto, which was formerly the standard colloquial. Finally, there will come, parallel with these changes, a movement toward simplification. Grammatical forms will be greatly reduced in number; an alphabet will displace the syllabaries; the numberless "honorifics" and "humble" forms, now heard in every sentence, will be lopped off as unsuited to the succinct and close-girt speech of the modern world; and the awkward and tottering sentences of Japanese will be reconstructed and disciplined until they shall march in the new literature of Japan in as trim and beautiful order as the splendid troops of the empire.

These will be the first great effects of the adoption of *Romaji*; and as all are in the direction of simplification and progress, they will commend the reform to the most liberal minded of the Japanese. The higher and more complex civilization becomes, the simpler is the language it demands. The most tangled jargons are found among the lowest races and tribes. Then follows the period when an evolving civilization and an aspiring literature formalize the language and create an intricate system of grammar, as in the case of the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Arabic, and German. The great literary tongues will eventually break these fetters; and we have in Persian, French, and English examples of wonderful and beautiful simplicity. Like the Roman legions, they shortened their weapons and extended their boundaries. While the Germans have astonishingly clung to their medieval grammatical shackles, the Japanese have really done worse, having retained a form of speech that they brought with them out of the savage forests. The nature-worshiper, the idolater, the barbarian, may still be seen in the language used by the most cultured people of Asia and the most artistic people of the modern world. But the Japanese have finally advanced beyond the Germans, and are awake to the necessity of a clear, succinct language, clearly and succinctly written.

The reform, however, will mean, both for Japan and the outside world, very much more than the simplification of the Japanese language. It will mean, chiefly, the opening of a new era in Japanese literature. For the first time in its history, the Japanese will be a true literary language. Heretofore, the national tongue has been kept a close prisoner in the citadels of scholars. It is not known to the people, from whose hearts must spring the true poets and thinkers of the land. The scholars have pro-

duced labored and valuable volumes on grammar, philosophy, and history; but the Japanese have no great poet,—no Dante, no Shakespeare, no Firdousi, not even a sweet singer like Keats. And yet the words of the language are marvelously beautiful, filled with tenderest sentiment, surcharged with exquisite and mystic suggestion. It has not even a great creator of tales, like Sa'di, or Froissart, or Boccaccio, or Dumas. And yet no people has a history richer in material for story and romance. Balzac would have reveled, as a future Balzac shall revel, in the "fresh woods and pastures new" of this once fierce and terrible, now mystic, dreamy, and poetic land. And yet the greatest, certainly the most popular, romanticist of Japan is the story teller, Encho, who, like an Arab *Maddah*, told to chance audiences his half-improvised tales as he fashioned them anew in his fancy.

After simplifying the language, and, at the same time, making it more plastic and more pliant, this great reform will restore it as a new gift and inspiration to the rejuvenated minds and hearts of Japan. What may not this exquisitely poetic, imaginative, and alert race fashion out of such splendid material as their strong and beautiful language and their marvelous, artistic temperament? We may justly expect the dawning and the early day of a magnificent literature in Japan. Alphonse Daudet once said, in speaking of Turgueneff: "What a luxury it must be to have a great, big, untrodden barbaric language to wade into!" The Japanese is a "great, big, untrodden," though not entirely a "barbaric," language. It is essentially fresh, as fresh as Greek in the time of Homer, as Italian in the time of Dante, as English in the time of Shakespeare; and its singers under the new inspiration will soon show that, like Marlowe, they have in them "those brave sublunary things that the first poets had."

To the outside world the reform will mean the real opening of Japan. Japan will lose much of its mystery and charm, but it will add much to its prosperity and advance its civilization. Where one foreigner now stammers or halts in his efforts to speak or read Japanese, a thousand will soon read and speak it with ease. Travelers, traders, and investors will hasten to explore a new and profitable field, and the daily press of Japan, intelligible at last, will reveal the life and thought of the people. This fuller knowledge of Japanese life will serve to make Japanese literature a portion of the treasure of the educated world. As the Renaissance gave life and voice to Greek art, so the knowledge of the Japanese language will create for us the delicate, almost evanescent, art of Japan.

RADIUM AND ITS WONDERS.

BY GEORGE F. KUNZ.

RADIUM belongs to the elements of the alkaline group,—such as calcium, strontium, barium, and thorium,—coming between barium and thorium, and having a special affinity for the former.

At the International Chemical Congress in Paris it was proposed by M. Gramont and agreed that no new substance could be described as an element unless its spark-spectrum had been measured and shown to be different from every other known form of matter. This was considered to have been one of the most important transactions of the international congress. It is remarkable that the application of this rule was first illustrated in the recognition of radium as a new element. It rested with Demarçay to find that radium was characterized by a special spark-spectrum of fifteen lines, with no lines of any other element.

Radium, as a metal, belongs to the alkaline group of elements, and its place in the table, according to Mendeléef's periodic law of atomic weights, is between barium and thorium, as carefully determined by Madame Curie, who makes the atomic weight of radium, by chemical methods, to be 225 (barium being 136.4, and thorium 230.8). Prof. W. N. Hartley, however, from a remarkable study of the spark-spectra of these and related elements, assigns to radium a weight of 257.8, considerably above thorium. As to its truly elementary character, however, and its close relation to barium and the other members of this group, Professor Hartley's spectrum results yield full confirmation.

SOURCE OF RADIUM.

Radium is obtained from pitchblende, or uraninite, a mineral found in Saxony, Bohemia, Cornwall, Colorado, and various other localities. This is a black, heavy, pitchy-looking substance (whence the name), sometimes with slightly mammillary or rounded surfaces, sometimes crystallized. Chemically, it is a complicated substance, a combination of two oxides of uranium, with those of lead and of a number of rare and peculiar elements in small amounts. It has long been the principal or almost the only source of uranium, which has been extracted from it, leaving all the rare substances in the hitherto unused residue. Many of the compounds of uranium are brilliantly colored, and produce the peculiar yellow in uranium glass and in certain dye-stuffs.

M. Henri Becquerel, the eminent French chemist and physicist, found that when uranium was exposed to the sun's rays it apparently had the power of absorbing them, and would then cause an action upon a photographic plate. The fact this property was found in the metal uranium led him to think that possibly using the ore that uranium came from might give the same result. He, therefore, took a specimen of pitchblende, some object, and a photographic plate, intending to expose it to the sun's rays. As the day proved cloudy, he did not do so, but laid the photographic plate, with its black protective paper over it, in a drawer, placing upon it the pitchblende and the key or other object that he contemplated printing with it, and forgot the whole matter for several days. On again taking up the specimen to see if anything had happened to it, he found, to his surprise, when the plate was developed, that the pitchblende had really printed an image of the key upon it.

This discovery naturally attracted great and immediate interest among students of chemistry and physics, and many investigations were begun along this line. Here was evidently an unknown substance possessing extraordinary properties.

Becquerel had supposed the photographic action of uranium to be due to an absorption and a subsequent emission of sunlight; but the indications now pointed to a new substance that could itself produce photographic images in the dark by what were spoken of as "Becquerel rays."

Prominent among investigators who now took up the inquiry were Madame Curie, a Polish lady, and her husband, Prof. Pierre Curie, of the École Polytechnique at Paris, who have obtained results of wonderful interest. They set out to find the new element, and have succeeded. In this epoch-making investigation, Madame Curie was the pioneer, her husband being led to join in it by her remarkable enthusiasm.

The Curies, realizing that such a substance must exist in a greater proportion in pitchblende than in uranium, undertook to separate the unknown body, whatever it might be, from the pitchblende, and found not only one but two distinct substances, possessing what were known at first as the Becquerel rays, and which since then Madame Curie has termed radio-active properties,—namely, radium and polonium. The latter

was named from her native country, the former from its wonderful powers. It is of radium that most has been said and heard thus far, and of which we shall principally speak here.

Pitchblende is an exceedingly complex mineral, containing eight or ten elements, requiring ingenious chemical methods for their separation; with these are minute and varying quantities of as many other elements, more or less rare. The pitchblende residue, after the uranium oxides, which constitute some three-fourths of it, have been removed, contains all the other metals that enter into it; and from these the new substances that possess radio-active properties have to be separated with great care and difficulty. This residue material, heretofore of little or no use, has accumulated in large quantities at the works where uranium and its compounds have been prepared; and the Austrian Government placed a ton of it, from the works at Joachimsthal, Bohemia, at the disposal of the Curies for their researches, and authorized the mine directors to furnish several tons more.

Madame Curie notes the presence in this residue of three radio-active bodies,—polonium, radium, and thorium, which last was not a new element. Polonium seems related to bismuth, separating with the latter, while radium accompanies the barium obtained from pitchblende, resembling it in its reactions, and separated from the barium by the difference of the solubility of the chlorides in water or alcohol containing hydrochloric acid.

Although radium is found in connection with barium in pitchblende, the Curies have found, by the examination of many barium compounds, that it is not the accompanying constituent of barium minerals. Barium is best known in the mineral barite,—a sulphate which is extensively used to mix with white paint, as it is claimed that it does not discolor, and is added to the white lead or paint rather because of its lower price than for any qualities that it imparts to them. The search to-day is for minerals in which may be found an occurrence of radium. It is believed to exist in sea-water. It is possible that large quantities of it may be found in some mineral vein, perhaps even of common minerals, when the search has proceeded far enough. This was the case with the earth thoria, employed for the incandescent light. Used first some twenty years ago, at which time monazite, the thorium ore, was a rare mineral, it was finally found by the ton in the gold sands of North Carolina. In Brazil, it forms also a beach sand, and can be gathered by the shipload. It now constitutes a government concession.

An experiment is now being made by a Buf-

falo concern, who are bringing on two carloads of carnotite,—one of the uranium minerals,—whose purpose it is to separate this and prepare from it a radium barium carbonate. Several scientific men have become interested in the venture.

The remarkable power possessed by radium, and the affinity that it has for barium, is illustrated by the fact that if radium and barium salts are mixed together, the radio-active properties are imparted to the latter before they can again be separated from the radium, although the radium holds all the radio-active properties and the barium of itself has none.

The fact being once determined, that the pitchblende residue thus contains at least three radio-active elements, two of them new to chemistry, the next step must be to distinguish the various forms in which this radio-activity operates in the case of the several elements, carefully separated from each other and tested individually. All the earlier observations, and many of the recent ones, involved the combined action of these different bodies; and no full and clear understanding of the subject is, of course, possible until these distinctions are brought out. Something has already been done along these lines, but much more remains for determination. The whole body of chemical and physical workers are, however, most actively engaged in this new and wonderfully interesting field, and the advance will be very rapid.

ISOLATION OF RADIO-ACTIVE PROPERTIES.

The wonderful discovery of the X-rays, by Roentgen, and the strong properties which this force possessed in penetrating various opaque substances, caused the entire scientific world to become interested in investigating the qualities of every form of light and of substance producing it.

G. Niewenglowski (1)* observed that sulphide of calcium possessed the power of printing through paper which was not affected by sunlight, and through certain metals, forming skiagraphs (shadow-pictures), on the photograph plate. Troost (2) further found the same quality to be possessed by Sidot's blende, the hexagonal sulphide of zinc. Becquerel (3) then discovered that the blue and blue-green phosphorescence of sulphide of lime, although in a sealed glass tube, could penetrate through 2 mm's. (1-12 inch) of aluminum, and then affect a photographic plate. This fact was further substantiated by W. Arnold (4). G. Le Bon (5) then

* (1) *Compt. rend.* 122, p. 384, 1896; (2) *Compt. rend.* 122, p. 554, 1896; (3) *Compt. rend.* 122, p. 559, 1896; (4) *Wied. Ann.* 61, p. 316, 1897; (5) *Compt. rend.* 122, p. 188, 1896.

announced, after a great series of photographic experiments, that sunlight exerts on all bodies an effect which is to the eye unrecognizable, but a radiation which acts on the bromide of silver and gelatine photographic plates. This action he named "dark light." What had been termed "dark light" is also an afterlight of fluorescing bodies, and the yellow-green uranium glass sends out rays that penetrate opaque bodies, as do the Roentgen rays (6).*

Henri Becquerel began his classical work in this line, finding that the salts of uranium—such as potassium-uranium sulphate—printed through plates of aluminum; showing that there was a relationship between the visible luminescence and fluorescence with the invisible, in the penetration of their rays through metal. He soon discovered, however, that there was a difference; the latter representing the Roentgen rays, whereas the activity of the potassium-aluminum sulphide, the zinc Sidot's blende, and other bodies that phosphoresce in the dark, possess the property of uranium, which emits deeply penetrating rays, even when these substances have been isolated for months from all light (7).

These uranium rays, originally discovered by Becquerel, act upon photographic plates screened from the light. They can penetrate all solid, liquid, and gaseous substances, provided the thickness is not too great. Passing through gas or air, they render it a conductor of electricity, though only to a slight degree. Crookes has shown that polonium rays fail to penetrate glass, and are interfered with even by thin paper. They have little penetrating power in quartz, fluor spar, or mica, which readily absorb them; whereas these latter substances, like glass, are penetrated freely by radium emanations.

A third radio-active element, closely related to thorium, has been recognized by M. A. Deberne, who has been working somewhat in association with Professor Curie. For this, the name of actinium is proposed, from the Greek *actis*, a ray,—the name being practically a Greek translation of radium. M. Deberne has lately published an article in the *Comptes Rendus*† on the distinctions observed by him in the behavior of the radiations or emanations from actinium and radium, which present differences that appear quite sufficient to distinguish the two sources. These consist chiefly in their manner of diffusion and the time in which their effects on other bodies continue after the source is removed. Similar differences appear in the action of thorium also, as compared with both radium and actinium.

Another very curious relation has been recognized by the eminent physicists, Sir William Ramsay and Mr. Frederick Soddy, of Montreal.* In the gases evolved from radium bromide they obtained a spectrum that to their minds clearly proved the presence of the rare gas helium. By a very delicate method,—using only one six-hundredths of an ounce,—they were able to obtain from the emanations of this small quantity of material, at the expiration of five days, enough of the gas to determine by the spectroscope that helium was actually present (August 28, 1903—*Chemical News*). As this element is an important one in the photosphere of the sun, and was named from that fact, while extremely rare on the earth, this determination is of great interest.

THE NATURE OF RADIATIONS FROM RADIO-ACTIVE BODIES.

Another most important problem,—already familiar and even yet unsolved in the somewhat similar phenomena of the Roentgen rays,—is that of the nature of these radiations,—or, as some call them, emanations,—from substances having these peculiar qualities.†

The tendency of opinion among scientists is toward the view that some, at least, of these radium emanations are truly material particles, and not undulations in the ether or any other medium. Sir William Crookes described three kinds, as being (1) identical with the "cathode" stream,—free electrons,—or matter in the fourth or ultra-gaseous state; (2) true atoms, positively electrified,—large bodies compared with the former; they render air a conductor and act on photographic plates, but are easily checked in passing through material obstructions; (3) very penetrating rays that accompany the others, and are identified by Sir William Crookes with Roentgen rays. Other observers, however, find important differences from the latter.

Of these three groups, the rays of the first are deviated strongly in a magnetic field; the second very slightly, and the third not at all. All produce photographic effects, and excite phosphorescent bodies, but with decided differences. The first and third act strongly on barium platino-cyanide, but feebly on Sidot's blende; while with the second set, the reverse is the case.

If a piece of radium nitrate be brought near a surface coated with Sidot's blende, the latter begins to glow. This effect is at first shown by the appearance, when examined with a lens, of brilliant points or sparks. As the radium is

* (6) *Compt. rend.* 122, p. 500, 1896, Becquerel and d'Arsonval; (7) *Compt. rend.* 122, p. 420, 501, 559, 699, 762, 1066, 1896.

* Vol. 126, No. 7; Feb. 1903, pp. 446-449.

† British Association, 1903; Section B. Chemistry; opening address of the president. *Nature*, Vol. 68, No. 1768, September 17, 1903.

brought nearer these increase in numbers, "until the flashes follow each other so quickly that the surface looks like a turbulent luminous sea." Here, Sir William Crookes says, we seem to be actually witnessing the impact of the flying atoms on the surface of the blende, as they are projected from the radium with a velocity comparable to that of light waves.

Dr. Crookes has devised a little instrument to show this remarkable phenomenon, which he calls the spinthariscopes, consisting of a small surface coated with Sidot's blende, just above which is a little pointer, like the second-hand of a watch, carrying a bit of a radium compound of high activity; above this is a lens. When looked at in the dark, as soon as the eye becomes accustomed to the darkness, the effect is that of beautiful scintillations produced by a shower of stars, showing most pleasingly the action of a radio-active substance upon one that is responsive to this property; and by moving a tiny wheel the shower continues beautifully.

The three kinds of emanations thus distinguished by Sir William Crookes correspond to what are called by Rutherford the beta, alpha, and gamma rays, respectively. These have been very fully described and distinguished by Madame Curie, and are referred to further on.

SOME PROPERTIES OF RADIO-ACTIVE BODIES AS SHOWN BY EXPERIMENTS.

With a view to examine the influence of radio-active bodies on minerals, and especially gem-minerals,—as illustrated so strikingly in Dr. Crookes' experiment with the Sidot's blende,—that an investigation at the American Museum of Natural History was lately taken up by the writer and Dr. Charles Baskerville, of the University of North Carolina. Special facilities were furnished by the museum authorities; the great collections were opened to our use,—the Bement-Morgan and Tiffany-Morgan collections; and a supply of radium salts of 300,000 activity was procured by a special contribution. Our studies comprised ultra-violet light, Roentgen rays, and radium salts, as sources of activity. The results were of great interest, and will be published separately; an abstract was presented, with demonstrations, to the opening meeting of the New York Academy of Sciences, on October 4, 1903.

Some minerals were responsive and others were not; the same mineral in many cases was responsive in some specimens and not in others,—showing thus the presence or absence of some responsive substance not belonging to the ordinary constitution of the mineral itself. Many beautiful and remarkable results were obtained

which cannot be dwelt upon in detail here. In general, it was found that the most sensitive and responsive substances are:

First, the substance occurring in certain forms of diamonds, principally those from the Bagagem Mine in Brazil, and also from British Guiana; this is possibly a hydro-carbon, or else some one of the rare earths, which gives diamonds the blue-white color, as it has been termed for more than a century. These specimens respond intensely.

Second, willemite, a natural silicate of zinc found as an important ore in the zinc mines of Franklin, N. J.

Third, kunzite, the lilac-colored spodumene gem found in California during the past year, is wonderfully responsive to radium. Dr. Baskerville and the author found that 600 grams of kunzite crystals lit up with a pinkish-yellow glow when the one-eighth gram of (300,000) radium was brought near them. This observation has been further sustained by Sir William Crookes, who writes the author, in a letter dated October 9, 1903, as follows:

"But the most interesting thing to me is the effect of radium on it. A few milligrams of radium brought near to kunzite makes it glow with a fine yellow light, which does not cease immediately on the removal of the radium, but persists for several seconds. I have found some diamonds phosphoresce brightly under the influence of radium, and have been searching for a mineral which is equally sensitive. I think this lilac variety of spodumene runs the diamond very close, if it does not surpass it sometimes."

Fourth, the artificial phosphorescent sulphide of zinc, known as Sidot's blende.

These, as well as many others, show wonderful responsiveness, sometimes by fluorescence, and sometimes by phosphorescence.

Sir George Stokes gave the name of fluorescence to the phenomenon which certain substances present in causing the very short waves of ultra-violet light to transform themselves into vibrations of greater length, so as to become visible to our eyes.

The word phosphorescence is from the Greek, meaning light-bearer, the name given to phosphorus, which glows or shines in the dark. It is applied to bodies which become luminous under various conditions, and remain so for a greater or less time, but without the change of length in the light-vibrations that is involved in fluorescence. Dr. W. Gould Levison, who has given much time to the study of phosphorescence and fluorescence, holds that phosphorescence is a reverse change of fluorescence. The luminosity of phosphorus itself is due to slow oxida-

tion, and has no relation to real phosphorescence except in general aspect.

The penetrative power of radio-active substances traverses all matter in greater or less depths. The following test, made by the author, will show the penetration possible with a greater variety of substances intervening, than in any recorded experiment:

Radium bromide, of 300,000 activity, was placed in a sealed glass tube inside of a rubber thermometer-holder, which was tightly screwed to prevent any emanation of any kind from passing through the joints. This was placed under a heavy silver tureen fully one-sixteenth of an inch in thickness; upon this were placed four copper plates, such as are used for engraving; upon this a heavy graduated measuring-glass 10 cm. in diameter; this was filled with water to a depth of six inches. A diamond was suspended in the water and immediately phosphoresced. Whenever the tube with radium was drawn away more than two or three feet, the phosphorescence ceased; whenever it was placed under the tureen the diamond immediately phosphoresced again. This experiment proves that the active power of the radium penetrated the following substances:

Glass in the form of a tube, sealed at both ends; the rubber thermometer-holder; silver tureen; four copper plates; a glass vase or measuring-glass one-quarter inch in thickness; three inches of water.

There is no previously known substance or agent, whether it be even light or electricity, that possesses such wonderfully penetrative powers.

Radium action will pass through several books or a large dictionary with the same ease as through four or five inches of oak or pine wood. The penetration is almost instantaneous. If a piece of willemite or a diamond is placed upon the top of a thick box,—we say a box, because if it were a flat board the rays might pass under the edge and over on to the board itself,—the phosphorescence immediately is apparent. On removal of the radium to the right or the left, a distance of more than from four to six inches, the phosphorescence or fluorescence ceases immediately, returning as quickly whenever the radium is again brought near.

THE ENERGY OF RADIUM AND HOW COMPUTED.

The energy of radium is calculated upon a basis in which the standard of the radio-activity existing in metallic uranium is taken as one. At the present time radium has been so concentrated that it is claimed by the Curies that an activity of 1,800,000 has been obtained.

To produce this enormous degree of activity,

uranium-radium chloride crystals are dissolved in water and allowed to recrystallize. The crystalline part being preserved, whatever remains in the solution is washed off. Acid is added to the crystals, then water, then it is recrystallized, and the solution poured off again. This process is carried on for an indefinite period—what is known as fractionation; each time a greater amount of radio-activity is concentrated into the crystals that remain,—the weaker uranium being poured off.

The manner in which the energy or activity of radium and similar substances is measured is too elaborate to be explained in a brief article like the present. The very delicate apparatus devised for this purpose by the Curies depends upon the fact already noted, that the emanations from radio-active bodies render air or other gases through which they pass conductors. Placing a layer of such a substance on the horizontal plate of a plate condenser, the upper plate is connected with an electrometer and with the ground, and its potential is hence normally that of the ground. The lower plate is raised to a high potential by means of a battery; and the intervening air being rendered conductive by the radio-active body, a current is set up between the plates. If the ground connection of the upper plate is now broken, the plate becomes charged, with a deflection of the electrometer, proportional in rapidity to the strength of the current, which is thus rendered measurable.

A more delicate modification of this instrument, by means of a quartz electric balance, is too detailed for description here.*

When radium of a certain activity is spoken of,—say, 100 or 100,000,—it is meant that the radio-active energy of the compound referred to is that number of times greater than that of metallic uranium taken as unity. It has been mentioned above that the claim is made that radium preparations have been produced that have an activity of 1,800,000; and the writer himself conducted his recent experiments upon minerals, together with Dr. Baskerville, at the American Museum of Natural History in New York, with radium salts that were asserted to have an activity of 300,000.

It is fair to state, however, that in respect to these values of radio-activity there is yet a certain amount of discussion between the German and the French investigators. Director W. Markwald, in a recent communication to a correspondent in New York, says that to speak of radium of 300,000 activity seems to him like a hoax; and that no scientific man should take

* *Chemical News*, Vol. 88, No. 2283; August 28, 1903; p. 97.

this expression seriously, as he believes that if metallic radium is ever obtained, its activity will not exceed 100,000. This view is reiterated by Geitel, who also states that these activities are only surmised,—that they are not accurately determined, and cannot be sustained by definite measurements. It may be that these enormous estimates have been induced by the popular love of high figures—whether it be money or activity—and that 100,000 may prove to be the highest activity of even pure radium, estimated on the basis of metallic uranium taken as 1.

Be this as it may, however, there is no question that pure metallic radium would be a most serious material to deal with. Professor Curie has said that he would not dare to venture into a room where there was one pound of this extraordinary body,—lest it should destroy his eyesight, and perhaps even his life also, by scorching the skin from his body. A minute quantity of a radium compound of a high intensity, carried in a sealed glass tube in the pocket, by M. Becquerel, produced a persistent sore on the adjacent part of the body which took fifty-three days to heal.

Three kinds of radio-activity have been recognized from this anomalous substance, known respectively as the *alpha*, *beta*, and *gamma* rays.

The alpha rays are very easily absorbed by solids, apparently carrying positive electric charges. The beta rays are more penetrating than these, and are negatively charged. The gamma rays have intense penetrating power, producing radio-activity through three or four feet of air, but they have no electric charge at all. These three forms of emanation have been discussed somewhat fully by Hon. R. J. Strutt, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, in a communication to the Royal Society, August 5, 1903, as well as in some previous papers. The gamma rays have been regarded by some as identical with Roentgen rays; but Mr. Strutt points out that, though resembling them in some respects, they are yet clearly different. As previously stated, there is a strong tendency to regard some, if not all, of these very peculiar radiations as not undulations, like ordinary light-waves, but as actual emanations,—minute particles projected from the radio-active body into surrounding space. Sir William Crookes, the very eminent physicist, holds decidedly to this opinion, with regard to some at least of the radium activities.* Among other interesting facts concerning the wonderful energy of radium may be noted the following:

1. Professor Rutherford has shown that a

gram of radium is capable of giving forth 10.9 m.—without reference to gravitation.

2. The loss of one mil. per square c.m. requires one thousand million years (Professor Becquerel).

3. Professor Rutherford has recently shown that a gram of radium is capable of giving forth 10 1-9 m. calories. If, then, the sun were made of such a radio-active material, it would be capable of emitting 10 1-9 m. calories without reference to gravitation. This energy is nearly forty times as much as the gravitational lost energy of the homogeneous sun, and eight times as much as Lord Kelvin's conjecturally concentrated sun.*

PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF RADIUM.

As the electric furnace has given us carborundum, artificial graphite, and a series of absolutely new carbides, because with it we have attained temperatures of height unknown before its introduction,—so radio-active bodies may give us the means of identifying substances that all our former means of observation have escaped, and it may be that we shall have a new series of elements.

Somewhat as feathers, paper, and other light objects are attracted by pyroelectric substances, and iron, nickel, and cobalt by magnets, and these themselves may in turn become electrified or magnetized, so we may have substances that respond to radio-activity or to ultra-violet light, or Roentgen rays—either or all.

The chemical action of radium upon glass is so strong that the colorless glass tube in which the 300,000-activity radium was placed, when exhibited at the Museum of Natural History, became almost black in twenty-six days. A second tube is now colored the same way in the same time. It requires but a few days to change many forms of glass to a violet color; evidently producing a chemical change in the iron and manganese, or both, which are used in glass manufacture; hence, the author suggests the use of rock-crystal as a medium for holding radium; which at the end of one month is found without any visible change having taken place in the crystal. Radium is one of the few substances that maintains a temperature of from two to five degrees above the surrounding atmosphere. This is a most anomalous property, and one that involves, or at least suggests, the most far-reaching results in our conceptions of physics.

We are informed that there is now being imported a sample of German radium of great activity and yet *not luminous*. That it is not a

* *Chemical News*, vol. 87, No. 2200: May 22, 1903, p. 241.

* *Nature*, vol. 68, No. 1769, September 24, 1903, p. 496.

luminous property in radium itself that induces luminosity in the willemite, diamond, etc., is clearly proven by the fact that we may cut off every possible form of light access, with rubber, iron, copper, lead, and wood, and then, as with the Roentgen rays, it is not the light but a radio-activity that produces the effects. That luminosity is not responsible for the activity can be shown by a sample of low luminosity—radium barium carbonate,—that scarcely shows the faintest light and yet acts immediately, either when placed near or when mixed as granules or powder with willemite, diamond, zinc sulphide, zinc oxide, anthracene, and other like substances. It acts instantly even with the interposition of the pasteboard box,—which surely further precludes any possibility of light passing through.

These are evidently gamma rays; or else the facts may indicate, as has before been suggested, that we may find two elements in radium,—as we have oxygen and nitrogen associated in the air.

ACTION OF RADIUM ON ORGANIC BODIES.

In regard to the injury that radio-activity may cause to living organisms, the case of Becquerel himself, who carried a tiny tube containing radium in his vest pocket, has already been mentioned. A sore was produced on his side which, notwithstanding every possible effort, required many weeks to heal. The Curies have placed small quantities in phials at the backs of the necks of rabbits and other small animals, resulting in twenty-four hours in very serious action to them. By inserting a small quantity at the back of the neck into the flesh, the animals died in a short time.

It is undoubtedly true, however, that there has been much exaggeration in regard to the injurious results from the use of radium. About its marvelous penetration there is no doubt. It does penetrate the human flesh, for the writer has had a diamond phosphoresce brilliantly in the palm of his hand when the radium was held below the back of the hand.

The writer at one time had a swollen face which he is quite sure could be traced to a previous eruption on the lips, probably due to cold or fever, which possibly in many instances would have been attributed to the action of radium. Nevertheless when, as has sometimes occurred, the radium does produce a tissue destruction, the blisters and ulcerations of the flesh which are so caused are of remarkable physiological character, and are extremely difficult to heal.

Mr. Henry Crookes, F.C.S.,* exhibited a number of plate cultures and photographs illustra-

tive of the bactericidal properties of the emanations from radium. Various cultures of bacteria were exposed to the action of ten milligrams of bromide of radium through a mica screen at about one inch distance from the surface of the plate. After having been subjected to the action of the radium emanations,—“electrons” in these cases,—the plates were incubated for twenty-four, forty-eight, or more hours. In every case it was found that the microbes were killed where they had been exposed to the radium, so that, on incubation, a bare space, free from bacterial growths, was left on the plate opposite the point where the radium had been placed. Among the bacteria experimented with were *B. liquefaciens*, *B. coli communis*, *B. prodigiosus*, etc.

Frederick Soddy, in the *British Journal* (see *Nature*, Vol. 68, July 25, p. 226), states that five minutes' application of radium is equivalent to ten years' application of thorium, although both instantaneously produce radio-active emanations of gases in infinitesimal quantities. He believes it possible to inhale the emanations of both these substances for the treatment of consumption. The maximum possible dose of radium solution should be the gaseous contents of a bubble; a few bubbles each breath every twenty-four hours.

THE MONETARY VALUE OF RADIUM.

In regard to the value of radium, radium chloride of the activity of 240 sells for about \$30.00 an ounce. The radium salts used by the author in the experiments at the American Museum of Natural History, 127 milligrams,—equal to about one-eighth of a gram, or 1-249 of an ounce,—represented a value of \$274.00, or a rate of \$64,800.00 per ounce troy. This radium was of the activity of 300,000.

The museum ordered, at the request of Edward D. Adams, of New York City, and as a gift to carry on the investigations, radium of an activity of 1,800,000, valued at \$660 for 100 milligrams, or at the rate of \$198,000 per ounce. The small sample used represents the concentration of more than one ton of pitchblende; the 1,800,000 sample, probably, the concentration of four or five tons, and yet the entire quantity could be put in the end of a thimble and not occupy one-fourth of the space remaining between that and the finger.

Radium compounds with an activity of 40 can be bought for \$20 an ounce. It is only when it has been fractionated and increased in its activity that it becomes very costly,—like steel, itself worth only a trifle per pound, but worth many times the value of gold when manufactured into watch-springs!

* “Bactericidal Properties of the Emanations from Radium.” Henry Crookes, F.C.S. C.N. 87, 2274, 306.

EARLY INVESTIGATIONS OF RADIIUM—THE Curies.

Having discussed the marvelous properties of the new element radium, we feel entitled to indulge in the privilege of a word concerning those through whose earnest efforts this new and valuable contribution to science has been given to the world.

Prominent among investigators who were the first to act upon the discovery of M. Henri Becquerel, were Madame Skłodowska Curie and her husband, Prof. Pierre Curie, of the *École Polytechnique* at Paris.

Madame Curie is one of a race whose women have been among the brightest in all Europe, and among the most beautiful, also, like the celebrated Countess Potocka. Were it not for these brilliant women, Russia would never have had such difficulty in conquering the kingdom; and it was that inborn spirit of patriotism, ever inherent among them, that expressed itself in Madame Curie's first impulse to name the new element polonium, in honor of her native land.

Madame Skłodowska Curie has now been created a Ph.D., and her thesis for that degree, presented to the faculty of the College of Science of Paris, 1903, is written with a modesty that is both charming and striking, although it announced results of such extraordinary interest to science. It is not always, though, that a woman receives due recognition abroad, however admirable her work.

Those who were present at the International Congress of Chemistry, held at numerous sessions in the great hall of the Sorbonne, the Institute of Paris, during the Paris Exposition of 1900, may well remember with what dignity Dr. Moissan presided,—a magnificent type of Frenchman, a brilliant and fluent speaker; a man of the greatest eminence in the scientific world; one whose work on fluorine, whose discoveries of the many carbides, and the product of whose work in the electric furnace, have carved his name on the great rock of chemistry for all time. They could not fail, however, to be struck with the glance that he gave from the right to the left of the great hall whenever he addressed this great international gathering,—always beginning and ending his remarks with "*Messieurs*,"—never "*Messieurs et Mesdames*"—simply addressing the audience as gentlemen or sirs. As president, he must have known that there were lady members present from various parts of the world, and in that gathering surely was Madame Curie. It seems strange that in less than five years from that time a woman's name should be

connected forever with two of the most remarkable elements that have ever been discovered; and that her name will thus be remembered when the other, perhaps, is forgotten. The question naturally comes to mind whether, at the next international gathering of chemistry, the president at that time can afford, either intentionally or through indifference to women workers, to fail of addressing the ladies also.

The discovery of radium may be compared to an illustration recently given by an eminent New York divine,—that is, that in all ages and periods there appears a great painter, financier, writer, or scientist, who makes some brilliant achievement, for which he receives all the honor, although there are many scarcely known painters, financiers, litterateurs, and scientists who have paved the way and contributed to the result. Radium was not discovered, by any means, without previous experiments; it was a gradual evolution; it was a natural outcome of the Geissler tube, the Roentgen rays, the ultra-violet light, the incandescence of thorium and other materials, and the investigation of the rare earths, which have held the attention of both chemists and physicists for the past ten years. There never has been more attention given at any period to the study of chemical physics than of late and at the present time.

The discovery of this class of bodies, the study of their phenomena and relations, and the isolation of these new, and in some respects anomalous elements, marks a "new departure" in chemical physics, and the opening of a great field of novel interest and of we know not what importance. Since the separation of radium by Madame Curie and her husband, it has held the interest of the entire reading world as not only a new element, but apparently a new force; and its properties have commanded the attention and investigation of the greatest living physicists,—Professor and Madame Curie and M. Becquerel in France; Sir William Crookes, Sir William Ramsay, Prof. J. J. Thompson, Sir William and Lady Huggins, and others in England; Director Markwald of Berlin; Professors Elster, Geitel, Haen, and other German scientists on the continent.

Some of the most important work done has been in the investigations of Prof. J. J. Rutherford and Messrs. Soddy, McLennan, Owens, and others, in Canada. The United States has contributed very little, up to the present, in original research, although the first book on the subject to be published was by Mr. W. J. Hamner, formerly associated with Mr. Thomas A. Edison.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

A TALK WITH M. CURIE ABOUT RADIUM.

"WORTH three thousand times its weight in pure gold," said M. Curie, the discoverer of radium, to Mr. Cleveland Moffett, who writes of the discovery in the November *McClure's*. The talk with the scientist brings out many remarkable effects of the chemical: its capacity for harm and for help; the sensation of light within the eye when a radium tube is placed upon the lid; inexplicable explosions in experiments; the testing of diamonds by its light; its scarcity—perhaps a tablespoonful of purified radium in the world; its lighting power, a kilogram lighting a room thirty feet square with a mild radiance; and its warmth, a given quantity melting its own weight of ice every hour.

EXPERIMENTS ON ANIMALS.

The experiments described by M. Curie show that radium can by its mere presence annihilate animal life or plant life. "Here is one instance among many: On May 13, 1903, a little chloride of radium (five centigrams) was suspended over the cage of eight white mice, two parent mice and six little ones, and was left there for three days and then removed. The mice continued to eat and run about as usual until May 16, when the little ones began to lose the fur on their backs. On the 19th, their backs were quite bare of fur, although their heads remained covered, which gave them the appearance of little white lions. On the 21st, the little ones became blind, although they continued to eat well. On the 23d, one of the little ones died. On the 24th, three died. On the 25th, the remaining two died. On June 5, both the parent mice became blind. On the 28th, both the parent mice died. This was the work of a few grains of radium in a tiny glass tube.

"In another case, two full-grown mice were exposed continuously to the same quantity (five centigrams) of radium for ten days. For nine days they remained perfectly well, although they showed fear, but on the tenth day they died without losing their fur. This experiment was repeated with another pair of mice under the same conditions, except that the radium used was only half as intense, and in this case the mice died in twenty-two days and twenty-six days, respectively, and on the twentieth day they began to lose their fur. M. Danyasz draws important conclusions touching the nature of the rays from

the fact that the mice did or did not lose their fur.

"Similar experiments were made upon other animals under varying conditions, the result being almost invariably death after a longer or shorter time, according to the animals' resistance. Rabbits were killed, guinea pigs were killed, embryo chickens exposed to radium rays during incubation (some on the first day, some on the tenth, some on the last day) were all killed, plants were killed, and M. Danyasz is convinced that all animals, probably all forms of life, would succumb to the destructive force of radium if employed in sufficient quantities.

"I have no doubt," said he, "that a kilogram of radium would be sufficient to destroy the population of Paris, granting that they came within its influence. Men and women would be killed just as these mice were killed."

ODD EFFECTS OF RADIUM.

"I must pass rapidly over various other wonders of radium that M. Curie laid before me in subsequent conversations. There is matter here for a book, not a magazine article, and new matter is accumulating every week as the outcome of new investigations. Even in the chemistry of radium, which is practically an unexplored field, owing to the scarcity and costliness of the metal, there are various facts to be noted, as these: that radium changes the color of phosphorus from yellow to red; that radium rays increase the production of ozone in certain cases; that a small quantity of radium dissolved in water throws off hydrogen constantly by causing a disintegration of the water, the oxygen released being absorbed in some unknown molecular combination. Also that a solution of radium gives a violet or brownish tint to a glass vessel containing it, this tint being permanent, unless the glass be heated red-hot. Here, by the way, is an application of importance in the arts, for radium may thus be used to modify the colors of glass and crystals, possibly of gems. It is furthermore established that radium offers a ready means of distinguishing real from imitation diamonds, since it causes the real stones to burst into a brilliant phosphorescence when brought near them in a darkened room, while it has scarcely any such effect upon false stones. M. Curie made this experiment recently at a reception in Lille, to the great delight of the guests."

CONGRESS AND THE CURRENCY.

DIFFERING views of experts regarding proposed currency legislation by Congress are brought out in two articles contributed to the *North American Review* for October by President William A. Nash of the Corn Exchange Bank in New York and by President James H. Eckels of the Commercial National Bank in Chicago, respectively. In opening the discussion, Mr. Nash says:

"The salient fact that the *per capita* amount of currency in this country is, at the present moment, higher than it has ever been, and that it has steadily and regularly advanced during the past six years, shows that in a natural way, very little aided by legislation, the wants of the people for an increase of circulating medium—supposing these wants actually exist—have been met; and they have been met by means that seem to me to promise most for the future adjustment and settlement of this question."

While it is true that the interest rates have been higher in recent years, still they have not been abnormally high, and, in Mr. Nash's opinion, the adequacy of the currency supply "for all legitimate and conservative enterprises and operations" has been fully demonstrated. The demand for asset currency is, therefore, unnecessary. The natural additions to the circulating medium of the coinage of gold, and the greatly increased use of bank checks as a substitute for currency, will, Mr. Nash believes, be sufficient to meet our needs as a people.

ABOLISH TREASURY HOARDING.

One very important defect in our financial system seems to demand the action of Congress. That defect lies in the imperfect methods of the United States Treasury in the receiving and disbursement of public funds:

"The only monetary disturbance of the past six years that created any anxiety was the crisis of November, 1902, when the accumulations of public money in the treasury, arising from large payments of duties and the inadequacy of legal provision for their redistribution among the people through the banks, resulted in congestion that threatened for a time to paralyze business. The exertions of Secretary Shaw, then new in office, to release the necessary funds are familiar to all readers. Also familiar are the ingenious and, as some have asserted, questionable methods he was obliged to employ to accomplish this desirable adjustment of an abnormal situation. The weight of opinion is in favor of Secretary Shaw's prompt action, but that there should exist legal doubts as to its propriety, while its wisdom was so heartily commended, brings us

to the one great need of legislation at the approaching session.

"The removal of this defect is paramount, and is at this time the only action required. Whatever may be the final form of the currency bill to be presented, any action which will make the Treasury of the United States a coöperator with the business man, and which will make the hoarding of money by the Government impossible, should receive the support of the press and the people. If we ship money to the West and South to move the crops, it can and does return to the center which needs it most; if we load ocean steamers with ingots, there is always a possible way to bring them back; but once the useful coin has entered the United States Treasury, it leaves not only hope behind, but a wondering and anxious business community of American bankers and merchants, the victims of their own governmental machinery. The most that can be hoped for from Congress is the correction of this clumsy system. If we must have elasticity, let us begin with the Treasury, and that, I candidly believe, will be enough for our present necessities."

A Plea for an Asset Currency.

Mr. Eckels, who was Comptroller of the Currency under President Cleveland, takes a far more radical position than Mr. Nash on the question of an asset currency. In his opinion, the banks should gradually be put in possession of the right of issuing notes against their commercial assets.

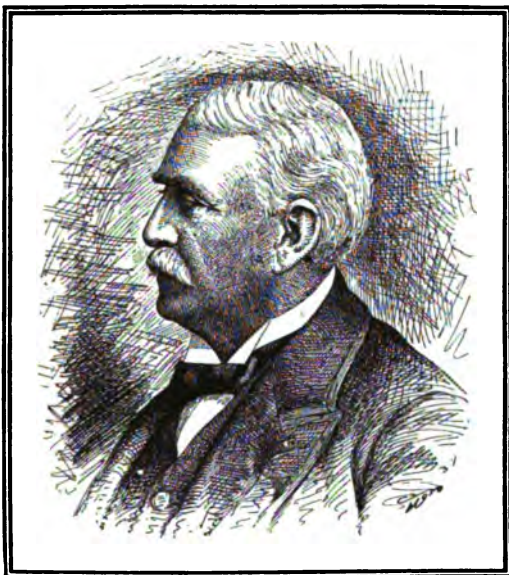
"No radical steps should be taken in this direction; but, well safeguarded as to speedy redemption at convenient points, and with a general safety fund to guarantee redemption immediately upon the failure of any bank, these issues would be as safe as need be in the careful conduct of business. I do not believe in an emergency currency, though it be an asset currency regulated by a very high tax. It is far wiser to give banks the power that will prevent an emergency than to give them something that is a proclamation that they are in dire straits."

THE ABSORPTION OF OUR PUBLIC LANDS.

A VIGOROUS movement is under way in the West to bring about the repeal of certain laws under which the public domain, it is alleged, is being squandered in a way undreamed of by the originators of the homestead legislation of half a century back. One of the leaders in this movement is the Hon. Paris Gibson, United States Senator from Montana, who discusses the objectionable features of the laws

in the October number of *Forestry and Irrigation*.

Senator Gibson shows that in the six years ending on June 30, 1903, the Government parted with eighty-six million acres of public lands,—nearly one-half of this vast area having been taken during the last two years. In the Great Falls land district of Montana, one thousand desert land entries were made during the eleven months ending on June 30, and most of these



HON. PARIS GIBSON.

(United States Senator from Montana, and a leader in the movement to repeal objectionable land laws.)

entries, it is charged, were made in the interest of men who will never make homes upon the lands in question.

It is contended by Senator Gibson that the desert land act and the commutation clause of the homestead act, now in force, were never demanded by actual settlers, but were enacted at the behest of speculators and of individuals and corporations seeking to own and control large bodies of land for grazing purposes. One strong objection to the desert land act is that it does not compel residence on the land, thus permitting the speculator to employ agents to take up the land in his interest.

"Any doubt that the desert land law facilitates acquirement of land from the nation in large bodies by individuals and companies is dispelled by the clause adopted March 3, 1891, making it lawful for a person, after entry, to assign his desert claim to another person. It will be readily seen how difficult it must be for the Government, endeavoring to detect fraud, to de-

termine if an agreement to sell the desert land claim was made by the entry-man before filing it.

"Since the enactment of the desert land law immense bodies of land have been taken up and patented, upon which large crops of hay and grain are annually grown without irrigation, and in many places to-day little or no attention is paid to the requirements of the law as to the character of lands upon which desert land filings are made, and to the reclamation of lands that are desert in character. One would think, after reading the last annual report on the public lands by the Secretary of the Interior, that high-water mark in the exercise of land frauds had been reached under the timber and stone act, but in my opinion greater frauds are now being committed under the desert land act in the arid States than under all other land acts combined."

THE DEMANDS OF HOME-SEEKERS.

The repeal of these laws would be a real boon to the actual settler and home-maker.

"The land policy of the nation is nothing short of downright injustice to millions of people of the United States who are seeking for homes upon the land. Some one will, doubtless, say there would be no cause for complaint of fraud if the provisions of these acts were properly enforced, and their constant cry is enforce the laws, enforce the laws. To such I would say, these land laws never have been enforced except in isolated cases, and I believe they never will be enforced so long as wealthy men and influential politicians are engaged in acquiring government lands. But, it is urged, if these land acts are repealed, thus leaving upon our statute books only the homestead act deprived of the commutation clause, thus cutting off the receipts of money from sales of land, the national work of reclaiming the irrigable lands of the arid States cannot be continued. If, in order to reclaim our dry lands, it is necessary to maintain upon our statute books acts that will practically dedicate the remaining public lands to a few capitalists and speculators instead of actual settlers, it would be far better that this beneficent national irrigation work should cease at once and forever; but this danger, apprehended from the repeal of these acts, has no foundation to rest upon; for, in accordance with the provisions of the irrigation bill, as fast as our public lands are reclaimed by the nation they are to be sold to actual settlers at a price that will fully reimburse the Government for its expenditures, and the fund that will be created,—now amounting to \$15,000,000 or \$20,000,000,—will be used over and over again in carrying out the national irrigation plans."

FACTS ABOUT THE UNITED STATES POST OFFICE.

IN the first of a series of articles entitled "The Post Office and the People," in the November *World's Work*, Mr. M. G. Cuniff describes many discrepancies in our present service, and compares our facilities with those abroad:

"Newspapers in the United States may be mailed free within the county of publication wherever there is no free delivery. Government documents and correspondence go free; nine-tenths of the matter passing through the Washington post office pays the post office nothing. Carloads of reports are carried about the country to the immense advantage of the railroads, but to the behoof of nobody else. An official at the head of a post-office division told me he had seen railway mail clerks heave sacks of the stuff to the coyotes of Montana to save the trouble of handling it. Publishers send newspapers and periodicals at a cent a pound to addresses outside the postal district of mailing; more than two-thirds of the total revenue-paying mail matter by weight is this. In these three kinds of mail the post office serves the people with more generosity—some of it gratuitous generosity—than European post offices, except that certain classes of publications in England have a very low rate. Even in handling all of these cheap-rate mails, however, the post office has recently curtailed its service. Move from your present address and none of the free or second-class mail will be forwarded. Not even the second-class mail sent at four cents a pound by publishers within the city of mailing, or by private individuals,—indeed, nothing but first-class matter,—will go beyond a single address. Yet with this restricted service these kinds of mail furnish less than 4 per cent. of the postal revenues.

As the third and fourth class matter nearly pays for itself, the first-class matter and postal cards, about 16 per cent. of the weight of the mail, now pays nearly 79 per cent. of the total revenue, or over ninety million dollars. This class of mail practically supports the post office, in so far as it is supported. But in handling it, and in providing conveniences for mailing third and fourth-class matter, our service is poor and inordinately costly.

It would be impossible in New York, for example, to send a letter, receive an answer, send again and receive another answer, all in a day, as in London. The pneumatic-tube service is very restricted. A letter posted downtown at 4 o'clock will not be delivered uptown in the resi-

dence district until the next morning. If packages are too bulky for the ordinary carrier, one must journey to the post office for them, and likewise one goes to the post office to cash money orders.

I asked a high post-office official why parcels are not delivered.

"The public don't demand it," said he. "They don't object to going to the post office."

EASIER TO MAIL VIA GERMANY THAN DIRECT.

Your neighbor may post a four-pound package to San Francisco for sixty-four cents. It would cost him the same to send it to you next door. A German might mail a *ten-pound* package from Germany to Salt Lake City; you could not, without paying prohibitory letter-postage rates. Mr. James L. Cowles sent a suitcase thus from New York directly to New Haven. The stamps cost \$3.68. He could have sent it via Germany for \$1.95. Offered at any post office as fourth-class matter, it would not have been accepted at all. It weighed eleven pounds. Practically, then, the United States post office says: "Send all but your smallest packages by slow and uncertain private express; and send all your urgent messages by expensive private telegraph," or put in a telephone.

Nor is the classification of mail free from deficiencies. The law admits to second-class privileges *bona fide* periodical publications, but the interpretation of the law is left to a single assistant postmaster-general, so that "only the Almighty and Mr. Madden," as a United States Senator has said, "know what is second class and what is not." Publishers whose publications are being summarily cut off from the cent-a-pound rate cannot see a post-office improvement in such a narrowing of privileges, however sincere Mr. Madden may be in his reform. It is, after all, the law rather than Mr. Madden that is to blame. In brief, the classification of mail is governed by laws fitted to another generation; it takes no heed of the problems of the day, as will be shown later in discussing the second-class matter.

Now, the fact that in the thickly-settled portions of the country, especially in the cities, the American service is poorer than the foreign is not meant to prove that the post office should add to its present expense, which is almost double that of England and France combined, exclusive of their telegraph system. The point made here is that the service needs a drastic reorganization of present items of expense, so that more economical management and arrangement will permit of improvements and of lower charges to the public for mailing letters and

sending parcels. Economically administered the department can improve city conveniences as sweepingly as it is now improving rural conveniences. Postmaster-General Wanamaker set in motion many of the reforms the post office needs. How have they failed of realization?

THE LABOR BOSS—THE TRUST'S TOOL.

MR. RAY STANNARD BAKER, in the November *McClure's* describes the octopus-like graft that has throttled building in New York recently, showing the relation to it of the labor unions, the labor boss, the independent builder, and, most important of all, the trust. Sam Parks, "ignorant, a bully, a swaggerer, a criminal in his instincts, inarticulate except in abuse and blasphemy, with no argument but his proficient and rocky fists, yet possesses those curious Irish faculties of leadership, that strange force of personality, that certain loyalty to his immediate henchmen familiar among ward politicians." By these he has grafted from employers and union alike, and for months held them quiet and docile in his hands, using each against the other. Neither the unions, the employers, nor the building department, in many cases, wish honesty, Mr. Baker says, and he shows how even the unions "graft" on each other. But the cause of it all, here as in politics, is higher up. He tells of the coming to New York of a certain construction company, of its rapid rise, of its merging into a trust, owned by great capitalists. He describes its methods of crushing independent builders by means of the labor boss:

"CORRUPTION A GOOD INVESTMENT."

"This may be laid down as a law: The larger the corporation the more danger of graft.

"This point of danger in the trust problem, has not, it seems, been sufficiently emphasized. The larger the corporation the greater the need of 'standing in' with the union. A general strike where enormous capital is involved is a very serious matter, not only for employer and employee, but for the public. The anthracite coal strike showed this conclusively. The more extensive its operations the less the corporation feels the small expense of owning delegates, and corruption becomes a good investment."

HOW WATERED STOCK LEADS TO "GRAFTING."

So conservative a financial authority as the New York *Evening Post*, criticising the first annual report of this building trust, which, it says (August 5, 1903), "has been conspicuously in the public eye in the last few months," concludes

that over half of its capitalization of \$66,000,000 is pure water and wind.

"In other words, the manager of the trust is set to earn dividends on a capitalization over half of which is water. Is it surprising if he tries by fair means or foul to control the labor market, the demands of which make up so large a proportion of the total out-go? His own business existence depends on his getting results. Will he buy human honor? Any one can answer that question.

"In one respect, indeed, there is the same fundamental difficulty and danger in the trust that there is in the labor union. In the union we have the conservative, respectable, 'honest' members, staying at home and leaving their collective business in the hands of a rascally walking delegate and profiting by his management. In the great modern trusts we have the respectable 'honest' millionaires, the Stillmans and the Vanderbilts, pillars of society, permitting the use of their influential names to float questionable companies, leaving their collective business in the hands of a manager, paying no attention to the manner in which he does the work if only he gets results, they profiting by his management.

"How likely we are to get our causes mixed up with our effects! Sam Parks no more caused this great strike than the man in the moon. Parks is an effect. It is not Parks who is at the bottom of the trouble, but Parksism. Parks is the visible sore of the disease, the invisible germ of which—money corruption—is circulating in the blood of the American people, and takes its victims high and low.

WHO IS RESPONSIBLE?

"The time must come when the responsibility for these dangerous conditions will be placed where it belongs; upon the stay-at-home, conservative voter who regards politics as beneath his honorable attention; upon the stay-at-home, conservative union man who does not wish to disturb his ease, to take part in the turmoil of the union meeting; upon the millionaire stockholder in the corporation who sits at home and draws his dividends without knowing or wanting to know by what trail of blood and dishonesty they have been earned."

CANADA AND THE ZOLLVEREIN.

IN the current discussion of Mr. Chamberlain's tariff proposition which is now occupying so much space in the British reviews, the articles dealing specifically with Canada's relations to the proposed reforms are naturally of the greatest interest to American readers.

The Only Defense that Canada Needs.

Dr. Goldwin Smith contributes to the *Monthly Review* a very interesting paper entitled "Canada and Mr. Chamberlain." The article has really little to do with Mr. Chamberlain, and hardly mentions his name or his projects; it is rather a statement of the present condition of Canada, with merely an implication that any tinkering with the present state of things is fraught with evil. The only passage in which Dr. Goldwin Smith directly condemns Mr. Chamberlain's project is where he insists that reciprocity between Canada and the United States is the most immediate need:

"What is wanted certainly, and without delay, by all but the monopolists on either side, is the renewal of commercial reciprocity, which involves no political change. For this a strong movement is now on foot, initiated, strange to say, by New England, the mother of protection, but extending also to other and especially North-western States. Any British statesman who may succeed by proclaiming commercial war against the United States is defeating this movement; and at the same time, in depriving Canada, even for two or three years, of the bonding privilege, while he taxes her imperial armaments and wars, may chance to find that he has played over again the part of Mr. Charles Townsend as a consolidator of the empire."

Dr. Goldwin Smith denies that Canada wants any defense from England. "She, in reality, wants no defense but peace." England could not defend her against the United States, and therefore her only defense is not to become involved in war. Dr. Smith denies that there is any desire on the part of the Americans to aggress upon Canadian independence. But all through his article he emphasizes the fact that the links between the Dominion and the mother country have worn very thin, and that the French Canadians, though satisfied with British rule, are not permeated with British sentiments. There are 1,200,000 Canadian-born persons in the United States, and the continual transmigration from both sides leads to a unity of sentiment between both parts of North America. After delivering another warning against the danger to Canada of a commercial war with the United States, Dr. Smith says:

"What, after all, in an economical point of view, is this unity of the empire, for the consolidation of which commercial war is to be proclaimed against the world? What is the empire but the aggregate result of accidents of war and discovery, governed by no plan or regard for community of economical interests? What reason is there for presuming that all its parts ought,

in defiance of the indications of nature, and at great risk of incurring the commercial enmity of other nations, to be forced into a fiscal union?"

Real Federation.

Mr. A. H. Adams contributes to the *Nineteenth Century* an article entitled "A Colonial View of Colonial Loyalty," in which he, while declaring that Mr. Chamberlain's preferential scheme could not unite the empire, shows how union can be brought about. But before expounding his scheme he devotes several pages to what colonial loyalty means. The idea that the colonies are loyal to England is, he says, a mistake. First, their sense of loyalty is given to their own colony; secondly, to the empire at large; and lastly, to England. That being so, if a dispute arose, "the loyalty to England would not survive five minutes after the first angry word was spoken." As it is, Mr. Adams sees danger to the union of the empire from the distinct breach of sentiment between colonials and Britains. Mr. Chamberlain's move seems to him "entirely a leap in the dark,—a step fraught with the worst possibilities for destroying" the present good understanding. His suggestion is that, instead, the empire should be federated on a two-chamber basis,—the present imperial Parliament being ignored. The lower house, he suggests, should have twenty-six members, twenty representing the United Kingdom, and the senate twenty-one members, nine representing the United Kingdom. Differences between the two chambers should be settled by the two houses sitting as one, this arrangement giving the United Kingdom a majority of three.

THE FALL OF M. WITTE.

THAT M. Witte's supposed promotion to be president of the Russian Committee of Ministers was in reality his supersession became plain to every one as soon as the facts transpired. In the *Contemporary Review*, Dr. Dillon deals with the subject under the title of "M. Witte's Fall." The view that M. Witte will have any influence in his new position, says Dr. Dillon, is wholly erroneous, as the committee can neither make nor unmake a law. No president ever yet acquired any initiative or wielded much influence upon persons or agents, for good or evil. In other words, M. Witte has fallen; and Dr. Dillon reminds us that he foreshadowed this fall two years ago. His only hope is that, as he is but fifty-five years old, he may live to witness entanglements which he alone can unravel.

WHAT M. WITTE DID.

M. Plehve moved heaven and earth to undermine M. Witte's influence, and he was helped by the fact that the finance minister had always been hated by men who wasted their time in social frivolities. Dr. Dillon is only doubtful whether M. Witte's work was good or bad, but no one will dissent from his statement that it was Herculean. He sowed reforms with the sack, not with the hand. M. Witte let loose a myriad forces all at once, and scared the men of routine.

"He brought the elements of finance within the reach of the Russian official, raised the Imperial Bank to the level of a European institution, substituted gold for fluctuating bank-notes, and raised the powerful clique of bankers against him by penalizing profitable but unscrupulous speculations, on a fall in the value of paper rubles. His enemies on 'Change were soon strengthened by the secession of the powerful military party, who detested in him the stanch champion of peace."

THE CAUSE OF HIS FALL.

But M. Witte's most ambitious undertaking was his attempt to create industries. To effect this he changed everything.

"Railway traveling was cheapened below the lowest limit known in western Europe, freights were lowered, waterways and railways were constructed with a view to bring sources of production nearer to the markets, the passport system was relaxed, even Jews were allowed to travel—on business, alcohol became a government monopoly, and rumors were circulated that many other branches of trade would also be taken over by the state."

But he could not make educated workmen, or prevent strikes, or prevent the industrial population becoming impregnated with Western ideas. And it was M. Plehve who had to cope with the conditions of unrest which M. Witte's policy had created. M. Plehve was, therefore, allowed to make his own conditions, and the first condition was that M. Witte should disappear.

"M. Witte was surprised by the news that his tenure of office had come to an end, and with it the success of schemes with which the prosperity of the empire is bound up. Ten or fifteen years more and the management of Witte's scheme might have been left to a third-rate successor; at present it is in a phase in which a false step may endanger the work of years."

Dr. Dillon thinks that M. Witte will come to the front again. Meantime, he says, the Czar is in the position of a mariner navigating unfamiliar seas, who has lost his steering gear and his compass.

THE MACEDONIAN INFERNO.

IN a well-written impressionist account of experiences in Macedonia contributed to *Blackwood's Magazine* for October, Mr. Reginald Wyon says:

"Ah! it is a sad, sad story, this, of the extermination of the Christians in Vilayet Monastir, under the unbelieving and unfeeling eyes of Europe, which once rose in righteous wrath at tales not more horrible. It was *one* massacre in Bulgaria that set Europe in a blaze a quarter of a century ago. Now a dozen equally terrible only leave us desiring the introduction of 'the reforms!' Nay more, our philanthropists are seeking to prove the Bulgarians guilty of equal atrocities, which are mostly absolutely false. Have you, good readers, ever tried to imagine yourselves for one moment in these poor wretches' position?"

What the capture of a Bulgarian town by Turkish soldiers means is vividly set forth in the following passage, which refers to Smilevo, destroyed by the Turks and Bashi-Bazouks on August 28.

"Smilevo is but *one* instance of *ninety*. Soldiers had come fresh from a defeat in the hills, and had suddenly surrounded the flourishing village, setting fire to the outer ring of houses. Then, as the frightened inmates rushed into the streets, the shooting began; and while the soldiers killed and tormented, the Bashi-Bazouks ransacked each house, igniting it when this work was done. Ah, how merrily they ran to and fro, screaming wildly as the circle of flames grows smaller! What sport to the harassed soldiers to kill slowly and with impunity! 'Tis verily better fun than being dynamited in the hills. They take the sword-bayonets now, for fear of shooting each other, and laugh as the pile of dead grows higher. Into the flames with the infants!—it is good to hear the mothers shriek, and to cut them down as they run blindly at the butchers, armed only with their teeth and nails. Now it is enough, every house is in flames, and not a thing of value left the survivors except what they stand up in, huddled together in a paralyzed group outside. Some have run for the hills, a few of the men have escaped the shower of bullets, but most are dotting the wasted crops."

"We Have Been Driven Mad."

In the *Contemporary Review*, Dr. Dillon quotes the following words spoken to him by Dr. Tatarsheff, the chief of the Inner Revolutionary Committee of Macedonia, in defense of the outrages committed by the revolutionaries:

"It is morally wrong to assassinate the Bashi-

Bazouks. But if a horde of human devils were to set about burning the towns and villages of an Anglo-Saxon people, torturing their inhabitants, violating their women and young children, would your Anglo-Saxons be able to curb their passions and carry out the ethical laws which are now so glibly quoted? There is a wild beast in every human breast, and it has been aroused in ours. The insanity of despair knows no law; Europe has encouraged Turkey to drive us thus insane, and is now shocked at the result. But its fruits may be more terrible still. Our people, goaded to madness at the sight of their sisters, wives, and children bestially tortured to death, have indeed done indefensible deeds, but then they are not masters of themselves. Would the Anglo-Saxons be more self-restrained in our place? It is in accordance with morality for Christendom to connive at, nay, encourage, the Turks to leave the armed insurgents unharmed while doing to death every man, woman, and child in the province, and burning all the villages on the way? The Christian powers are acting thus calmly, deliberately, in cold blood. They have no provocation and feel no remorse. We have been driven mad, and if the system of extirpation be persisted in, there is no enormity from which maddened human nature will recoil."

Dr. Dillon also reports an interview with General Petroff, the Bulgarian prime minister, who repeats what has often been said, that if the powers refuse to interfere Bulgaria will be obliged to take action.

No Hope Under the Turks.

Mr. H. N. Brailsford writes another of his excellent articles in the *Fortnightly Review*. He defends the Macedonians, and declares that their reckless sacrifice of innocent life is in reality the justification of the rebellion. The insurgents have shown themselves ready to sacrifice their own lives in order to throw a bomb, or to murder wholesale in order to attract the attention of Europe. They exhausted every other resource in vain. When Europe assures Turkey a free hand to crush the insurgents, she is authorizing the punishment of men who are demanding nothing more than their legal rights; and when the people of England throw the onus of action on the two Eastern empires, they are repudiating the responsibility which in 1878 they were ready to vindicate even at the risk of war. The situation is of their making.

Bulgaria has been marvelously patient.

"There is not a nation in Europe which would refuse to move if men and women of its own race were being massacred by the thousands just

across its borders. We, who were ready to go to war because our own countrymen were refused the franchise in a neighboring state, have, of all peoples, the least right to criticise Bulgaria. If war results, the burden of criminality will lie not with Bulgaria, but with Europe, which has declined to fulfill a manifest duty."

Mr. Brailsford condemns the *Times*' suggestion that Macedonia should be placed under a Christian governor-general, the Sultan being allowed to appoint the valis. A Christian official who is a subject of the Porte would do no better than a Moslem, and he would exercise no authority whatever over the valis. "There is really no change worth making in Macedonia which stops short of removing the whole civil administration from the control of Yildiz Palace." There must be an European Governor, responsible solely to the powers, and competent to appoint and dismiss his own officials. The concert should act as a whole, not merely through the instrumentality of Austria and Russia. Mr. Brailsford says that an Austro-Russian occupation would mean the end of liberty in the Balkans, and would result in danger to the independence of Servia and Bulgaria.

A New Berlin Conference.

Sir Henry Drummond Wolff contributes to the *Monthly Review* for October a very interesting paper chiefly made up of reminiscences of the stormy days of 1878. His article contains several reports of interviews with Continental statesmen during a tour of private inquiry which he made in that way; and it is curious to notice how universal in those days was the dread of Russian Pan Slavism, and of Russian predominance in the Greater Bulgaria created by the Treaty of San Stefano. Sir Henry declares that the issue of to-day is much the same as that of 1878, for had the Treaty of Berlin been carried out there would have been no Macedonian question. He attributes the breakdown in Macedonia of the reforms arranged by the European Commission to the fact that after he retired the commission abandoned its old principle that its reports should be unanimous, and the Turks, finding the decision forced on them, did not consider themselves bound. From that day to this no change has been made in the administration of Macedonia, which ought to have received an organization similar to that of eastern Roumelia. Macedonia's needs are similar to those which existed in 1878, and the disorders going on to-day can only be remedied by the provisions of the Berlin Treaty.

This being so, Sir Henry is strongly opposed to leaving everything to Austria and Russia.

"What does this mean? That Austria will obtain possession of Salonika, which is the European port nearest to the Suez Canal, while Russia, by the extension of Bulgaria, will obtain possession of the port of Kavalla, where she may erect a gigantic arsenal, like Biserta, as a menace to Europe, and an additional menace to the Suez route to India.

"Reforms projected by Turkey are perfectly useless, as the Turks are not sufficiently imbued with the spirit of nations aspiring to constitutional existence. If we are merely to follow Austria and Russia, we shall do so to the detriment of all our interests in the Mediterranean and in the further East. The only practical remedy is the reassembling of a conference similar to that held at Berlin. There the political conditions of the European provinces of Turkey must be submitted to the European concert and settled by the seven great powers. Under this conference, commissions must be appointed, similar to that of eastern Roumelia, with the object of providing similar organic statutes."

THE POPE'S INTERNATIONAL POSITION.

A PROPOS of the accession of Pius X., there has been not a little discussion concerning the official relation of the Pope to the various world powers. In this connection the article contributed to the *North American Review* for October by Dr. James G. Whiteley is instructive and suggestive.

"Among the rulers of the earth," says Dr. Whiteley, "the Pope occupies a peculiar position, which is as unique in the realm of international law as the Papacy itself in the realm of religion. In the eyes of international law, the Holy See is not a sovereign state; for the very definition of a state implies the possession of territory, and when the popes were deprived of the temporal sovereignty which they had for centuries exercised over a part of Italy, the Holy See ceased to be a member of the family of nations. The Pope is no longer head of a temporal state, but he is still Sovereign Pontiff, he is still head of that great Church which commands the loyalty of two-fifths of Christendom.

"The position of head of the Church, as Monsieur Bonfils says in his book on international law, is not a local dignity. It is not Italian; it is universal. It has an essentially international character. Infallible legislator in matters of dogma and morals, supreme regulator of ecclesiastical discipline, chief of the hosts of the Church, the Pope, by the very force of circumstances, frequently intervenes in the internal affairs of a number of states. But those nations

of which the population is partly or wholly Catholic cannot allow the Pope to be the subject of any ruler. The Pope should be free and emancipated from subjection to any government whatever. The Sovereign Pontiff cannot be the subject of any state.

"Consequently, although the popes have been deprived of their papal states, although by loss of territory the Supreme Pontiff has ceased to be a reigning sovereign of a temporal state, yet, by the general consent of the powers, he is treated as a sovereign. He has the right to send and to receive diplomatic representatives, and, moreover, at certain courts the apostolic nuncio has precedence over other ambassadors.

"It is not only the so-called Catholic countries which maintain diplomatic relations with the Vatican. Even the Czar of Russia, the official head of the Russian Church, has found it convenient to have a diplomatic representative at the papal court; and stout Protestant dynasties, like those of Holland and of Prussia, have seen the advantage of maintaining diplomatic relations with the head of that Church which numbers so many of their subjects in its communion."

England and the United States, on special occasions, have sent missions to the Vatican, but no permanent embassies are maintained by those countries.

TEMPORAL LIMITS OF THE POPE'S POWER.

"The power of the Holy See over men's souls has been more durable than its power over their bodies. At the present day, the Pope no longer claims the right to direct the temporal affairs of the world. He no longer claims to be Lord Paramount of the kings of the earth in temporal matters. He no longer pretends to depose princes nor to absolve subjects from their allegiance, but he is still one of the most powerful political personages in the world. His loss of territory has necessarily entailed certain changes. He cannot make war, for obvious reasons. Even if he should attempt to make war with his small band of faithful soldiers, it is doubtful whether the powers would regard it as a legal war. He does not enter into treaties as between state and state, but he concludes with governments agreements which are known as concordats. He was also debarred from taking part in the Czar's Peace Conference, on account of the fact that the Holy See is not a temporal state. The loss of the temporal possessions has in some ways, however, added to the dignity and authority of the Pope. His power, relieved from temporal localization, has increased throughout Christendom. His influence touches all countries. For

an illustration, one has but to look at Spain, where for years Carlist agitation has been kept down and the dynasty of Alfonso has been upheld, largely through the influence of the late Pontiff.

"As Monsieur Rivier remarks in his great work on international law: 'If the successor of Gregory and of Innocent is not to-day the monarch of monarchs, the dispenser of crowns, the distributor of continents and oceans, he still personifies the greatest moral force of the world.'"

A PRINCELY CORPS.

SIR HOWARD VINCENT writes in *Pearson's Magazine* on the Imperial Cadet Corps of India:

"The corps is more than a *corps d'élite* to stand before the King. It provides for a real want,—a profession, suitable to their rank, for the princes and nobles of India, who, hitherto, have lived too often in a state of inglorious idleness, under the thumbs of their ministers and advisers.

"The corps is not only intended to give a thorough military education to its cadets, but also such a scholastic and social education as shall fit them to take their places, in time, in the imperial army as British officers and British gentlemen.

"This corps is, perhaps, the most select in existence. It is about thirty strong at present, and numbers five ruling chiefs of Hindustan.

STRICT DISCIPLINE.

"The young princes are kept under very strict discipline. The rules of the corps allow for no laziness or misbehavior of any kind. The viceroy is very careful about the cadet's morals, and any serious offenses are reported to him personally."

The training lasts for two or three years, two terms to a year.

"In the cold weather, the first parade lasts from 8 till 9, and foot drill is the order of the hour. Then comes breakfast, and then, from 10 to 11.30, mounted parade. Lectures and study occupy the time from 12 to 2."

Except that he must attend roll-call at 9.30, the cadet may almost call the rest of the day his own.

The cadets are about equally divided between Hindus and Mohammedans, each having a separate mess. This arrangement has worked very smoothly, the two creeds not clashing.

A GORGEOUS UNIFORM.

Athletic sports are encouraged, and the corps possesses an excellent polo team. The uniform worn by the cadet seems most splendid.

"The full-dress tunic is a long, white, cashmere coat, reaching an inch below the knee, with blue facing and Indian gold embroidery. Gold belts are worn, and a blue and gold turban with a gold ornament, bearing the corps' motto, supported by chains. The gold aigrette on the turban glitters gloriously in the sun, with wavy effect. The sword has a white scabbard and ivory handle. White breeches and jack-boots complete the uniform.

"The cadets look superb on their black horses,—big Australians, standing close on sixteen hands. The saddlery, adorned with snow leopard skins, complete the picture.

AT A LOW PRICE.

"And this perfect uniform, with an undress kit of light khaki, trimmed with gold filagree, costs but 500 rupees—£35. Indeed, a cadet need only spend £100 altogether on his outfit, including linen and furniture, while he receives a monthly allowance of 200 rupees."



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THE IMPERIAL CADET CORPS OF INDIA.

THE KING AND QUEEN OF ITALY.

A "ROYALTY" article is contributed to *La Revue* for October 1 by Paola Lombroso, once music-mistress of Queen Helena, when still Princess of Montenegro. The writer half apologizes for an article which is certainly a high tribute to both King Victor and Queen Helena, especially to the latter. She is at pains to let us know that she is no fanatical monarchist, but a militant radical, a red-hot socialist; and it is as a socialistic psychologist that she has drawn these two royal portraits.



QUEEN HELENA OF ITALY.

Of Victor Emmanuel III. she says that his careful upbringing has not made him a genius; he has none of the versatility of a certain other more flamboyant monarch; he is not able to express what he has seen and heard, but that does not mean that he is either unobservant or unable to see clearly. On the contrary, he is, if unimaginative, highly cultivated and widely informed, and apt to receive new ideas, and a good judge both of men and things. What has specially endeared him to his people is that he abstains from all parade and pomp. From his court and from his private life all luxury and display are severely banished. He avoids public demonstrations as much as possible, and one of the reasons for his fondness for motoring is said to be that he can thus avoid arriving at railway

stations and being officially received. He does not care for poetry, and has the courage to say so. "It always seems to me like bonbons and sweetmeats for women and children." He is neither musical nor artistic; he has, however, been collecting coins since he was only nine, and his numismatic collection is now really valuable.

As for the Queen, her former music-mistress evidently considers her the more interesting character. She writes with unfeigned admiration of her simple home life in Montenegro, till, at the age of twenty, she became the wife of the Italian heir-apparent. The change from an extremely simple life to that of a queen has in no wise turned her head. Her innate good sense and strong taste for simplicity are always uppermost. What she saw in the court ceremonies and did not find good she quietly changed. Formerly royal receptions took place with enormous pomp from 3 to 6 p.m., all ladies in



KING VICTOR EMMANUEL III.

full court dress. Queen Helena, thinking that her husband and children had first claim on her afternoons, fixed her receptions for 10 a.m., ladies to appear like herself in walking dress. She likes pretty and becoming clothes, but does not see why she should live to dress. There is a characteristic story of how one of her children, being embarrassed with a multitude of complex toys, the Queen one day picked them all up. "She cannot play with those grand things," she said—"she wants the toys that other children

have." And a lady of honor was at once sent to buy all the cheapest ordinary children's toys that could be found. Of children she is exceedingly fond, and they of her.

THE BRITISH LIBERALS AND THE EDUCATION ACT.

NOW that there is some prospect of the Liberals being restored to power in Great Britain, the opening article in the *Contemporary Review* for October, by Sir George Kekewich, entitled "The Amendment of the Education Act," is likely to attract considerable attention. The education act, begins Sir George Kekewich, is so nakedly unjust that it is certain to be either repealed or amended drastically before educational peace can be reestablished. Sir George recommends the amendment of the act. The county councils, he says, will be unwilling now to part with their new functions. It is not possible to reestablish the school-board system as it existed before the act. The machinery cannot be abolished, and therefore the way to improve it is to give option to the ratepayers in the great centers of population to declare whether they desire to possess an authority directed for educational purposes alone.

As regards the schools, there is, in Sir George Kekewich's opinion, only one remedy. That is to exclude denominational teaching from the schools altogether.

"Of what, then, should the teaching consist? The syllabi (*sic*) adopted by the school boards, as, for instance, those of London and Liverpool, have shown loyal adherence to the spirit, as well as to the letter, of the Cowper Temple clause. They have met with no real antagonism from the Church. For all practical purposes, the instruction under these syllabi (*sic*) has been better and more effective than that in the great majority of denominational schools. The question may well be asked, therefore, why the Cowper Temple clause should not now be applied to all schools, and the local authorities be left as free under it as the school boards were. It must be remembered that, as regards provided schools, they are in the same position already."

The only alternative to this is the complete secularizing of the schools, and of this Sir George Kekewich does not approve. As regards non-Protestant and non-Christian centers, he suggests that power should be given to the local authority to sanction the reservation of certain schools, with the approval of the board of education, for children belonging to a particular non-Protestant or non-Christian church, no religious instruction being given in such schools

during ordinary school hours, but facilities being afforded for denominational instruction in the building outside school hours, not at the public cost. As for London:

"The solution of the London problem appears to be to reestablish a body directly elected by the ratepayers for the control of education, and for that purpose alone, and to place under its supervision all kinds of education."

THE GREATEST SHIPBUILDER IN THE WORLD.

THE Right Hon. W. J. Pirrie, head of the firm of Harland & Wolff, "the most magnificent shipbuilding concern in the world," is interviewed, in the *Young Man*, by Mr. A. S. Moore. He is described as a whole-hearted and patriotic Irishman, now in the thick of developing a new Irish transport scheme. He declares that young men had never better opportunities for building careers than now. He says:

"The battle of life is harder in some respects, owing to the keen competition of the times, but



HON. W. J. PIRRIE.

it must be remembered the days are past when the old advantages of family position and influence availed for a young man's progress. I am happy in thinking that merit is becoming more and more the only determining factor in life, so that to-day the invitation to the youth of the world is, 'Go in and win.'

He advises young men to put as the chief corner-stone of their lives this principle: "Respect your parents' wisdom and good advice."

"At the outset of his career a young man could not do better than resolve that by the help of Divine grace nothing shall enter into his life of which his mother would not approve, or which would have caused her pain."

This advice has been acted on by the man who gives it.

"Mr. Pirrie has great reverence for his beloved mother. One of his most valued possessions,—much more valued than his bank-book,—is the little volume, filled with page after page in her handwriting, that is his inseparable companion over continents and oceans."

Mr. Pirrie is cheery and optimistic as regards the future of commerce. He says international industrial rivalry is a magnificent impetus. "Think," he adds, "how much improvement in our business methods has been accomplished since the Prince of Wales sounded that memorable réveille 'Wake up, England!'"

"Consider the infinite resources of our colonies, millions of acres of almost entirely virgin fields crying for both industrial and agricultural development. We only want our nation to put their heart into their work, as they put it into their sport; there is scope enough for both. Do you think England as a nation can ever be in the rear ranks of commercial progress with such possibilities awaiting our energies? Why, our Ireland itself is ripe for commerce,—so ripe that I should be very sorry to advise one of her young men to try his chances abroad while such glorious prospects remain at his doorstep."

HOSTILE CRITICISM OF EMPEROR WILLIAM.

IN the *Contemporary* for October there is an anonymous article on the German Emperor, which had need to be anonymous if it is written by one of his Majesty's subjects. It is entitled simply "William II.," but is packed full of severe criticism, which shows that the writer has a very poor opinion of the Emperor's ability to play the great part which his vanity impels him to attempt. The chief characteristic of Wilhelm II., says the writer, is his capricious and exuberant impetuosity, which makes his personal actions extremely uncertain and incalculable. In his character and ways he is not a German. The sedateness, frugality, thoroughness, and perseverance which are characteristic of the German mind are entirely lacking in him. He possesses, instead, brilliant imagination, love of display, vivacity, loquacity, capriciousness, and thirst for *gloire*,—qualities which all spring from feminine vanity. He resembles most his great-uncle Frederick William IV., who, according to Benedetti, "was never the same man two days running."

SURROUNDED BY SYCOPHANTS.

All this would not matter if the Kaiser were a figurehead. He is anything but that. German

policy is to-day absolutely and completely under the influence of the German Emperor. He is the only motive power in political life, and his decisions are hardly affected by his responsible advisers. But, as the result of his character, he has superseded all the ministries, and surrounded himself by all the ambitious, all the sycophants, all the mischief-makers, and all the intriguers.

"The intrigues between the various sets, composed of high dignitaries, courtiers, and chance acquaintances, which competed for the ear or for the favor of the Emperor, became more and more daring as time went on, and at last brought about more than one grave public scandal, for more than one exposure in the law courts was the outcome of the bitter and relentless war of calumny and defamation which took place between the hostile camps of courtiers and favorites who struggled for influence."

THE EFFECT ON GERMAN POLICY.

Thus Germany's policy has of late become exceedingly frivolous and adventurous, and more and more resembles that of France during the Second Empire, *une politique de pourboire*. In Germany, in the best-informed quarters, it is believed that the course which the Kaiser is steering will inevitably lead to disaster; and the flatterers and time-servers who surround the monarch keep him in a state of delusion as to the true state of the country.

"It is, therefore, but natural that German policy is becoming in an increasing degree visionary, ineffective, adventurous, and unsuccessful; that it experiences repeated failures at home and in every quarter of the world.

THE FRUITS OF INTERFERENCE.

"The Emperor's versatility and many-sidedness are universally known, but though it is humanely impossible that he should have a thorough knowledge of the numerous subjects in which he takes an active interest, he considers himself the highest authority in Germany on foreign and home policy, on military and naval matters, on administration and law, on theology and education, on archaeology and sociology, on painting and architecture, on sculpture and music, on the drama and stage management, and on many other subjects too numerous to be mentioned. Whether it is his boundless confidence in the superiority of his own judgment, or whether it is his opinion that his exalted position should, *ipso facto*, enable him to be the *summus arbiter in omnibus rebus*, seems doubtful. At any rate, it is certain that he considers himself the highest authority in all these matters and many more, and that he strives strenuously to impose,

if not his views, his predilections and his tastes, at least his will, by all means in his power on the experts of the nation and on the nation itself."

The result of his continual interference is that he has made himself thoroughly disliked. He has attempted to treat the city of Berlin as a powerful noble might treat an insignificant village on his estate; and the Berliners, in return, indulge in lively *Schadenfreude* at every failure of his policy. As an example of the Kaiser's domineering disposition, the writer gives the following instance:

"At one time the Emperor wished to have more churches built in Berlin, and after admonishing the local authorities in vain to build more churches, tried to revive an obsolete law dating from the sixteenth century, when Berlin was hardly bigger than Windsor is now, according to which the town was compelled to provide a certain number of churches in proportion to the number of the inhabitants. In attempting to put this old act into practise, it came to a lawsuit with Berlin, which, on the last appeal, was won by the town."

The Kaiser has actually proscribed Hauptmann's plays, while trashy dramas glorifying the Hohenzollerns are given free runs in the state theaters. The following is another instance given by the writer:

"When William II. had inspected the newly-erected building of the Reichstag, and had publicly stigmatized it as the *ne plus ultra* of bad taste, the architects of Berlin gave a great dinner to the designer, at the end of which a huge model of the Reichstag, composed of table delicacies, made its appearance, with the legend written on it, 'The *ne plus ultra* of good taste.'"

THE FOURTH NAPOLEON.

The writer quotes Bismarck's description of Napoleon III. as fitting exactly the present occupant of the German throne, and adds:

"These threatening armaments of Germany, together with the numerous ambitious, if not aggressive, declarations of the Emperor and his chief officials, have led to a new political constellation in Europe which seems to bode the coming isolation of Germany. Besides, the anti-British agitation and Germany's ambitions in South Africa and other parts of the world have been largely responsible for the unification of Great Britain and her colonies, an event which is by no means desired by German statesmen, while the drawing together of Great Britain and the United States can be directly traced to the aggressive anti-Anglo-Saxon world policy of the German Emperor. It is evident that the indis-

cretions of German policy have brought about results which are the reverse of what was expected and intended by their author."

HOW UNCLE SAM FEEDS HIS SAILORS.

IT is the boast of American naval officers that our blue-jackets are the best-paid, best-clothed, and best-cared-for body of sailor men in the world, and the facts brought out in the article contributed to *Gunton's* for October, by Mrs. George M. Stackhouse, entitled "How Uncle Sam Feeds His Sailors," go far to substantiate the claim.

"The navy ration," says the writer, "is, of course, provided for by law, and the daily diet of the enlisted man must conform, in some degree, to this prescribed *régime*; but infinite is the variety and ample is the dietary realm of Jack the Sailor. As compared with the daily bill of fare of the workingman on shore, the odds are greatly in favor of the sailor. Should he be inclined to grumble at his daily fare, it must be from caprice of appetite, for what laboring man enjoys better and more wholesome food? His food must be well cooked, for no bad cooks are allowed in the navy. Where a cook is incompetent, he is reported, for Jack Tar's stomach must be kept in a healthy condition, if our ships are to be manned with a sturdy lot of sailors. His food must be of the best quality, for it is no secret that Uncle Sam demands the best article in the market, and gets it. The larger ships of the navy now have refrigerating plants of sufficient capacity to carry fresh meat that will ordinarily last from the time of leaving one port till another is reached. In recent years, the means of keeping fresh vegetables at sea for a long time have also been greatly improved, so that fresh provisions are served out at such times and in such quantities as to vary the sea ration. It can no longer be said that the men of the navy, when at sea, are compelled to live entirely on sea food which, as everybody knows, consists of various tinned meats and vegetables.

THE MESSING SYSTEM.

"The messing system on board a big man-of-war is as complex and complete as the table service of a big hotel. The modern war-ship, with its five or six hundred persons on board, must be a floating hotel and storehouse in itself. Every vessel of the navy is required by the regulations governing the navy to have a general messing system. The enlisted men on ship are divided into squads of about twenty each, forming a mess. Chief petty officers and officers'

servants are not included in this division. Every mess has one or two petty officers at its table, who fare like the men. Every mess has its special messman who brings the food from the galley and serves it at the table. It is also the messman's duty to see that the mess-table and mess-gear are clean and in order. The messes on board ship are under the direct supervision of the commissary department, which is under the control of the pay officers."

JACK'S DAILY BILL OF FARE.

It is very evident that the food served to the enlisted men lacks neither in wholesomeness nor in variety.

"The food of the enlisted man on a ship of the United States navy is purchased, cooked, and served entirely at the expense of the Government, the cost being about thirty cents a day for each man. As for variety, nourishment, and a liberal allowance, the list below will show for itself. Three times a day Jack receives a full meal, which may consist of some of the following articles allowed daily to each person: 'One pound and a quarter of salt or smoked meat, with three ounces of dried, or six ounces of canned, fruit, and three gills of beans or peas, or twelve ounces of flour; or one pound of preserved meat, with three ounces of dried or six ounces of canned fruit and twelve ounces of rice, or eight ounces of canned vegetables, or four ounces of desiccated vegetables; together with one pound of biscuit, two ounces of butter, four ounces of sugar, two ounces of coffee or cocoa, or one-half ounce of tea and one ounce of condensed milk or evaporated cream; and a weekly allowance of one-half pound of macaroni, four ounces of cheese, four ounces of tomatoes, one-half pint of vinegar, one-half pint of pickles, one-half pint of molasses, four ounces of salt, one-quarter ounce of pepper, and one-half ounce of dry mustard.'

"These fresh provisions may be substituted whenever practicable: For one and one-quarter pounds of salt or smoked meat or one pound of preserved meat, one and three-quarter pounds of fresh meat; in lieu of the article usually issued with salt, smoked or preserved meat, fresh vegetables of equal value; for one pound of biscuit, one and one-quarter pounds of soft bread or eighteen ounces of flour; for three gills of beans or peas, twelve ounces of flour or rice, or eight ounces of canned vegetables; and for twelve ounces of flour or rice, or eight ounces of canned vegetables, three gills of beans or peas.

"To enlisted men of the engineer and dynamo force, standing watch between 8 o'clock at night and 8 o'clock in the morning, when the ship is

under steam, the following is allowed in addition to their daily ration: One ounce of coffee or cocoa, two ounces of sugar, four ounces of hard bread or its equivalent, and four ounces of preserved meat or its equivalent."

THE BUSINESS SIDE OF CITY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

THE fact that the school system of a city is a business organization is too generally lost sight of by the taxpayers. In New York City the Board of Education handles nearly \$39,000,000 a year, in Chicago more than \$13,000,000, in Philadelphia nearly \$5,000,000, and in lesser cities the expenditure is proportionate. Commenting on these facts in the current number of the *Forum*, Mr. C. B. Gilbert inquires how the affairs of private corporations handling equivalent sums of money in these various cities are administered by their officers. The boards of directors of such corporations, as every one knows, vote on all matters of policy; their function is legislative. The execution of decisions, on the other hand, is left altogether to executive officers, who are responsible for results.

Mr. Gilbert's account of how the details of business are managed for schools is interesting:

"First, there is a board of education corresponding to the board of directors of a private corporation. In very many cities this board is very large, in some cases as large as seventy. It is divided into numerous committees, as many as can be devised, in order, if possible, to give each member a chairmanship. These committees combine, in an indescribable and confusing way, legislative and executive duties. One committee hires all the janitors; another buys all supplies of a certain kind; another supervises high schools; another provides the instruction in German; another provides the instruction in manual training; another decides upon and purchases text-books; another employs teachers; and so on, *ad infinitum*. The men holding positions as chairmen and members of the committees are selected from all walks of life, commonly the lower, and often with absolutely no knowledge of the subjects assigned to their committees. They proceed to pass upon all kinds of subjects, even those requiring expert and technical knowledge, with the wisdom of owls and the fatuity of the ostrich, and then to put their decisions into execution.

"I have heard discussions upon such technical subjects as ventilation and school hygiene by members of a school board who attempted both to legislate and to carry their decisions into execution, which discussions, if exactly

quoted, would make the success of any vaudeville theater. I had once the experience of seeing cooking and sewing put out of the schools of the city in which I was superintendent, because I had unwisely called the subjects 'domestic economy,' and the members of the board did not know what the term meant. It is not uncommon for even respectable, honest, and thoroughly well-meaning people to do the most absurd and injurious things as the result of the methods of organization and administration which put upon them duties for which they are wholly unfit. I have known men to be placed upon committees, with the duty of selecting text-books to be used in schools, who could scarcely write their names, much less intelligently read the text-books submitted. I have known others to be members of committees on courses of study, though they could scarcely distinguish Webster's spelling-book from a Greek alphabet. I have known upon committees charged with the duty of building schoolhouses costing many thousands of dollars men who have never been able to make a respectable living, and could not properly supervise the construction of a hen-coop."

THE IDEAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

After showing up some of the absurdities of our present systems of school administration, Mr. Gilbert outlines a system such as he would like to see adopted in our great cities, the main points of which are as follows :

"In both the educational and the business departments of school administration there should be executive officers, with powers similar to those of the president of the Steel Company, men selected on account of their particular qualifications for the duties involved and endowed with adequate authority.

"The business side should have, in large cities at least, a business manager,—a man of financial and business training, who should be the general head of all the business. That is, he should let contracts for furnishing supplies and for building schoolhouses ; he should have entire charge of the janitorial force ; he should be able to employ architects and other specialists whenever needed ; he should be responsible for keeping the building in repair ; he should see that the funds of the board are properly cared for ; in short, he should be the business executive.

"On the educational side, the superintendent of schools should be such executive. It goes without saying that the school superintendent should be an educational expert ; that is, he should be a well-educated man in the common

sense, preferably a university graduate. He should have had experience in teaching, and to some extent in supervision. He should be a student of education in both the theoretical and the practical sense. He should be sufficiently a man of affairs to be able to advise the board as to the needs of schoolhouses and school appliances ; he should, in short, be an educational expert. He should hold his office,—without danger of removal, except for serious dereliction,—for a sufficiently long time to be able to demonstrate his organizing ability and the value of his educational notions, and he should be held responsible for the general educational results within the schools. That he may be held so responsible, he should be given the requisite authority. This authority should include the right to appoint all teachers and subordinate officials on the educational side, such as supervisors and principals, subject to the approval of the board of education. He should have the power to suspend and remove all such employees for cause,—which term should include inefficiency as well as insubordination or moral fault,—still subject to the approval of the board and to proper civil-service laws. He should have the power, after proper consultation with his associates, to prepare and administer courses of study and to select text books for use in the schools ; and he should be the final authority in matters relating to methods of instruction, school discipline, gradation, promotion, and the like. The powers and duties of these executive officers should be fixed by law.

"It seems strange that it should be necessary even to present such a statement as this. In a large business concern no other plan would be considered for a moment. Imagine the directors of a railroad attempting, in solemn assembly, to appoint all brakemen ; buy the lubricating oil, and give orders for the printing of tickets ; going personally to Podunk or Painted Post to see whether a plank was needed in the station platform, and then looking around for some political or personal friend to whom could be given the job of putting it in. Imagine them endeavoring to solve the intricacies of a time-sheet, or insisting upon being consulted when it became necessary to sidetrack a freight train. Yet these actions would be scarcely more absurd than the ordinary business and educational management of school boards working through sub-committees.

"The theory underlying the management of most public affairs is wholly different from that underlying the management of private or corporate affairs. That of the latter is that it is necessary to be able to fix responsibility ; that

men in executive positions must be given authority in order that they may be held responsible for results. The theory, apparently, and in many cases certainly, underlying the organization of public business is that it is best to avoid the possibility of fixing responsibility. Many public officials do not like to be held responsible,—naturally, and with evident reason,—and public business is so organized as to enable the guilty or incompetent to escape detection, because no one is responsible."

PROFESSIONAL WOMEN AND THE HOUSING PROBLEM.

IN New York, of all American cities, the housing problem is most acute, and there also special phases of the problem have been developed which in other cities are as yet quite unknown. One of these is the matter of securing suitable accommodations for the 20,000 educated women wage-earners, artists, writers, musicians, teachers and students who go about their daily tasks in the metropolis. An article in the *Arena* for October, by Miss R. H. Knorr, shows what is being attempted by various agencies in the direction of providing homes for the large percentage of these professional women in New York who are without visible family ties. It is clearly brought in this article that until very recently nothing whatever has been done to supply the peculiar needs of this important class on any adequate scale.

"When one considers to what an extent a woman's physical well-being reacts on the efficiency of her work, and furthermore, that home-like surroundings in the hours of rest mean so much to a woman who spends the larger part of her day in office or shop, it is incomprehensible that the awakening social conscience, which is beginning to interest itself in the housing of working people in general, should be so slow to recognize the needs of the unattached women workers. Whatever has been done in this line has been done for the underpaid, in the form of working girls' boarding houses, and so-called 'homes,' generally under religious or charitable auspices. Nor has the business aspect of this phase of the housing question in cities been considered to any extent, for while clubs and apartments abound for men of all ranks, ranging from Mills hotels to the most luxurious 'dens,' apartments adapted to the needs of unattached women, and more especially the great army of women workers, are, with a few notable exceptions, still on paper. The boarding house or the furnished room have so far been the chief agencies in catering to the physical needs of the

majority of unattached women who have neither the time nor the means of making a home for themselves elsewhere. The intolerable gossip of the one and the discomforts and chilling atmosphere of the other are too well known to call for more than passing mention here. But the whole truth has not yet been told, and perhaps never will be, of isolated lives passed amid such cheerless surroundings while battling for the daily bread. The tragedy of the hall bedroom is still unwritten."

THE "BACHELOR GIRL" AND HER CHAFING-DISH.

The widespread revolt from such conditions led to the coöperative flat for "bachelor girls," and this institution has many advantages.

"This colonizing of girls has much in its favor. Coöperation here, as elsewhere, means more for your money's worth. And as the arrangement is understood to be temporary, small hitches are easily overlooked. Less can be said in favor of this departure on a permanent basis, for the result is apt to be disastrous if time reveals serious differences in taste and temperament between the coöperators. But in those rare cases where two entirely congenial women come together, an ideal union is formed that offers perhaps the final solution of the housing problem for unattached women."

One of the model tenements erected in New York several years ago was set aside for self-supporting women. Forty out of forty-five apartments in this building, of one, two, or three rooms each, with an average rental of ninety-three cents per room per week, are occupied by unattached women, most of whom are bread-winners with moderate salaries, including nurses, teachers, clerks, dressmakers, and literary workers. Good order obtains and the rent is promptly paid by the tenants, without exception.

HOTELS EXCLUSIVELY FOR WOMEN.

Several years ago a corporation was organized, with a capital of four hundred thousand dollars, for the purpose of erecting in the city of New York one or more hotels "for the exclusive accommodation of women, especially of those who either maintain themselves, or are preparing to do so, in artistic, literary, educational, professional, mercantile, and kindred pursuits."

This is a purely business enterprise and promises to yield a fair increase on the investment. The first hotel to be completed by the company was opened in March, 1903, every room for permanent guests having been engaged long in advance. This first building, the "Hotel Martha Washington," is a fire-proof, twelve-story structure, accommodating about five hundred guests.

One hundred rooms are reserved for transient use. There is a restaurant for the general public, a dining-room for the guests, and a dainty tea-room. If the success of this pioneer hotel



INTERIOR VIEW OF THE NEW YORK HOTEL FOR WOMEN, THE "MARTHA WASHINGTON."

warrants the undertaking, the same company proposes to erect others in different parts of New York, adapting each to the varying standards of living and thus eventually providing for all the self-supporting women in the city.

COLONIZATION AND IRRIGATION.

THE success of the Salvation Army in starting colonies of small farmers on the irrigated lands of the West was described in this REVIEW for November, 1902. Commander Booth-Tucker, who was one of the first to discern the possibilities of irrigation for groups of worthy but moneyless settlers, gathered for the most part from our overcrowded cities, delivered an address at the recent Irrigation Congress on "The Relation of Colonization to Irrigation." The keynote of this address, which is printed in the October number of *Forestry and Irrigation*, is its emphasis on the importance of population as a necessary adjunct to the successful development of irrigation schemes. The trouble in the past has been that the settlement of irrigated regions has lagged because of the idea that only men with capital could develop the land.

"The most that the capitalist, or land-owner, or irrigationist has been willing to do in the past has been to bring the water to the land, and accept time payments for the latter from the settler. Further than this they have been unwilling to venture. And hence the coloni-

zation of irrigated lands has been almost entirely limited to farmers possessing capital.

"This has had several serious disadvantages.

WHAT THE SMALL FARMER CAN DO.

"1. Irrigation lends itself much more readily to the small intensive farm than to the large ranch from which such settlers usually come.

"2. The small farmer, who is not too high-toned to cultivate the land himself, will succeed where the gentleman farmer, who employs hired labor and sends his children to college, will fail, even though the latter may control ten times as much land as the former and possess a few thousand dollars. Give the former a chance, select him with care, and back him with, say, five hundred dollars cash for a start, and he will succeed better than the latter every time. With ample funds for irrigation now in sight, and with some of our brainiest engineers working out extensive plans, what our arid West calls for is not the non-resident gentleman farmer with his staff of cowboys, but the resident twenty-acre, horny-handed son of the soil, who does not consider it beneath his own or his children's dignity to drive the plow, milk the cow, and earn an honest living by his sweat of brain and brow."

RESULTS OF THE SALVATION ARMY EXPERIMENT.

The outcome of the efforts made by the Salvation Army to place worthy settlers on irrigated lands is described as follows:

"Now scientific colonization uses the worthy family that has no cash. It says in brief: 'Place this waste labor upon the waste land by means of waste capital, and thereby convert this trinity of waste into a unity of production.' It has been argued, on the other hand, that, first, they would not go; second, they would not stay; third, they would not work; and last, but by no means least, they would not pay. We set to work, some six years ago, to put our theories into practice, and are now able to say positively, after more than five years' experience, that they have gone and stayed, they have worked and paid. Even the comparatively few failures we have encountered have been a valuable education to us, and we are now in a position to handle the largest schemes with self-sacrificing and expert managers to direct the same, and with a practical code of regulations to guard us from the rocks on which so many similar enterprises have been wrecked.

"Our three colonies are located in Colorado, California, and Ohio, and comprise nearly three thousand acres of land, on which about four hundred men, women, and children have been

settled. On the first two colonies every family is entirely self-supporting, and the repayments have amounted to considerably more than \$20,000.

"On the California colony last year the settlers averaged a cash income of \$850 per family, each twenty-acre farm being worth, with its improvements, about \$3,000. The Colorado farms are worth from \$2,000 to \$5,000, according to their location and improvements. On the town site have been established some twenty country stores, most of which are operated by colonists. A commercial club has been formed for the development of the business interests of the settlement. Their turn-over last year amounted to about \$200,000, while the railroad received about \$50,000 for freight from our little country depot.

INCREASE IN LAND VALUES.

"On the California colony a thirty-acre tract has recently been sold for \$4,650, including orchard, farmhouse, and other improvements, being at the rate of \$155 an acre for land which cost us some five years previously \$50 an acre. I mention these facts to prove that we were not over sanguine when we argued that land thus thickly settled would by its own rapid increase in value amply protect the investor against loss. Thus, even supposing that the colonist himself could not or would not pay, the populating of the land would so add to its value that in the course of a few years it could be sold for a sufficient sum to cover the colonist's entire indebtedness and leave him a handsome margin with which to make a new start.

"The further extension of colonization will depend, not on land being available, nor on the ability to secure colonists, but on the supply of capital. That this can be safely invested we think we have sufficiently demonstrated.

"That there is land in abundance admirably suited for colonization no one will deny. We have ourselves under offer two most generous donations of land. In one case 50,000 acres of land, in another 20,000, have been placed at our disposal as a gift; but it would require about \$500,000 in the one case and \$250,000 in the other to establish a suitable colony. With this money we could place about 2,000 settlers (including men, women, and children) upon either tract of land, which would then be worth from \$50 to \$100 per acre. Hence it will be readily seen that the security for a loan of the above amount would be ample, since in the one case the value of the donated land thus settled would be at least two and one-half million dollars, and in the other case not less than one million. There

are also vast stretches of rich irrigable land near our California and Colorado colonies, while the new irrigation projects now on foot will make available immense regions with fertile soil and salubrious climate, suited in every sense to be converted into a veritable poor man's paradise."

DOWIE AND DOWIEISM.

MR. I. K. FRIEDMAN, in the November *Everybody's*, characterizes John Alexander Dowie, who has moved his hosts of Zion upon New York, and tells the story of his rapid rise, of his religious faith, and of his acute business and executive ability.

THE CAREER OF A LEADER.

"John Alexander Dowie was born in Edinburgh; he left Scotland for Adelaide, South Australia, when he was thirteen, and he clerked in that boom town for seven years. If he did anything in those days that brought him into prominence, it has escaped the records; but what he did do was to train himself in business methods (being a Scotchman, he had no more to be forced into it than a duck into water), and to prepare himself for the ministry. To-day he has given such a positive demonstration of his genius for business that no one can doubt his abilities; and one may ask those who charge him with a barefaced and impudent hypocrisy why he left commerce for theology unless his whole nature had a strong leaning toward religion.

"Some few years afterward, Dowie broke loose from the Congregational Church, declaring his intention to make his appeal to the masses at large through evangelical work. Already he had a reputation, and his bizarre eloquence, his rough-and-tumble logic, his strong personality, won him an immediate victory in the field of his choice. His impatience of fettering authority accounts for the change, and he seems only to have been acting in accordance with the dictates of his nature.

"One night, in Melbourne, there swept over his consciousness like an inspiration the full force of the sixteenth chapter of St. Mark, 'He that believeth and is baptized shall be saved. . . . In my name shall they cast out devils. . . . They shall lay hands on the sick, and they shall recover.' His imagination was fired with the idea that he was the prophet foretold by Malachi, and on this inspiration he founded what is suppositiously new in his creed and built the foundation of his really immense fortune. He laid hands on his wife's head, prayed, and cured her of headache, and then, as a wit will have it, he

proceeded to lay hands on everybody and everything else. Those who know Dowie say that from early life he 'had visions,' and that he manifested all those symptoms which the alienist would put under the general head of 'religious hysteria;' if this be so, it would offer a plea for his sincerity, and whether it be so or not, it is known that certain deformities and diseases due to brain lesions have been afforded a temporary relief by sudden nervous exaltation, such as might come from prayer; but on this aspect of the case the limits of this article will not let me dwell.

"THE DIVINE HEALING ASSOCIATION."

"His wife and others cured, and the legions of the faithful increasing by virtue of these proofs of miraculous powers, Dowie at once started to form the Divine Healing Association, which developed later on into the larger organization of the International Divine Healing Association, with John Alexander Dowie, quite as a matter of course, for its president.

"The next step in the career of the prophet was his project to found a great healing center in London, and to spread the faith from there around the world. He traveled on to San Francisco, preaching everywhere along the coast, and reached Chicago by easy stages. It was the year of the World's Fair, which brought its swarms of heterogeneous visitors to the city. It seemed as though the mountains had come to Mohammed, and the canny Scotchman was far from letting the golden opportunity slip. The White City did no more for the fortunes of any man than for John Alexander Dowie's. And while the 'Doctor,' whose energies run far up in the horse-powers, worked, preached, and cured eighteen hours of the twenty-four, his corps of well-trained missionaries, his deacons, and his disciples were forced to follow at the pace their master set. The printing-office worked overtime to turn out the divine 'Leaves of Healing,' which is Elijah's official organ, devoted to the prophet's doings and his sayings, accounts of his miraculous cures, with the photographs and the testimonials of those cured. No patent medicine has ever been better advertised, to quote the wit that I have quoted before, than 'Dowie's Handy Remedy for all Diseases.'"

PROGRESSIVE GROWTH AND PROSPERITY.

Dowie's experiences while a resident of the Woodlawn district of Chicago are then described—the complaints to the authorities against him and his arrests (about one hundred in number) for the alleged violation of municipal ordinances. In spite of all this, he prospered.

"From Woodlawn, Elijah the Second moved his abode northward to Michigan Avenue and Sixteenth Street, rented the commodious St. Paul's Church, then degenerated into the base uses of a storehouse, and from this tabernacle as a center, Dowie's institutions spread on both sides of the boulevard for six blocks. There was the Zion Press, the Zion Bank, Zion College, Zion schools, Zion homes, and the huge Imperial Hotel on Park Row was finally absorbed for a divine hospice of healing. It was Zion Avenue as effectually as if it had been so named.

"The prophet had outgrown the International Association, so he discarded the scaffolding by which he had mounted to the clouds, and with proper flourish of trumpets announced the founding of the Christian Catholic Church of Zion, with himself as the general overseer of everything that appertained to its spiritual, temporal, or financial welfare. He was now the absolute master of all its properties, the sole owner of all of it in fact if not in theory, and he is to-day. The Zion Bank, for instance, is a private institution owned by the overseer, its stock consisting of personal notes signed by Dowie and guaranteeing interest to the holder thereof; and the bank is typical of all the Zion industries from start to finish, from souls, if I may so put it, to shoes. In the overseer's business genius Dowie's flock has just as implicit faith as in his religious prophecies—indeed, religion and business, business and religion, are one and inseparable in Zion.

"Meanwhile St. Paul's Church grew too small for the expanding faith, and one fine day Dowie surprised Chicago by calmly stating that he had rented the monster hall of the Auditorium for his Sunday services. Chicago was still more surprised when the overseer filled the place to overflowing weekly.

ZION CITY.

"However, the overseer of the Christian Catholic Church, with characteristic canniness, recognized that it would be unwise longer to defy a public opinion being intensified against him as the days went on by the more energetic action of the health authorities; and, besides, he was just at the turning-point where he was likely to get the wrong end of free newspaper publicity. So the Zion City Land and Investment was incorporated,—John Alexander at the head of it, to be sure,—and his agents purchased six thousand acres of land, forty-two miles north of Chicago, on the shores of Lake Michigan. The cost of the property is estimated at a million and a quarter, but the overseer raised that on his personal notes without seeming difficulty,

and the whole deal went through with a rush and a quiet that must compel admiration as a bit of up-to-date promoting. It is characteristic of the restorer's business instincts that he proposes to dispose of this land in small lots on long leases for fifteen times its original cost.

"Zion City itself is plain and unassuming enough; its newness and its crudities remind one of the boom towns of our more Western prairies. Instead of the saloons and the dance-halls and the theaters, however, there are the tabernacle and the hospice, for in Zion all worldly amusements are forbidden; and instead of the rougher and more ready Westerner, there are the eight thousand mild-eyed, peaceful, weak-looking followers of the latter-day Messiah. In a word, Zion City may be described as a purely religious town, run on a coöperative basis,—the coöperation ceasing, to the eyes of the vulgar and the uninitiated, when the funds get to John Alexander Dowie. Each member of Zion pays a tithe of his income to the prophet, for Elijah levies no charge for his prayers and his cures, and all offerings must come by the free will of the donors,—a system of finance that has the prosperity of its originator to recommend it to institutions avowedly secular."

COÖPERATIVE STORES IN CALIFORNIA.

THE famous Rochdale experiment in distributive coöperation,—no longer looked upon in England as an experiment,—has been repeated at many points in the United States, but nowhere, perhaps, so successfully as in California, where there are to-day fifty-two local stores organized on the coöperative plan, with a wholesale establishment in San Francisco at the head of the system. In the October number of *Out West*, that representative magazine of the Pacific coast, we find the following account of what is known as the Rochdale movement in California:

"It began seven years ago, at a small village in the San Joaquin Valley, and the start was even humbler than that of the English weavers. The name of the village is Dos Palos. The original capital consisted of \$10 in cash and \$14 in produce. At first, the store was opened only one night in each week, and frequently the entire stock was sold on each occasion. Business and membership rapidly increased. More capital was paid in and the store opened for business twice a week, then three times, then every day. At the end of six months, an inventory showed: Fixtures and building, \$100; merchandise and cash on hand, \$559; total, \$659. At the end of another six months, the capital had grown con-

siderably, and a dividend of \$160 was divided among the stockholders. At the end of thirty months, the cash on hand amounted to \$1,061; merchandise, \$3,756; fixtures and building, \$557.22; bills receivable, \$1,005.60; total, \$6,379.82. The date of this report was January 2, 1899. At this time a new building was constructed, 40 by 60 feet, with a hall above. At the end of that year the capital amounted to \$12,930.25.

"The enterprise was then well established, and has continued to expand ever since. The capital on the first of last January was \$20,000, and the gain in business larger in proportion than the increase in capital.

"Having learned the secret of coöperation, the Dos Palos settlers began to extend it in other directions. In 1902, they added a furniture and undertaking department to their store, and opened a lumber and fuel yard. During the present year, they have started a creamery which handles the product of several hundred cows. They have now determined upon a cold-storage plant and an ice factory, and are also considering plans for a steam laundry.

"Such things must either die quickly or extend in all directions. They simply cannot stand still. It is contrary to the laws of the universe. And at Dos Palos they appear to have taken firm root, and to be likely to extend until all the public-spirited members of the community have come together in an institution through which they will not only buy all they consume, but sell all they produce. Not the least interesting side of such things is the social life growing out of them. It is a business partnership which flowers in brotherhood. Is it not delightful to contemplate what California will be when the Dos Palos example shall have been followed generally and carried to its logical conclusion by a multitude of communities?

THE LOS ANGELES COÖPERATORS.

"An example of another kind is the institution known as the Los Angeles Coöperators. This was strong to begin with, but gets stronger all the time. It started with a considerable capital, as was to be expected in a community as large as Los Angeles. It does a monthly business of about eight thousand dollars, which is constantly increasing. In addition to the large parent store, it now has two good-sized branches in different parts of the city.

"This company has developed a plan which makes it in effect a mammoth department store. In addition to its large grocery business, conducted in its own stores, it has arrangements with dealers in every line, from the haberdasher

to the agricultural implement man. By throwing the trade of its 1,500 members to the 'associated stores,' it obtains discounts ranging from 5 to 15 per cent. on all they buy. This goes to swell the profits of the coöperative stockholders. It is more than likely that in the end they will have a big department store of their own, under their own roof, with branches in many different parts of the city. This would be nothing but the legitimate growth which is reasonably to be expected. The possibilities in a city as large as Los Angeles are almost unlimited."

A NEW PARASITE.

IN the last number of the periodical issued by the world-famous zoological station at Naples, to publish the results obtained by the investigators who come from all countries to study the rich fauna and flora of the Italian coast, appears an account of a new parasite.

The writer, Dr. R. T. Günther, cites such distinguished men as Gegenbaur, von Kolliker, and Heinrich Müller as the true discoverers of the new animal, although it is doubtful whether it ought to be called their discovery, inasmuch as the scientists in question did not know what they had discovered. These scientists had collected from the Mediterranean Sea quantities of a certain fragile mollusk called phyllishœ, a somewhat anomalous shellfish that lacks a shell, and like many of the marine mollusca, is exquisitely beautiful, being transparent and colorless, but thickly dotted over with phosphorescent patches that render it luminous at night.

There was a peculiar structure depending from the lower side of the mollusk, the use of which was not apparent, but which, it was thought, might be some kind of a gland, and might possibly secrete a fluid to attract the unwary within reach of phyllishœ when it desired to eat. Other explanations were offered, but the matter was dismissed without reaching any definite conclusion.

The writer found that phyllishœ sometimes showed no such structure on its ventral side, and after giving the specimens a more careful examination, found it was not a part of the mollusk at all, but a separate organism attached to it, and the organism was one of the jellyfishes.

The jellyfish family presents many different forms, and different species may appear quite dissimilar at first glance, and anatomical study may be necessary to establish the relationship of different kinds. They are among the most delicate creatures that live in the sea, often mere animate films that would collapse into a shape-

less mass if not supported by the buoyancy of the water, but they have great tenacity of life and have persisted for ages against the storms and stresses of the ocean as well as the hostile attacks of other animals. They are phosphorescent, and as many species have the habit of traveling in large companies, they often present the appearance of a submerged bit of the Milky Way as they drift through the water at night. Many kinds possess stinging cells, from which threads like minute harpoons are thrown out against the enemy, producing the effect of an electric shock that may amount to an electrocution: so the initiated, at least, keep at a respectful distance. But parasitism has not been known among them, and it was most unexpected to find this new one attached to the mollusk.

Mnestra is shaped like an open umbrella, with the mouth at the end of the handle and a tentacle floating at the end of each of the four radial canals, which have the same position as the side of an umbrella.

By means of its mouth it attaches itself to phyllishœ just beneath the junction of the œsophagus and stomach, and there it sucks blood and cells from the tissues of its host.

It has stinging cells, but they are on the outside of the umbrella surface, not in a position to be used against the host, although they can be used against an approaching enemy, and the writer notes that they were so used in at least one instance, the mollusk purposely turning its parasitized side toward the intruder. On this account, it may be that the relation between them is of mutual advantage.

This type of jellyfish usually swims by contracting and expanding the top of the umbrella: but the parasite, carried about by its host, has no occasion to swim, still it contracts in the same way, and the writer thinks the contractions aid in drawing blood from the host, and compares the change in the use of the umbrella with an adaptation in the life history of certain crustacea, where appendages originally devised for swimming become converted into organs for mastication.

The writer was puzzled to know how mnestra and phyllishœ get together, for even if the jellyfish swims independently when young, it must be a weak swimmer, while phyllishœ is more active, and could escape unless there were many parasites present, and that was not the case.

But the germ cells of many of these animals can creep or swim about, and examination showed that germ cells had penetrated within the body of the host, and were developing there. Between this development inside, and the subsequent attachment outside, of the body of the

host, there is probably a period when the jelly-fish leads a free existence, because small shells of a pelagic organism were found in the stomach of one parasite which must have attached itself only a short time before, for it could not have obtained such food from the body of the host.

BIRDS AS INSECT-CATCHERS.

THE value of our native birds as devourers of noxious insects is too often lost sight of. Those who plead for the protection of the birds base some of their strongest arguments on the services rendered by the feathered tenants of our fields and forests in ridding the farmer of some of his most destructive pests. Such an argument is pressed by Mr. Louis Windmüller in an article contributed by him to the *Outlook* (New York) of October 10. After alluding to the fact that robins have a relish for the poisonous beetle which causes the death of the cow as soon as it enters her stomach, Mr. Windmüller proceeds to enumerate certain other insect-destroyers among our wild birds, as follows:

"The rose-breasted grosbeak, too often shot for its plumage, has a predilection for potato-bugs. Of summer birds none are more beneficial than swallows; with open beak one of these tiny birds will absorb during its rapid flight all moths and mosquitoes it encounters. Their annoyance will cease wherever swallows congregate. Roosting under eaves, they like to use the clay for the construction of their homes. Of this material moistened piles should be provided convenient to barns and outhouses in springtime. Martins and thrushes also are useful; the cuckoo will feed on caterpillars so hairy as to be despised by almost all other birds. When the stomachs of cuckoos were opened by Professor Beal in the Bureau of Agriculture, they were lined with the fur of caterpillars. Woodpeckers live on ants.

"The kingbird is by nature a fly-catcher. Contents of the gizzards of 238 meadow larks consisted, 73 per cent. of grasshoppers, etc., and 27 per cent. of vegetable food. The consumption by them and American sparrows of weed-seed is as useful as the destruction of insects; in either case, birds save the farmer much labor.

"Shrikes are called the butchers of insects because they harpoon living locusts with hooked bills, and preserve what they cannot eat at once for rainy days to come. A catbird will enjoy cherries, but for every single cherry he picks he will consume a thousand worms. All summer birds protect the foliage of elm trees against beetles, insuring a continuance of their cooling shade. Goat-suckers, that formerly had the repu-

tation of taking milk, have been found catching flies that torment cattle. Some harm is done by some birds, but more good than harm is done even by the most obnoxious."

A HOSPITAL AND CRECHE FOR BIRDS.

"A WOMAN'S Novel Profession" is the title which Miss Lena Shepstone gives in the *Girls' Realm* to the work of Miss Virginia Pope:

"In the very center and heart of her busy city, she has established a hospital and boarding house for birds. At the time of writing, the hospital contains over six hundred patients and the boarding house some four thousand feathered pets. The latter are sent to the house by their owners while on their holidays. The charge made is from one shilling to half a crown per week, which includes board and lodging and all attendance. The most interesting department of this novel and fascinating institution is the hospital. It comprises several wards,—large, light rooms for the convalescents, and small, darkened compartments for the contagious cases and the patients requiring rest and quietude. About the main wards are arranged the private wards,—airy cages, with lofty perches, and dark boxes with hot-water bottles, mattresses, cotton pillows, and warm flannel coverings."

The medical diagnosis is surprisingly like what is observed with human patients. The bird's tongue is examined; its digestion and appetite are watched. Pills are given in grapes or mixed with food. In surgical cases, "the birds are usually operated upon without chloroform;" only in very serious cases is it used. "In nine cases out of ten," according to the bird specialist, "a broken wing or leg can be saved." Miss Pope has taken courses in homœopathy and in allopathy; she has doctored and cured several thousands of birds. She has sat up all night with a Mexican parrot, originally worth £50, which was dangerously ill. Besides keeping a birds' boarding house and school, Miss Pope trains backward or untidy birds.

STUDIES IN BIRD-SONG.

IT is a charming diversion from the usually solid articles of the *London Quarterly Review* when Mr. Robert McLeod favors us with an essay on the development of bird-song. He reviews two works on the subject by Mr. Charles A. Witchell, who defines bird-song as the whole range of voice in birds. He suggests that the first vocal sounds were cries of terror or anger. To the danger-signal and combat cry is added

the call note. These three strands have been woven into the song of most of our birds.

MIMICRY IN BIRDS.

Imitation is represented as one of the principal sources of musical composition among birds:

"The warblers have, as we might expect, much in common in their voices; and the sedge-warbler, a mighty singer, is a gifted mimic. There is practically no limit to the variety of sounds it can reproduce. We have listened to its extraordinary song—a medley of many strains—when twilight was deepening into darkness, and have been entranced. It is impossible to describe it,—rapid, of many tones, of manifold lights and shades, of varied cadences, reproducing with absolute fidelity the songs of neighbor birds, in some cases apparently arranged in a preconcerted order. Buntings imitate pipits; greenfinches and yellow-hammers have similar voices; and we know that in winter they seek their food in the same places, and hear each other's calls. So imitative is the jay in a wild state that it has been known to introduce into its song not only the shrill *whew* of the kite, the scream of the buzzard, and the hooting of the owl, but the bleating of the lamb and the neighing of the horse. A sparrow, we are told, educated under a linnet, hearing by accident a goldfinch sing, developed a song that was a mixture of the songs of these two birds; while another, brought up in a cage of canaries, sang like a canary, only better; a third, reared in a cage close to a skylark, imitated with surprising success the skylark's song, but interrupted the strain with its own call notes. . . . Animal cries, too, have been imitated. The roar of the ostrich and of the lion, it is said, are so similar that even Hottentots are sometimes unable to discriminate between them."

THE NIGHTINGALE'S REPERTORY.

Mr. Witchell is undoubtedly a bold man. He has not feared to attempt a description of the witchery of the nightingale's song. The prose-writer has rushed in where even poets feared to tread; and we are grateful to the reviewer for reproducing the passage which follows:

The fullness of tone which the nightingale displays interferes with the accuracy of imitation in many instances; and, indeed, so wonderful is the song that the listener is apt to forget all else than the supreme impulse and passion of the singer. Perhaps the surroundings of the bird increase the effect. The murmur of the stream; the soft moonlight which bathes the dewy meadow and sheds white waves across the woodland track, checkered with shadows of clustering fresh May leaves,—these are suitable features in the realm of this monarch of song, and increase the effect. Now it pro-

longs its repetitions till the wood rings. Now its note seems as soft as a kiss; now it is a loud shout, perchance a threat (*rrrrrr*); now a soft *peeuu, peeuu*, swelling in an amazing *crescendo*. Now it imitates the *stip stip stip stststst* of the woodwarbler, now the bubbling notes of the nuthatch. The scientific investigator is abashed by this tempestuous song, this wild melody, the triumph-song of Nature herself, piercing beyond the ear, right to the heart. It is pleading now! But no, it is declamatory; now weird, now fierce; triumphant, half merry. One seems to hear it chuckle, mock, and defy almost in the same breath.

WHY BIRDS SING.

The reviewer thinks that the influence of love on the evolution of bird-song has been much exaggerated. In the case of migrants, the male bird sings rapturously *before* the arrival of the female, but "as a matter of fact, it is not till courtship is over, the nest built, and domestic cares begun that the bird utters its full heart. . . . The perfect melody is not that of one who woos, but of one who has won. . . . Song, which in its highest display belongs to the spring of the year, is uttered in the main by the adult male. It is probably a manifestation of vigor and exuberant vitality. It is the overflow of the new life and contagious gladness, which the springtide, with its abundance of food and its bright sunshine, bring to the healthy bird."

THE SCIENTIST SOLVING THE FOOD PROBLEMS.

"IT has been said that mankind is never more than three months removed from abject starvation." From this ancient truism Mr. Ray Stannard Baker, in the November *Harper's*, details some of the numerous ways by which science is supplementing the lessening food supply, and comes quickly to the remarkable experiments of Professor Nobbe, of Forest Academy, Tharandt, in Saxony. He describes Professor Nobbe's work in part as follows:

"In times past investigators of soil and plant culture devoted their attention largely to studying the composition of various kinds of soil to the improvement of fertilizers, and in suggesting new systems of drainage and water-supply. Professor Nobbe has gone a step further in advance, declaring that plants will grow, under certain conditions, just as well without soil as with soil. At first glance this may seem strange enough, yet here are trees, from eight to ten inches in circumference at the base of the trunk, growing in clean water, without a sign of soil of any description. They stand in rows just back of the Forest Academy, and near Professor Nobbe's greenhouse."

MAKING SOIL ACTIVE BY CHEMICALS.

Tracing many experiments by different scientists up to the point where it was decided that the nodules on plants which grow in soil devoid of nitrogen were the result of bacteria in the soil, Mr. Baker proceeds :

"Professor Nobbe took up the work with vigor. If these nodules were produced by bacteria, then the bacteria must be present in the soil; and if they were not present, would it not be possible to supply them by artificial means? In other words, if soil, even worn-out farm soil,—or, indeed, pure sand, like that of the seashore,—could thus be inoculated, as a physician inoculates a guinea-pig with anthrax germs, would not beans and peas planted there form nodules and draw their nourishment from the air? It was a somewhat startling idea; but all radically new ideas are startling, and after thinking it over, Professor Nobbe began, in 1888, a series of most remarkable experiments, having as their purpose the discovery of a practical method of soil inoculation. He gathered the nodule-covered roots of beans and peas, dried and crushed them, and made an extract of them in water. Then he prepared a gelatine solution with a little sugar, asparagine, and other materials, and added the nodule extract. In this medium colonies of bacteria at once began to grow—bacteria of many kinds. Professor Nobbe separated the radiocola—which are oblong in shape—and made what is known as a 'clean culture,'—that is, a culture in gelatine consisting of billions of these particular germs and no others. When he had succeeded in producing these clean cultures, he was ready for his actual experiments in growing plants. He took a quantity of pure sand, and in order to be sure that it contained no nitrogen, nor bacteria in any form, he heated it to a high temperature three different times for six hours, thereby completely sterilizing it. This sand he placed in three jars. To each of these he added a small quantity of mineral food,—the required phosphorus, potassium, iron, sulphur, and so on. To the first he supplied no nitrogen at all in any form; the second he fertilized with saltpeter, which is largely composed of nitrogen in a form in which plants may readily absorb it through their roots; the third of the jars he inoculated with some of his bacteria culture. Then he planted beans and awaited the results,—as may be imagined, somewhat anxiously. Perfectly pure sterilized water was supplied to each jar in equal amounts. The seeds sprouted, and for a week the young shoots in the three jars were almost identical in appearance. But soon after

that there was a gradual but striking change. The beans in the first jar, having no nitrogen and no inoculation, turned pale and refused to grow, finally dying down completely,—starved for want of nitrogenous food, exactly as a man would starve for the lack of the same kind of nourishment. The beans in the second jar, with the fertilized soil, grew about as they would in the garden, all of the nourishment having been artificially supplied. But the third jar, which had been jealously watched, showed really a miracle of growth. It must be remembered that the soil in this jar was as absolutely free of nitrogen as the soil in the first jar, and yet the beans flourished greatly, and when some of the plants were analyzed they were found to be rich in nitrogen. Nodules had formed on the roots of the beans in the third or inoculated jar only, thereby proving beyond the hope of the experimenter that soil inoculation was a possibility, at least in the laboratory.

"With this favorable beginning, Professor Nobbe went forward with his experiments with renewed vigor. He tried inoculating the soil for peas, lupin, vetch, acacia, robinia, and in every case the roots formed nodules, and although there was absolutely no nitrogen in the soil, the plants invariably flourished.

INOCULATING THE SOIL.

"Having thus proved the remarkable efficacy of soil inoculation in his laboratory and greenhouses, where I saw great numbers of experiments still going forward, Professor Nobbe set himself to make his discoveries of practical value. He gave to his bacteria cultures the name 'Nitragen'—spelled with an a—and he produced separate cultures for each of the important crops—peas, beans, vetch, lupin, and clover. In 1894, the first of these were placed on the market, and they had a considerable sale, although such a radical innovation as this, so far out of the ordinary run of agricultural operation, and so almost unbelievably wonderful, cannot be expected to spread very rapidly. The cultures are now manufactured at one of the great commercial chemical laboratories on the river Main. I saw some of them in Professor Nobbe's laboratory. They were put up in small glass bottles, each marked with the name of the crop for which it is especially adapted. The bottle was partly filled with the yellow gelatinous substance in which the bacteria grow. On the surface of this there was a mossylike gray growth, resembling mould. This consisted of innumerable millions of the little oblong bacteria. A bottle cost about fifty cents, and contained enough bacteria for inoculating half an acre of land. It must be

used within a certain number of weeks after it is obtained, while it is still fresh. The method of application is very simple. The contents of the bottle are diluted with warm water. Then the seeds of the beans, clover, or peas, which have previously been mixed with a little soil, are treated with this solution and thoroughly mixed with the soil. After that the mass is partially dried so that the seeds may be readily sown. The bacteria at once begin to propagate in the soil, which is their natural home, and by the time the beans or peas have put out roots they are present in vast numbers, and ready to begin the active work of forming nodules. It is not known exactly how the bacteria absorb the free nitrogen from the air, but they do it successfully, and that is the main thing. Many German agriculturists have tried Nitragen. One, who was skeptical of its virtues wrote to Professor Nobbe that he sowed the bacteria-inoculated seeds in the form of a huge letter N in the midst of his field, planting the rest in the ordinary way. Before a month had passed, that N showed up green and big over all the field, the plants composing it thriving so much better than those around it."

THE HOUSE OF VICTOR HUGO.

TIBURCE BEAUGEARD describes in the *English Illustrated* "La Maison de Victor Hugo," now the property of the city of Paris and a public museum. Its contents bear witness to the versatility of the great writer. There is a desk carved by the great poet himself, originally intended for a charity bazar, but kept by the poet's wife, who sent a thousand-franc note instead. On this desk are the inkstands of A.



THE HOUSE IN THE PLACE DES VOEGES, PARIS, OCCUPIED BY VICTOR HUGO FROM 1833 TO 1848.

Dumas, Lamartine, George Sand, and Victor Hugo, mounted on one stand by Hugo himself. The rooms on the second floor contain specimens of the poet's efforts in drawing, painting, wood-carving, and even tapestry. "He paints as he writes, with the eyes and imagination of an intellectual giant." Théophile Gautier is quoted as saying, "Had Victor Hugo not been a poet, he would have been a painter of the first order." His painting materials comprised pen, pencil, red chalk, charcoal, and soot. The prevailing note of the poet's redecoration of the house is described as Oriental and medieval. A grotesque example of woodcarving by Hugo is pictured. The singular fact is recorded that Hugo disliked music; and would never allow a piano to be brought into the house. At one of his receptions, however, a number of young girls sang some choruses, and one of these singers was afterward Empress of the French.

WOMEN AS MATHEMATICIANS.

THE leading article in the *Revue Scientifique* of September 26 is interesting and eminently readable. M. Gino Loria treats of female mathematicians. It is not simply a series of biographies, but is an attempt, more or less serious, to answer the question as to whether women as mathematicians are really great and capable of being leaders.

"Hypatia offers one of the most brilliant, and perhaps the most ancient, of the human documents to solve the question, to know if in the realm of science the woman can perchance attain the high summits; if in a woman's body lodges one of those great souls destined to speak to humanity through the centuries; if, therefore, it is wise to encourage or, on the other hand, to restrain the tendency,—a tendency more and more accentuated among the beautiful half of the human race, to enroll themselves as soldiers in the search for truth, with the secret hope of obtaining the marshal's baton."

Hypatia he considers, perhaps, the most noteworthy of all the woman mathematicians. Emilie de Chatelet, the friend of Voltaire, he dismisses as hardly worthy of serious consideration, for she used science largely as a mask for her follies. Maria Gaetana Agnesi was of a higher type, but she showed a lack of real love for the subject, for in her later life she gave up her study and devoted herself to religion and charity.

Caroline Herschel worked side by side with her brother, carried out the most abstruse calculations with great skill, and showed herself abundantly capable of independent work. But after the death of her brother she abruptly aban-

doned her mathematical work, although she lived twenty-seven years longer.

Like Caroline Herschel, Thérèse and Madeleine Manfredi assisted their brother in his work, while the wives of Lalande, Flammarion, Huggins, Piazzi Smith, and Villarceau assisted their husbands. Maria Mitchell and Jane Taylor are mentioned among the distinguished women.

Sophie Germain, who as a young girl was inspired by the story of the devotion of Archimedes to study, became one of the most distinguished of the women mathematicians. M. Loria says that while mathematicians may hesitate to receive her into the inner circle, philosophers do not hesitate to class her with the precursors of Comte.

Of all the women mathematicians of modern times, perhaps, Sophie Kovalevski takes the highest rank. The daughter of a professor, married in order to secure freedom for study, she was matriculated in Heidelberg, and afterward removed to Berlin. In the latter city she became the favorite pupil of Weierstrass. She received a doctorate at Göttingen, and later became a professor in the University of Stockholm.

M. Loria points out that in almost all the cases cited the women did not pursue the study as an end in itself, and in most cases were more or less dependent upon men. Even Hypatia was guided by her father, and perhaps took up the study as much through filial devotion as for any other reason. Emilie Chatelet was under the influence of Voltaire, Clairant, and Maupertius.

Maria Gaetana Agnesi was assisted by Rampinelli and Ricaati. Sophie Germain was aided by Gauss, Legendre, and Poisson, while Caroline Herschel's work was to assist her brother. It is even a question whether the success of Sophie Kovalevski was not largely due to association with Weierstrass. She, too, hardly pursued mathematics as an end, for she was dissatisfied and *sans joie et sans enthousiasme*.

In conclusion he says: "I have followed the development of the flower which seemed to indicate in some women latent faculties of surpassing power, but the examination of the harvested fruits does not bring me to the certainty that these women can have access to all paths; on the contrary, there has sprung up in my heart the conviction that they ought to consider mathematics with the devotion and admiration of a devotee who approaches an inaccessible height. Although, in a general way, I am disposed by inclination and by conviction to open the doors of the sanctuary of the exact sciences to whoever wishes to leap upon the threshold, I find myself with regret obliged to make reservations in regard to those whom Nature seems

to have called to other destinies. Perchance some archæologist of the future, comparing my reservations with the progress in mathematics by women of the coming centuries, will find good arguments for accusing me of having been a man of little faith and a false prophet. My bones, bleaching in the sepulcher, will quiver with joy at this new triumph of the 'eternal woman.'"

ENGLAND'S NATIONAL SCENIC TRUST.

THE work of the organization formed in England to save the beauties of the country from the hands of the vandals is described in *Pearson's Magazine* for October by Mr. Nigel Bond. "The National Trust for Places of Historic Interest or Natural Beauty" was organized in 1895, in order that ancient buildings or monuments, which speak of past history, and spots of great natural beauty should be preserved to the nation.

The late Duke of Westminster was its active president on its foundation, and on the council many eminent Englishmen are proud to serve.

"The members of the trust are forbidden to take dividends from its receipts, and all profits are spent in furthering its objects; moreover, the constitution of the council, in which the chief learned societies and such bodies as the universities and the trustees of the National Gallery are directly represented, is a guarantee that the property acquired will be treated in the best way.

"As by its ownership of old buildings the trust endeavors to rescue from decay and destruction examples of man's handiwork, so by its 'open space' interests it attempts to preserve the natural features of beautiful England."

Beautiful scenery is preserved, and old houses are repaired and saved from demolition. Monuments are erected to great men, such as Nelson and Hardy. No part of the kingdom has not received benefit from the National Trust. In most foreign countries the state preserves historic monuments and relics, and preserves natural scenery, but in England this work has fallen into the hands of the National Trust.

"The largest and most enchanting of the properties of the trust is Brandlehow. It consists of one hundred and eight acres, and is about a mile and a half in length, bordering on Derwentwater, 'the Queen of the Lakes,' and stretching from the water's edge up the fell side of Catbels.

"Over £7,000 was raised two years ago for its purchase and maintenance. Donations, made by rich and poor alike, varied in amount from £500 to one shilling, and the list of 1,300 sub-

scribers was in a real sense representative of the nation as a whole.

"Those who are acquainted with the unsurpassed loveliness of the lake country will rejoice that this acquisition has been made."

NEW MEXICO'S GYPSUM DESERT.

IT is safe to say that comparatively few travelers have ever visited the great desert of white gypsum lying twenty miles from the railroad station of Alamogordo, New Mexico. Writing in *Out West* for October, Mr. E. Dana Johnson describes these "White Sands" as one of the strangest and most beautiful of all the natural wonders of the Southwest.

From a distance the gypsum appears as a "huge splotch of glistening snow upon the vast expanse of gray-brown desert." A close view makes this resemblance to snow all the more startling. For quite a distance, as one looks from a high point out over the leagues of gypsum, it is a spotless, snowy waste. Farther away, stretches of scanty, whitened vegetation, desolate alkali flats, and dried-up lakes alternate with wide banks of solid white gypsum. It is as if the plain had been covered with very many feet of snow, after which a high wind had swept over it, laying the ground bare here and there and piling up huge drifts yonder. The great billows of white, stretching away to the mountains in the sunshine, the silence and the quiv-

ering haze, make a sight never to be forgotten. Vast, dazzling, and mysterious, the Great Desert lies, set in the midst of the greater solitude of the dreamy plains, like a huge glittering jewel. The long serrated outline of the San Andreas range rises darkly against the sky to the west, while the sharp, jagged summits of the Organs stand out boldly athwart the southern sky. To the northeast gleams the lofty, hoary summit of Sierra Blanca, while nearer, to the east, the Sacramentos quiver in the purple distance.

"For a depth of a few inches the gypsum dust is perfectly dry, and climbing one of the little hills is like ascending a mound of fine white sugar, into which the feet sink over the shoe-tops. As a matter of fact, this curious white powder, when dry, is nothing in the world but pure plaster of Paris. Underneath, it is moist and cohesive, and will pack into a ball in the hands like snow. The dryness of the surface is caused, of course, by its exposure to the air; but the sand, if sand it may properly be called, is so heavy that the wind blows it about very little, and the dunes change in contour only slightly.

"The gypsum desert is nearly thirty miles long and averages ten miles wide. There are seventy thousand acres of white sand-hills besides the innumerable alkali marshes and lake-beds within the borders of the White Sands, as the deposit is called by the people of New Mexico."



THE WHITE GYPSUM DESERT OF NEW MEXICO.

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

EDMUND CLARENCE STEDMAN'S article, in the November *Century* on "Life on the Floor" is an exceedingly human picture of the New York Stock Exchange, by a man who adds to the Wall Street knowledge and experience years of the grace of good writing. The different kinds of brokers, their organization, their activities, their character, and their surroundings, the ways they do business in time of success and failure, their humor and their tragedies make up a vital comment on modern finance.

"The floor operators," says Mr. Stedman, "are Fortune's knights-errant, not her slaves, and the floor is their tilting-ground. For endurance, dash, quickness of judgment and action, they have not their peers. It is easy for the cadet of a rich banking house to execute orders, but force him to become a free-lance, and he might starve. The born-and-bred room-trader may be reduced to his last hundred, and yet there is always hope; he will bide his time, and, with caution and the amazing chances of the market, is almost sure to come up again. His 'seat' and his brain are the best kind of reserve capital, and at the worst there is always a luckier comrade to start him with a fresh stake.

"The different classes of brokers are alike in one respect: they must think and act more quickly than other men; deliberation is useless to them. This, with the habit of taking a man at his word, makes them resent palaver, and sometimes places them at a disadvantage in business dealings with outsiders and when off their own ground."

The first installment of some unpublished letters written by Thackeray to the family of the late Mr. George Baxter, of New York, during the author's visit to America, appear also in this number. They are accompanied by amusing sketches and reproductions of the script. Mr. A. Addington Bruce tells the story of a dramatic adventure which the workers, "the sand hogs," underwent in driving the Hudson River Tunnel, and explains many of the engineering problems the solution of which makes such a tunnel possible.

THE PRESENT EPIDEMIC OF CRIME.

Dr. J. M. Buckley furnishes some startling statistics about the character of present-day criminals.

"About three years ago," he says, "I delivered an address to the prisoners in the penal institution at Sing Sing. In the audience of 800 were 2 bankers, 30 book-keepers, 47 clerks, 4 physicians, 5 lawyers, 1 United States consul, and 21 salesmen. Besides, there were policemen, chemists, dentists, 9 merchants, 2 journalists, an architect, and 2 clergymen. The balance of the 1,250 in the prison, 450 of whom were in attendance at the Catholic chapel, included all trades and occupations. Prominent representatives of almost every denomination were there, and several members of families of high ancestral distinction in the country. In addition to these were many skilled workmen. After a similar address in the Tombs Prison in New York, I visited the prisoners from cell to cell. Among them were fourteen charged with murder. Of these, ten would compare favorably in appearance and manner with the

male attendants at any religious service. It is not so surprising that more than a third of the inmates of the Elmira Reformatory are well educated, and many of them refined and ingratiating in conversation and deportment. The alarming fact is that a large proportion of these are among the most incorrigible."

Among other causes for disrespect of law, Dr. Buckley takes labor unions to task, and says that the recent coal strikes still further weakened regard for order. Speaking of President Roosevelt's intervention, and considering it detrimental in its results, he quotes Washington's fundamental maxim: "Influence is not government."

HARPER'S MONTHLY.

DR. SIMON NEWCOMB foresees, in the November *Harper's*, some of the "Problems of the Universe" which the twentieth century has to solve. The minute corpuscles which exist around the millions of atoms which, for example, make up a drop of water; the slight change of the magnetic needle; the mystery "of the so-called new stars which blaze forth from time to time," the causes of these outbursts; the possible solution of earth problems from these and other phenomena; the things that M. Curie's radium suggests,—are some of things concerning which Dr. Newcomb writes.

DIGGING UP THE HISTORY OF EGYPT.

The historical and archaeological value of the Ten Temples of Abydos is described by Dr. W. M. Flinders Petrie. By recent discoveries "history" is laid out before us in state," to use Dr. Petrie's words, "dating from the beginning of the Kingdom of Egypt, 4700 B.C., and ending with almost the last of its native kings, 370 B.C. Perhaps the most notable discovery recorded is the little ivory image of Cheops (Khufu). Dr. Petrie also explains how the exhaustive investigations have been carried on.

Prof. Brander Matthews quotes striking epigrams from American poets, many from little-known writers, and many more from Lowell, Longfellow, Holmes, and T. B. Aldrich.

CHAMPLAIN, THE PIONEER.

An interesting study of Champlain, by Henry Loomis Nelson, the first of a series of studies of early American pioneers, sums up his characters succinctly: "Notwithstanding his failure, Champlain is one of the noblest characters of early American history. He was one of the great navigators of a time when a voyage across the Atlantic was taken at the risk of life. He was a persevering and patient worker, a keen judge of men, and a careful and accurate observer. He was an excellent man of business. He was enthusiastic and inspiring, and had wonderful self-control. He was devout and religious, but long experience bred in him a philosophical indifference to theological disputes. He had no vanity, and was unselfish and self-sacrificing. He was humane. He was possessed of the mysticism and superstition of his time; not so deeply, however, that he could not meet with conquering ridicule the

deeper mysticism and the more childish superstitions of his savage friends. He was not only a good and courageous navigator, but he was a brave and skillful soldier. Above all, he not only inspired men with his enthusiasm, but invited their confidence, from the king, nobles, and merchants of France to the savages of the woods. In some degree, even as it was then given to Frenchmen to understand the art of politics, he was a statesman; he could settle disputes justly and satisfactorily, and he could administer the affairs of the community under his charge with the requisite skill. Moreover, he had a plan for the adoption of the colony by the king."

Quotation is made from Mr. Baker's article on "The Scientist and the Food Problem" in "Leading Articles of the Month." Miss Mary Johnston's new novel, "Sir Mortimer," begins in this number.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

ERNEST C. PEIXOTTO, in the November *Scribner's*, takes the reader on a rambling journey through "Bret Harte's Country," and accompanies the text with characteristic drawings and sketches. Andrew J. Stone, whose explorations of Arctic America have been notable, describes the methods of overcoming hardships in camping in the far North, and tells of a number of personal adventures. One camping experience at Cape Brown, Mr. Stone describes as follows:

"I awoke the following morning almost suffocated. The tent had blown down on top of us and the snow was drifting hard upon top of that, and a storm was raging with a fury beyond description. Arousing my companions, we managed, with difficulty, to get out of our bags and from beneath the heavy mass of snow and canvas. The wind struck us with a force that made it difficult for us to stand, the atmosphere was so full of flying snow that we could scarcely see, and the roar of the storm was so great that we could not hear each other speak.

"The only sign I could find of my sled-dogs would be when I would stumble over a mound of snow and discover there was a dog inside of it. At such a time a practical knowledge of how to do things saves many a life. The snow of these regions is always hard, packed by the winds, and we set to work with axes cutting and carrying huge blocks of it and building walls with them around our camp. For three hours we worked with all our might, building heavy walls on three sides until they were almost as high as our heads. Then we cleaned the snow off of the top of the tent and once more erected that and made it fast."

THE SENATE.

Senator Henry Cabot Lodge's essay on the powers and privileges of "The Senate" gather together in compact shape a large mass of well-known material and presents it concisely and clearly. "The Senate," says Senator Lodge, in summing up, "is to-day the most powerful single chamber in any legislative body in the world, but this power, which is shown daily by the wide attention to all that is said and done in the Senate of the United States, is not the product of selfish and cunning usurpations on the part of an ambitious body. It is due to the original constitution of the Senate, to the fact that the Senate represents States, to the powers conferred upon it at the outset by the makers of the Constitution, to its permanency of

organization, and to the combination of legislative, executive, and judicial functions, which set it apart from all other legislative bodies. Without the assent of the Senate no bill can become law, no office can be filled, no treaty ratified."

Royal Cortessay writes an appreciation of John S. Sargent, and Prof. Brander Matthews estimates "The Literary Merit of Our Latter Day Drama."

MCCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

MR. CLEVELAND MOFFETT's article on the "Wonders of Radium," and Mr. Roy Stannard Baker's estimate of "The Labor Boss—the Trusts' New Tool," in the November *McClure's*, are quoted among the "Leading Articles of the Month."

NEW YORK UNDER TAMMANY AGAIN?

Mr. Lincoln Steffens' study of American municipal government reaches New York this month, at an opportune time. Mr. Steffens characterizes Mr. Low as honest, intelligent, and conscientious, but unamiable, unlovable, cold, impersonal, and unpopular, a "bourgeois reformer." He considers that New York's idea of government as non-partisan business is on trial, and he fears the result. Mr. Steffens then gives a clear-cut description of Tammany government or mis-government.

"Tammany's democratic corruption," he says, "rests upon the corruption of the people, the plain people, and there lies its great significance; its grafting system is one in which more individuals share than any I have studied. The people themselves get very little; they come cheap, but they are interested. Divided into districts, the organization subdivides them into precincts or neighborhoods, and their sovereign power, in the form of votes, is bought up by kindness and petty privileges. They are forced to a surrender when necessary by intimidation, but the leader and his captains have their hold because they take care of their own. They speak pleasant words, smile friendly smiles, notice the baby, give picnics up the river or the sound, or a slap on the back; find jobs, most of them at the city's expense, but they have also news-stands, peddling privileges, railroad and other business places to dispense; they permit violations of the law, and if a man has broken the law without permission, see him through the court. Though a blow in the face is as readily given as a shake of the hand, Tammany kindness is real kindness, and will go far, remember long, and take infinite trouble for a friend."

Speaking further of the amount of organized graft Tammany can control in New York, he makes this striking statement: "If Tammany could be incorporated, and all its earnings, both legitimate and illegitimate, gathered up and paid over in dividends, the stockholders would get more than the New York Central bond and stockholders, more than the Standard Oil stockholders, and the controlling clique would wield a power equal to that of the United States Steel Company. Tammany, when in control of New York, takes out of the city unbelievable millions of dollars a year."

But Tammany's methods are provincial compared with those of the Philadelphia ring. The dangerous time ahead for New York is when Tammany ostensibly reforms.

In a long editorial announcement of the second part of Miss Tarbell's notable "History of the Standard Oil Company" is summed up the great reason for Mr.

Rockefeller's early success, the combination of railroads, and the secret grant by which he obtained not only rates "far lower than others could get, but which gave him *drawbacks on the shipments of the people.*" This is characterized as "a piece of brigandage as outrageous as was ever organized by Cartouche himself." The fiction in *McClure's*, as usual, is typically American and of the commercial in character.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

MR. P. T. McGRATH contributes in the leading article in the November *Cosmopolitan* a series of stories of dramatic "Adventures on Ice Floes Off Newfoundland." Mr. Fritz Morris characterizes "The Turk as a Soldier," describing the training of the Sultan's troops, the work of the military academies, the military duty of citizens, the organization of the war and ordnance departments, etc. "In case of war," he says, "the Sultan could put into the field with the active army, or nizam, 820 battalions of infantry, 208 squadrons of cavalry, 248 batteries of artillery, 48 companies of engineers, 4 full companies of the telegraph service, and 21 companies of the train. In addition to this, he could mobilize the redif, or army of the reserve, consisting of 374 battalions of infantry, with a further reserve of 666 battalions of infantry, 48 squadrons of cavalry, and 266 squadrons of irregular mounted troops. Taken as a whole, the Turkish army, on a war footing, would consist of 19 or 20 army corps of from 40,000 to 50,000 men each, with a total of from 800,000 to 1,000,000 men under arms."

The "captains of industry" whose careers and characters are sketched this month are Sir William van Horne and Matthew C. D. Borden.

THE PROGRESS OF JAPAN.

Taking the World's Fair at Osaka as an instance, Count Hirokichi Mutsu sums up "The Wonderful Progress of Japan," her remarkable receptivity of foreign ideas, and her quick inventiveness to improve upon them. He quotes from Mr. S. S. Lyon, the United States consul at Kobe, concerning the Machinery Building at Osaka. "When one considers that but some thirty years ago not only was there no such institution as a factory in Japan, but that iron foundries and mechanics' workshops as now understood were unknown, while engineering was an alien art, the display beneath the roof of the Machinery Building is little short of marvelous."

"Motors and engines of all descriptions," adds Count Mutsu, "silk-weaving and dyeing machines, tea-refining and rice-cleaning machines, cigarette-making and soap-making appliances, are among the exhibits, many of them being in working order. The fact that the exhibits in this section have increased by several thousands since the Exposition of 1895 shows what an advance has been made in this line of industry during the intervening eight years."

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

THE "Land of Feuds" is the subject of an article in November *Munsey's* by Hartley Davis and Clifford Smith, in which is told the terrible story of the seven great Kentucky feuds and the paradoxical characters of the men who have carried them on. These seven feuds have resulted in some two hundred and fifty

murders, and only two men have suffered the death penalty in retribution. The golfing season of 1908 is reviewed by J. F. Marsten, with particular reference to Champion Travis, and to the question of the game's continued popularity. Mr. Fritz Morris, writing of the "Foremost Jews of To-day," shows by a study of personalities how dominant many Jews have become in many lands and in many kinds of work.

EVERYBODY'S MAGAZINE.

A SELECTION from Mr. Friedman's article on John Alexander Dowie in November *Everybody's* appears among the "Leading Articles of the Month." Mr. Alfred Hodder, who is Mr. Jerome's private secretary, in a study of the reform administration in New York, shows that the most important acts of municipal government are usually unseen and unheard of, and gives instances of particularly efficient things that have been done quietly by those at present in office. He cites each department to prove one of his opening statements that "the really great and praiseworthy good that the present administration has done is of an inconspicuous kind, as the really great and blameworthy harm that the previous administration did was of an inconspicuous kind."

SUCCESS WITHOUT WEALTH.

Francis Bellamy, starting from the modern creed, "Brains may be more important than money, but nowadays the best way to convince the world that you have brains is to make money," proceeds to outline the careers of "Successful Men Who Are Not Rich." "If people in general have apparently scuttled over to the new bigoty, that the only success worth winning is the getting of money, there are still plenty of men, of vigorous mind, who have a saner view of life and happiness." Eugene Wood's amusing essay on "The Good Bacteria" contains interesting facts about microbes new and old. There are some striking pictures of Old World handicrafts, and an unusual amount of bright fiction.

THE WORLD'S WORK.

MR. HENRY THOMPSON, in the *World's Work* for November, furnishes an interesting sketch of the personality of the Sultan of Turkey. Abdul Hamid II. is, according to Mr. Thompson, a modern Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde, extraordinarily generous and courteous, a splendid executive who has built up education, the army, and the general *esprit de corps* of the population remarkably, and who is respected by his followers; and, also, a religious fanatic, a murderer of both his own subjects and those of other nations, and a liar beyond belief.

THE GROWTH OF LABOR UNIONS.

The rapid rise of labor unionism in America is traced by W. Z. Ripley, professor of economics at Harvard. While English unions have increased, in nine years, from 1,500,000 to 1,900,000, those of the United States have grown from 800,000 to 2,000,000. The causes for this growth have been, in the main, prosperity, the trust or combination idea, the coal strike, and the labor movement's natural growth. The future of unions will depend, Professor Ripley thinks, on the continued prosperity of the country and on the administration of the unions.

RUSSIA CONSTANTLY EXPANDING.

The acquisitions by Russia in half a century of a larger area than the United States and her consistent policy of extension make the various methods used, as described by C. W. Barnaby, interesting.

"Privileges are obtained for her merchants and caravans to pass into or through the coveted country for trade; to open stores and banks; to trade at ports and navigate rivers; to establish post routes, with their various stations for exchange of drivers and horses; and to install consuls at various places. Concessions are secured for cutting timber, or operating mines on certain tracts of land, and rights are procured whereby Russia and her subjects may buy land and build consulates, stores, and factories, and also dwellings for those who are connected with the various enterprises. Rights are also obtained, or taken, to protect consulates and other Russian property, and to protect the Christian subjects of an unchristian government. Army reconnoitering expeditions are sent into the country with goods, disguised as merchants, or accompanied by a detachment of Cossacks, and claiming to be purely scientific expeditions. Out of pure generosity and solicitude for the welfare of her neighbors, she engages to watch over the conduct of Russian merchants located within their gates, and 'permits' the prospective victims to employ Russian officers to reorganize their armies, and lends them money."

Prof. T. N. Carver, of Harvard, took a 1,000-mile horseback ride through the corn-belt last summer, and tells of the modern methods of farming, the importance of the moderate-sized farm, and the various uses to which the crop is put. Mr. C. H. Caffin gives a critical estimate of the portrait painting of John S. Sargent, and I. F. Marcossou characterizes the "Country Merchant Come to Town." Mr. Cunniff's article on "The Post Office and the People" is quoted elsewhere in this number.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

THE English tariff crisis and the dominant personality and position of Mr. Chamberlain give Mr. Brooks Adams, writing in the October *Atlantic*, an opportunity to trace, in a scholarly article which he calls "Economic Conditions for Future Defense," some economic development in Europe and America. The article is largely historical, and its text, as applicable to the United States, may be stated in Mr. Adams' words:

"As the economic system, of which the Union forms the heart, stretches across oceans toward other continents, in obedience to its law of being, it must encounter rivals also seeking treasure. At the points where roads converge there will almost certainly be conflicts.

"In these crucial moments races either develop genius or sink into imbecility, and the time when the people of the United States may be again tried is uncertain. Now they can arm and be ready, or they can elect the placid life which leaves the future to chance. Inertia blasted Rome under Augustus, and an easy self-complacency fostered those delusions as to the power of England which bewildered Townsend and Lord North."

Mr. Burton Hendrick's article upon tenement reform in New York City shows clearly what an honest, progressive administration has been able to do with tenements where, as Mr. Hendricks says, 2,500,000 out of 3,500,000 people live in these cramped dwellings. Some of the details are interesting. "Tenement houses now

built have a width of thirty-seven or forty feet. There are to be no more houses with dark rooms, with insufficient fire protection, with inadequate plumbing, and without the ordinary sanitary conveniences. There are no more narrow airshafts." In addition to these, and many other technical requirements for new buildings, "the department is now letting light and air into some three hundred thousand vitiated chambers,—in some instances a considerable part of the houses being reconstructed for this purpose."

The third installment of Sir Leslie Stephens' journalistic reminiscences gives intimate sketches of Carlyle, of the founding of the *Cornhill Magazine*, of *Fraser's*, and Froude as an editor; of Mr. George Smith, the publisher; of G. S. Venables, and of many journalists and journals of the period. Charles M. Skinner tells some interesting stories of Walt Whitman's career as an editor of Brooklyn papers, and gives a vivid picture of the poet's manner and attitude toward his journalistic work.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

THE articles on congress and the currency question in the October number of the *North American Review* have been noticed at some length in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month."

Dr. James G. Whiteley's article on "The International Position of the Pope" has also been reviewed in that department. Mr. Stephen Bonsal, writing on "The Gordian Knot in Macedonia," says: "It is generally recognized that the Turkish army as a fighting machine has become a very important factor in any settlement of the Eastern question. It should not be forgotten for a moment that something like three-fourths of the annual expenditure of the Turkish Government has of recent years been for the purpose of arms and munitions of war. The world has stood amazed at the untutored valor of the soldiers and the genius of the leaders who defended the Shipka passes and the trenches about Plevna. For twenty years, Von der Goltz Pasha and other distinguished German officers have been at work in developing the Turk's remarkable natural aptitude for things military,—with what success Bulgaria, who has been pushed into the ring by the agitators and politicians, aided by what is apparently the inevitable course of events, may shortly furnish an object-lesson."

FLOOD PREVENTION AND IRRIGATION.

Senator Burton, of Kansas, writes instructively on the question of canals and reservoirs and protection from floods, furnishing several practical illustrations of this thesis. He shows, for example, that the canals and reservoirs in the Arkansas Valley, from Pueblo down into Kansas, were sufficient to prevent any destructive flood during the unusual and heavy rains last spring, while the Kaw Valley, without such a system of canals and reservoirs, suffered the most destructive inundations in its history. Senator Burton asserts that if it were necessary to build five or ten times as many canals along the Kaw as are now constructed along the Arkansas, and with the canals a complete system of reservoirs, thousands in number, the total cost would be less than the loss of property by the last spring flood, to say nothing of the loss of life.

OUR MERCHANT MARINE.

The Hon. E. T. Chamberlain, United States Commissioner of Navigation, writing on the British Govern-

ment's new contract with the Cunard Steamship Company, shows that the ocean steamship business in every detail, from planning the ship to sailing it, is done more cheaply by the British than by the Americans. "It means almost nothing, for example, to require three-fourths of the crew of a great Cunarder to be British subjects. To require three-fourths of the crew of such an American steamer to be Americans means an additional expense of over thirty thousand dollars a year, and our naval reserves are in embryo."

THE NEW IRISH LAND ACT.

Mr. Charles Johnston writes with enthusiasm on the prospects of the Irish people under recent legislation. He shows that the land purchase scheme, while annihilating the old landlord class as such, will recreate the landlords as local capitalists, and they will have many inducements to reinvest their ransoms on the spot, where they can watch over and nurse their investments. Mr. Johnston predicts that in agriculture this capitalist will introduce or even invent new methods more economic and more modern.

MUSEUMS AS EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

Dr. Alfred G. Mayer, of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, writes suggestively on "The Educational Efficiency of Our Museums." After enumerating some of the faults of the displays in our museums due for the most part to lack of judgment in the selection and poor taste in the arrangement of specimens, Dr. Mayer calls attention to a defect that is even more culpable because more readily corrected,—namely, the inefficiency of the labeling in most of our museums. Labels, he suggests, should be accompanied by colored illustrations and by maps showing the geographical distribution of specimens. Most of the descriptive labels of our museums, he says, are either too long to be readable, or are couched in terms too technical for public comprehension.

THE JAPANESE NAVY.

In an article on the growing naval power of Japan, Mr. Archibald S. Hurd predicts that Japan will soon be able to throw off the assistance of the Western world in the construction and equipment of her navy. "Already her arsenals have progressed so far that they are capable of building protected cruisers and torpedo craft destroyers as well as torpedo boats. Soon the gun factory and armor-plate factory now being established will be ready to begin work, and then the day will have dawned when Japan will bid farewell to all those Europeans, especially Englishmen, who have helped her acquire all the extensive accessories of a great power, with a voice in the councils of the world."

THE AMERICAN EMIGRATION INTO CANADA.

Mr. Frank B. Tracey, writing on "The Republic and the Dominion," says that the settlement of the Canadian Northwest is still in the experimental stage, and that the present is the second land boom which that section has had, the first having collapsed most dismally, and only twenty years ago. "The innumerable complex trials and the crushing toils of life in a new cold prairie country are beyond any one's imagination. They confront the immigrant in utterly unexpected forms, and take the courage out of men whom battle, the sea, fire, and flood would not daunt. It has taken northern North Dakota twenty years to become settled, and to be able to assert the confidence of certain and

permanent prosperity. That State has only three months of warm weather, and yet some of the loudly-vaunted Canadian land lies eight hundred miles north of the international boundary. To assert that this far northern land is certainly fruitful and a fit place for human beings is to place a heavy burden of proof on the boomers."

THE COLLEGE MAN IN BUSINESS.

President Charles F. Thwing sustains the proposition that the college man in business is worth more than the same man would be without a college education. In support of this thesis, President Thwing marshals a series of extracts from the letters of eminent men in the industrial and financial world. President Thwing's conclusion from his correspondence with these expert authorities is that the merchant, the manufacturer, and the administrator may all receive from college a training of the will more adequate for large undertakings. "The college helps to create a man of sober-mindedness, or personal resolution, who is intent on things of the mind. It aids, let us believe, in nourishing the noblest type of the gentleman. But while causing these richest personal results, it is also training great executives for the great affairs of the United States and of the world."

OTHER ARTICLES.

In a clever and whimsical essay, which must be read in its entirety to be appreciated, Mrs. Edith Wharton discants on "The Vice of Reading;" ex-Justice Somerville, of Alabama, writes on "Some Coöperating Causes of Negro Lynching;" Fannie H. Gaffney contributes a rejoinder to the article by Mrs. Woolsey on "Woman's Inferior Position in a Republic," and Mr. Wilbur Larmore discusses "American Courts-Martial" and the plans proposed for their redemption.

THE ARENA.

IN the October *Arena*, Chief Justice Walter Clark, of North Carolina, writes an able arraignment of the trust power in politics, advocating especially the popular election of judges and United States Senators, the public ownership and control of public utilities, and the abolition of special privileges. His article is headed "Old Foes with New Faces."

DETROIT'S MUNICIPAL-LIGHTING SYSTEM.

The Hon. Frederick F. Ingram, commissioner of public lighting for the city of Detroit, contributes an interesting summary of that city's experience in lighting its own streets. From this appears that the public plant has now lighted the city for eight years, that the cost for the first year was less than the lowest contract price ever secured from a private company, and that since the first year the cost has steadily declined, taking into account depreciation, lost taxes, and interest at 4 per cent. on the investment. Mr. Ingram estimates that in ten years' operation the city will have gained more than the entire value of the plant (at least \$300,000) as a clean profit on what its lights would have cost on the lowest ten years' bid from a private company.

EDUCATION FOR HOME-MAKING.

Prof. Oscar Chrisman ventures the prediction that there will one day be organized a "college for the home," where young women will enter whose sole pur-

pose will be to prepare themselves for the profession of home-making and maternity.

"They will not be ashamed to say that they are preparing themselves for these duties, and that they expect to marry upon graduation, just as they now state what they will do. Such a college will attract the finest and best young women in the country, and the best young men will look to it for wives. If the young women graduates from such a college do not marry, it will not be because they will not be wanted, for women prepared for home-making will always be in demand. It will not be difficult for men to love such women."

OTHER ARTICLES.

The Rev. Dr. R. Heber Newton writes on "Emerson, the Man," Prof. Edwin Maxey on "Mob Rule," and ex-United States Senator William V. Allen, of Nebraska, on "Necessity for the People's Party." Mr. Wharton Barker advocates government currency as against bank currency. We have quoted elsewhere from Miss Knorr's paper on the housing problem.

THE INTERNATIONAL QUARTERLY.

THE current number of the *International Quarterly* (Burlington, Vt.) opens with an article by the English writer, John M. Robertson, on "Black and White in Africa," which goes far to confirm the opinion recently expressed in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS that the position of the native African in Africa is worse than his position in our own Southern States, so far as his relations with the white race are concerned.

Dr. John Graham Brooks writes on the old dispute between the socialist and the individualist on the relative importance of human character and that of environment, concluding that "for all objects that concern the actual worker in politics, in social settlements, in charity and reform administration, the socialistic contention may be accepted quite without fear that the stubborn and enduring facts which forever constitute the strength of individualism will be suppressed."

Prof. N. S. Shaler writes on "The Natural History of War," Mme. Th. Bentzon on "Marriage in France," Prof. Brander Matthews on "Greek and Roman Comedy," M. Constant Coquelin on "The 'Don Juan' of Molière," Prof. Kuno Francke on "Emerson and German Personality," M. René Puaux on "Finnish Literature," M. Joubin on "Some Masters of the Sea," Dr. Isaac A. Hoarwich on "Religious Sects in Russia," Edouard Bernstein on "Social Democracy in Germany," and Mr. Joseph B. Bishop on "Lynching."

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for October begins with an important article on the Education Act, by Sir George Kekewich, which we have noticed elsewhere. We have also quoted from the severe anonymous criticism of the Kaiser Wilhelm and from Dr. Dillon's "Fall of M. Witte."

CHRISTIAN SCIENCE.

Mr. Wake Cook writes "The Truth about Christian Science." He rejects Mrs. Eddy and her revelations, but urges every one to accept the great healing truths which are accidentally associated with her new religion. Mr. Cook's own experience is worth quoting:

"Having always escaped the dreaded influenza in

England, I was suddenly stricken down with it abroad and when alone, and at a time when a week's illness meant disaster for me. Rather short of money, and very short of the niceties of a foreign tongue, I was scared when I realized the desperate nature of the situation. But as cowards derive courage from desperation, so the difficulties of the case saved me. Realizing that whatever was to be done must be done by myself, aided by any spiritual assistance I could invoke, I took myself in hand. I resolutely stilled the tossing body; calmed the agony-distorted features into the semblance of a smile, and addressed the raging fever somewhat in this style: 'As I was a fool to expose myself as I did, I will give the fever a day or two to burn the poison out of my blood; but it must 'hurry up,' as I intend to be well, and shall give it no extension of time.' I indulged in a good many 'Begones!' and repetitions of 'I will be well.' This I accompanied by steady *deep breathing* (the best tonic in the world), and toward morning I dozed. I kept in bed until midday, alternately 'treating' myself and sleeping, and by that time I was so much better that I went down to lunch; and in the afternoon I resumed my work."

THE SITUATION AT THE CAPE.

There is a good article by Professor Freemantle on "The Political Situation at the Cape." Mr. Freemantle says:

"At present the Progressive party owes its force to pure terrorism. The candidates are bound down by pledges which degrade them from being representatives to being mere mouthpieces; the power of the purse is used as freely as the law permits; the press is systematically bought and blinded, and as far as possible a strict monopoly is exercised over the channels by which the exclusively English-speaking public, both of South Africa and of England, obtains its information and much of its opinion.

"There is a special obligation on Englishmen who think as they do to coöperate with the South African party, as it is admittedly desirable to organize parties on other than racial lines, and this end is not likely to be realized if Englishmen who agree with the South African party refuse to coöperate with it on the ground that the majority of Englishmen at the Cape at present support the Progressive party."

ITALY AND THE LATE POPE.

"An English Roman Catholic" compares Pius IX. and Leo XIII. He condemns the late Pope for his policy toward the Italian Government:

"Perhaps the greatest blot on Pope Leo's fame is his forbidding the Italian Catholics to rally to the Italian kingdom when he ordered the French Catholics to rally to the republic. He condemned the royalist and imperialist pretenders, but he remained a pretender himself in Rome. One can forgive Pius IX. for maintaining his rights to be King as well as Pope. But can Leo be forgiven for so plainly imposing upon others a duty that he so persistently refused to perform himself? For if the *de facto* rulers are lawful in France, they must also be lawful in Italy. As long as Pius lived it was possible to say that the Italian kingdom was not fully established. But could that be said in Leo's time?"

THE HUNGARIAN ARMY DISPUTE.

Dr. Dillon sums up the essence of the dispute between the Hungarians and the Kaiser Francis Joseph over the army as follows:

"The parliamentary party led by Kossuth's son asks that in every corps district the military courts shall try all cases, without exception, in the Magyar tongue; that the Hungarian officers now serving in Austria shall be transferred to Hungary; that in future subjects of the Hungarian crown shall not be required to serve in the other half of the monarchy; that in lieu of the Hapsburg double-eagle the Hungarian flag shall be unfurled by Hungarian troops,—namely, white banners with stripes of red, white, and green, and the effigy of Hungary's patroness, the Virgin Mary, on one side, and the monogram of the King on the other. Those are the most important points of the national programme drawn up by the party of independence, and now accepted by the bulk of parliamentary representatives in Budapest. The Emperor, whose loyalty to the constitution is proverbial, objects to these innovations, on the ground that they would destroy the unity of the army and reduce the powerful Hapsburg monarchy to the position of two second-class powers, and he refuses to concede the demands in virtue of the right vested in him by the constitution."

THE FRENCH PEASANT.

Madame Duclaux concludes her fascinating study of the French peasant. She recommends that the excessive subdivision of land, which is the curse of French rural life, should be avoided by allowing only the revenue of property, and not the property itself, to be divided between children. The republic wants decentralization, more importance being given to the country towns and rural districts. She concludes her paper as follows:

"The twenty lean years that ended the nineteenth century have witnessed the moral and mental regeneration of the French peasant. Jacques Bonhomme is no longer a mere *grippe-sou*, a mere skinflint, but a man of independent mind, with all the ambitions, aims, horizons, of a man."

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE *Nineteenth Century* for October opens with an article entitled "A Colonial View of Colonial Loyalty," noted elsewhere. Admiral Culme-Seymour writes on "The Organization of the Admiralty and War Office." He says that if the war office is to be reorganized on the model of the admiralty, it must be as the admiralty was previous to 1869. The sole responsibility of the secretary for war must be got rid of. A board where the experts are in a majority, and the civilian first lord head of the board, and its mouthpiece in the cabinet and in Parliament, is the right organization both for army and navy.

AMERICA'S COLOR QUESTION.

Mr. J. A. Hobson writes on "The Negro Question in the United States," which he attributes entirely to a survival of the old slave-owning instincts, and to the desire of the whites to be masters. He gives figures to show that the vast majority of cases of negro lynching have nothing to do with outrages on white women. The worst negrophobe sentiment, moreover, is felt not toward the ignorant and brutalized blacks, but against the educated and progressive negroes who desire to rise in the world. Mr. Hobson describes seven million negroes in the South as to all intents and purposes slaves.

TO HELP THE BRITISH ART GALLERIES.

Mr. R. C. Witt, in an article entitled "A Movement in Aid of Our National Art Collections," describes the work which the national art collections fund proposes to do. He complains that the National Gallery is too poor to buy many pictures, which are in consequence snapped up by the Berlin and other foreign galleries. In Paris, in Berlin, and elsewhere there are societies whose aim it is to help to enrich the national galleries by buying up pictures. The national art collections fund, the subscription to which will be one guinea, will "receive loans, gifts, and legacies, whether in money or works of art, buy and present others to the gallery, or subscribe toward their acquisition by the responsible authorities. It will focus in itself a vast amount of real interest and enthusiasm already existing for our great national collections, while the prestige of membership will further encourage and call out public spirit and national pride."

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

THE chief feature of the *Fortnightly* for October is the beginning of Mr. Frederic Harrison's Byzantine romance, "Theophano," which promises to be good style and good history, but not vital as a novel.

MODERN FRENCH LITERATURE.

A prominent place is given to M. Octave Uzanne's paper on "The Evolution of French Contemporary Literature," admirably translated by Mr. Teixeira de Mattos. M. Uzanne laments in France what is often lamented elsewhere—the good quality of second-rate and the absence of first-rate writers:

"The book—at least in France—is passing through an acute crisis. Literature, too, is dying. It has been too flourishing, too rich, too luxuriant, and too generally cultivated by an average of flattering talents instead of by a select aristocracy of the pen. The secondary talents of our time are undeniably far above the secondary talents of former days, and fame, in consequence of the prodigious production by which we are invaded, has become infinitely more difficult of attainment by writers of the first rank. Many, who would probably have been the equals of the great masters of thought in the last century, do not see the light of success at all."

Mr. Uzanne makes an interesting comment on the change which has taken place in the French character during the last twenty years:

"The Frenchman's quarrelsome, gallant, hectoring, romantic, and chauvinistic character has undergone immense changes, and, it may be, beneficial, during the past twenty years and more. The taste for scientific study, for serious experiment, for practical works, has gradually replaced the love of purely intellectual speculation. More has been asked of our writers, and human thought has had to seek its way toward spheres of social philosophy, to turn to physical analysis and exact evidence. Theories of evolution, of egotism, of experimentalism, have made a deep impression on younger brains."

WHAT IRELAND NEEDS.

There is a useful paper under this title by Mr. Sampson Morgan, who sees the economic regeneration of Ireland arising from fruit, vegetable, and flower culture:

"The Irish cultivator must adopt the latest and most

improved methods of production; he must become an exporter; he must devote himself, as the Continental and Channel Island growers do, to catering for the growing demand in the cities and towns of Britain, and if he will but do that, raising suitable crops, utilizing selected varieties of seeds, studying the wants of buyers . . . making packing an art, and remembering that quality is more important than quantity in the markets, he can depend upon making plenty of money at the business.

"I have seen around Cork land perfectly adapted for growing early forced fruit and flowers, as fine as any which enter Covent Garden Market. Here, as indeed in many other districts, tons of the most salable market-garden produce could be raised with great advantage for sending to the cities of Great Britain.

"Before this can be done effectually, several larger and specially arranged wholesale markets must be erected in Dublin, Belfast, Waterford, and Cork. Then from these centers special steamship services, similar to those run in connection with Boulogne and Havre, should be started for the purpose of carrying the produce to the chief cities of the United Kingdom."

A NAVAL UNDERSTANDING BETWEEN ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

Mr. Archibald Hurd contributes an article on "French Friendship and Naval Economy." He proposes that England should come to an understanding with France for a mutual reduction of the naval forces in the Mediterranean:

"For every man-of-war which France placed definitely out of commission, Great Britain might withdraw one from the Mediterranean and be the gainer, and, of course, if the possibility of war between France and England were minimized, the chance of the Russian ships finding an opportunity for mischief would be decreased."

Mr. Hurd thinks this project has all the more prospect of success because the French feel the burden of their fleet much more heavily than England feels hers. This is largely owing to the excessive cost of shipbuilding in France, and the great cost of their naval administration. There is as much as \$1,500,000 difference between the cost of a French and an English battleship. At Cherbourg the cost of administration is 49.3 per cent. of the total cost of the fleet, and altogether French naval administration costs relatively nearly three times the German figure.

SIR HARRY JOHNSTON.

Mr. Shan F. Bullock writes an interesting article on Sir Harry Johnston as a "Maker of Empire." He says:

"He has the empire at his finger-tips. Mention the colonies and he will quote you statistics by the column in support of his theory, and under the present system the colonies take all and give nothing, and should therefore be offered the alternative of contributing their share to the imperial exchequer or of 'cutting the painter.' Say the word empire, and he is at no pains to hide that, though still an imperialist in the best sense of that much-abused term, wide experience of empire has not altogether confirmed him in those Jingo sentiments which vexed his boyish soul long ago at Tunis. Mention the Boer War, and he will show you a letter written to *The Times* in August, 1898, forecasting accurately the trend of events in Africa during recent

years. Turn the talk upon any topic,—history, poetry, the latest play, picture or novel,—and he is ready with views and opinions. In natural science he is a specialist whose field is a continent. His work as an artist has been crowned by the Academy. In the world of letters he sits distinguished, as facile and piquant in drafting a dispatch on his Majesty's service as in dictating a volume on a section of empire. His capacity is great. His adaptability is greater. His confidence in himself is greatest of all. It may be that he thinks in protectorates. It is possible that, as Mr. Stead asserts, he resembles the great Corsican in more than feet and inches. It is more than likely that were the empire in peril tomorrow he would spring to the rescue, ready for any post and any emergency; as willing to do service as commander-in-chief or admiral of the fleet as to face destiny in the premiership of England."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Sir William Bennett writes a letter to protest against Mr. Wells' assertion that medical men are interested in nothing outside their profession. There is an article full of rather cheap sentiment, by Mr. E. H. Cooper, on "Children's Prayers and Prayer Manuals." Prince Bojidar Karageorgevitch, who was a friend of Marie Bashkirtseff, writes protesting against the blunders of some of her biographers and critics.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

ONE of the most interesting articles in the *National Review* for October is that in which Mr. F. B. Behr expounds the advantages of his mono-rail system. He says:

"One of the most important social problems it would solve is that of the housing of the working classes in the neighborhood of large towns. In fact, at present it appears the only way to solve this great question, which has puzzled the brains of all our leading legislators. We will take as an instance London as the most important center of the world. Supposing the existing railway companies built mono-rails along their main lines out of London, they could carry the working-class population in every direction radiating round a circle of from thirty to thirty-five miles radius in less than twenty minutes. This could be done with absolute safety and perfect punctuality.

"The zone of open country rendered available for the building of new houses and settlements would be so extensive that the prices asked by the owners of the land could not be raised unduly, because there would be such a large choice of land that if one man asked too much it would be easy to buy land from another, and, therefore, the very desire to secure a purchaser would maintain the prices at a reasonable level. Then the time employed for the journey would only be twenty minutes at the outside, and as the rails would only carry one class of traffic, and would be absolutely safe and completely guarded against derailment, the workmen would enjoy the full benefit of the country, with the very short, punctual, and safe journey to his work and back to his home; and, in fact, the ideal condition of things would be attained,—namely, living really in the country though doing your work in town.

Mr. Behr adds that the introduction of a mono-rail alongside an existing main line would be of great benefit to the existing railway companies.

RECOLLECTIONS OF J. S. MILL.

Sir Leslie Stephen continues his interesting recollections, which are well worth reading, but not easy to quote from. The following paragraph on John Stuart Mill gives a picture of the philosopher curiously in discord with most people's preconceptions:

"I saw a slight frail figure, trembling with nervous irritability. He poured out a series of perfectly-formed sentences with an extraordinary rapidity suggestive of learning by heart; and when he lost the thread of his discourse closed his eyes for two or three minutes, till, after regaining his composure, he could again take up his parable. Although his oratory was defective, he was clearly speaking with intense feeling, and was exceedingly sensitive to the reception by his audience. Some of his doctrines were specially irritating to the rows of stolid country gentlemen who began by listening curiously to so strange an animal as a philosopher, and discovered before long that the animal's hide could be pierced by scornful laughter. To Mill they represented crass stupidity, and he became unable either to conceal his contempt or keep his temper. Neither his philosophy nor his official experience had taught him to wear a mask of insensibility."

THE ISTHMIAN CANAL.

Mr. Low declares that it was the intrigues of the American railway companies which led the Colombian Senate to reject the Panama Canal treaty:

"To speak quite bluntly and with brutal frankness, the rejection of the canal treaty is due not so much to the disinclination of the Senate of Colombia to permit the building of a waterway under American control throughout its territory as it is to the ability displayed by the emissaries of certain American railway companies in making the members of the Colombian Senate understand how detrimental to their interests it would be if the treaty were ratified. Of course, the usual arguments were used. There is one argument the legislator of a certain class always understands, whether he lives in the America of the North or the America of the South, and that is the golden one of dollars, francs, or pounds sterling."

THE LABOR WING OF THE LIB.-LABS.

Mr. Richard Bell, of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, writes on "The Reign of Labor."

"The Liberal party, instead of showing fear at the formation of a strong 'Labor' party, should welcome it with pleasure, for it will embody all that is Liberal and more, and is certain to go faster. It ought to be the business of the Liberal party to remove every obstacle which prevents the accomplishment of the aspirations of this class of the community and encourage the entrance of all capable men to the House of Commons."

Mr. Bell declares that the Labor party is sound for free trade, and that none of Mr. Chamberlain's bribes will have any effect upon it.

THE EMPIRE REVIEW.

IN the *Empire Review* for October, Mr. James Reid, of New South Wales, makes a strong attack upon what he calls "The Anti-Imperial Policy of Australia," a policy which, he says, shows how little reliance is to be placed on Australian professions of loyalty to the imperial ideal. He condemns the policy of the Australian Government in trying to deprive British Indian

subjects of their right to work on mail steamers as "a gross act of oppression," and demands that the Postal Act in which the provision is included should be disallowed. The imperial government has a right to protect the people of any part of the empire against oppression by any other part.

CHINESE SERVANTS.

Mr. Douglas Knocker describes the Chinese servant, of whom he gives a by no means flattering account. He gives the following description of one method of effecting small thefts, "which commends itself and is common. There is first a gradual sinking into obscurity of a coveted article. A curio begins by standing on the mantelpiece; presently it slides behind a picture frame for some days; then, if its absence is not noted, it goes to a more distant part of the room, and is almost entirely hidden for a week or more. One day, some time later, the mistress has a 'turn out,' and quite by accident saves her curio by finding it hidden away at the bottom of a rarely-opened drawer."

PEARL-FISHING IN AUSTRALIA.

Mr. A. Macdonald writes a picturesque description of pearl-fishing off the Australian coast. He himself went down in a diving-suit, and was very nearly drowned owing to a leakage of the helmet.

"I found it no easy matter to regain the perpendicular, and my head bobbed like a football on the coral bottom for some time before I succeeded in my efforts; but the sight that met my gaze then was sufficient reward for all my sufferings. I stood in the midst of a magnificent marine forest, where graceful coral branches intertwined with less material tendrils growths. Delicate fernlike plants covered the honeycombed snowy rocks, and enormous Neptune's cups appeared here and there among the clinging vegetation. The fronds of the coral palms trembled as if in a gentle breeze, and the more robust growths swayed slowly to and fro. It was as if a luxurious tropical thicket had been submerged, and yet retained its pristine grace and beauty. My radius of sight was but a few yards, unfortunately; beyond that all was blurred and indistinct as a picture out of focus. I tried to walk, and at once realized that my limbs would hardly obey my will; the pressure of the water had cramped them so that my movements were like those of an automaton,—and this at a depth of less than a hundred feet. Shellfish of all descriptions were scattered around, and among them I observed a solitary pearl oyster, and I picked it up as if it were of the rarest value and placed it in the net."

THE INDEPENDENT REVIEW.

THE *Independent Review* is the latest recruit to the ranks of the English "half-crown" monthlies. It is edited by Mr. Edward Jenks, assisted by an editorial council of well-known Oxford and Cambridge men, and, in the words of the publisher, "will not be attached to any political or other organization, but will maintain a decisively progressive attitude on political and social questions." The *Independent*, as it will probably come to be called for the sake of brevity, is published by Mr. Fisher Unwin; it has a tasteful cover, and is printed in large type upon good paper. As to the contents, only one general criticism can be applied: the articles are well-written and decidedly literary in

tone, but somewhat academic and abstract. But that is not necessarily a defect.

The number opens with an anonymous plea for a programme, which is largely a retrospect, and deals rather with the principles of future Liberal legislation than with immediate questions. This paper is followed by an article on "Social Reform" from the pen of Canon Barnett. After this come two papers on the British fiscal question, and a paper by Mr. Birrell, M.P., on "Elementary Education," in which the writer emphasizes the fact that any educational settlement must be based upon compromise. Mr. Birrell's own views are indicated in the following passage:

"Why should we not provide a good, sound, secular education for the children of everybody who cares or is obliged to send his children to a public elementary school, and at the close of each day's secular work, for which alone the tax and ratepayer will be responsible, allow the children to receive in the schoolhouse the religious instruction their parents desire them to have? Who then can complain?"

There is an article on "Ecclesiasticism," which Mr. G. Lowes Dickinson, the writer, defines as laboring deliberately to fix the mind and character permanently in a certain mold, so far at least as fundamentals are concerned. Mr. Hector Macpherson writes on "The Evolution of Scotland." Professor Mommsen's "Appeal to the English," which is printed in both German and English, is a very brief warning of the dangers of enmity between the two nations. Dr. Mommsen insists upon the fact that the anti-English movement in Germany was due primarily to the South African War; but, in spite of this, he asserts that Germans feel themselves more nearly akin to the English than to any other nation.

The number concludes with the first installment of a satirical novel, "Mr. Burden," by Mr. H. Belloc, which begins delightfully.

THE SPIRIT OF THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

THE MACEDONIAN ATROCITIES.

IN the second September number of the *Revue de Paris*, M. Bérard gives us the full text of the striking memorandum which the Bulgarian Government addressed to the European powers last August. This document is certainly a terrible indictment of the Ottoman Government, and it is all the more terrible because the atrocities recorded in it are set out in the most business-like manner, arranged under geographical headings, and in a large number of cases the names of the wretched victims are recorded.

DISESTABLISHMENT IN FRANCE.

M. Charles Dupuy, the ex-premier, discusses in the first September number of the *Nouvelle Revue* the question whether the churches should be disestablished in France. It is not a question only of the Catholic Church, but of the various Protestant and Jewish denominations which also receive subventions from the state. His own conclusion is that the Concordat should be maintained in the interest of the republic. If, however, the Concordat should be abolished, he prefers the plan of M. Réveillaud, by which the disestablished ministers of the various religions would receive pensions graduated according to their ages. On the general

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

IN the *Westminster Review* for October there is a very interesting article by Mr. T. Filipowicz on "The Political Situation in Poland." The Russian Government, he says, has made strenuous efforts to attach to itself the Polish peasantry, but it is beginning to lose this mainstay, as the revolutionary propaganda is spreading among the peasants. The industrial movement has turned many of the peasants into factory hands and mechanics, and among these various forms of socialism flourish. Mr. Filipowicz quotes official documents which show that the late Prince Imeretinsky warned the government that it was losing its hold on the peasantry, and he comments on this warning that nothing but a special administration suited to Polish needs will secure any measure of support from any class of Poles.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW.

THE first paper in the *Monthly Review* for October is an unsigned editorial on Lord Salisbury, after which follow papers by Sir Edward Grey, Lord Hugh Cecil, and Dr. Goldwin Smith, all dealing with the British tariff question. Sir H. Drummond Wolff writes on "British Policy in the Balkans." There is an amusing fable, "The Two Sheepdogs," Goff and Brum, satirizing Mr. Balfour's clever little shuffle with Mr. Chamberlain. The illustrated article is by Mr. Basil de Selincourt, and is a study of the secrets from the life of Christ in the Lower Church at Assisi.

Prof. Rodolpho Lanciani contributes an interesting article on "Bankers and Brokers in Ancient Rome," the site of whose operations has recently been discovered. Professor Lanciani mentions the remarkable fact that in Trajan's time money was invested on mortgage at as low interest as $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. In general, banking seems to have been carried on on very modern principles.

question he thinks that disestablishment would really increase the power of the clergy, for it would set them absolutely free for whatever propaganda they wished to set on foot, and that is evidently why, as a good Republican, he prefers to maintain the Concordat.

A ROMAN CATHOLIC VIEW OF TOLSTOY.

An article which has recently appeared in an Italian newspaper, concerning the visit of Italian priests to Leo Tolstoy, gives occasion for an essay in *Civiltà Cattolica* for September, on the religion of that writer, and how it differs from that which should be held by a Catholic priest. Tolstoy declares that he is a follower of the pure Evangel, which is a gospel without a God, without the Son of God, without a church, says the author of this contribution. The social obligations of the upper classes form the subject of a contribution which gives much food for reflection; it has for its text the words of an encyclical, which sets forth eloquently the fact that whoever has been the recipient of great gifts, spiritual or otherwise, should use them for the common benefit as well as for his own perfection.

THE BUDGETS OF EUROPE.

M. Lévy, in an interesting article on the deficits and surpluses of the European budgets, contributed to the

Revue des Deux Mondes for September, notes as a singular circumstance that the beginning of the twentieth century sees the credit of some states, such as Italy and Spain, rising in a notable proportion, while the credit of France, England and Germany suffers an eclipse. The position of England, he says, is like that of a man who awakes after a night of drunkenness. He counts up all the various war loans, notes the constant increase of municipal indebtedness, observes that the Irish land act means the borrowing of another large sum, and sets out the considerable increase in the army and navy estimates. He arrives at the conclusion that England has come to the limit of the taxation which she can pay. While consols have fallen something like twenty points below their highest, M. Lévy points out at the same time that British credit is the first in Europe if we take the yield per cent. of the various government stocks at present prices, but it is not nearly so much ahead as it used to be. Italian funds have risen some ten points, and a still more remarkable rise has taken place in Spanish fours. These two countries have profited by "peace, retrenchment and reform." Italy has recovered from the megalomania of Crispi, while Spain has actually profited by the loss of her colonies. In France, on the other hand, even in profound peace, the budget, both civil and military, continue to grow without reason. It is much the same thing in Germany. Altogether, the credit of no civilized state stands higher than that of the United States, to whose extraordinary prosperity M. Lévy pays a warm tribute. His general conclusion is that financiers ought to realize that there are limits to the taxable power of peoples.

THE TRADE OF HONGKONG.

A. von J. Sanson writes in the *Deutsche Rundschau* upon Hongkong as an ideal colony. Germans are in evidence in Hongkong, and the writer hopes that his countrymen will succeed in bringing their own colonies to anything approaching its flourishing state. He mentions that, in 1900, seventeen thousand laden ships entered the port, of some four and a quarter million tons burden. This does not include the huge number of Chinese boats and junks. The total yearly trade in the free port of Hongkong is reckoned at fifty million pounds, and the total exports in 1895 exceeded those of London by 766,000 tons, not reckoning junks. The Chinese, with one and a quarter million tons yearly, come next to the British, with four and one-half million tons; then come the Germans, the Japanese, the French, the Americans, the Norwegians, the Austrians, the Russians, the Dutch, the Italians, the Danes, the Belgians, the Swedes, and last of all the Portuguese with only 5,866 tons. It is interesting to note that the Dutch and Portuguese trade has fallen off, while the German and Japanese has increased, but without approaching the British at all. Russia has her own ports, and is connected by land with China, so the volume of her trade through Hongkong is, of course, small.

A STORY OF MODERN CHINA.

M. Pettit gives in the *Revue de Paris* for September, two more installments of what is really a remarkable study of modern Chinese life, written in the form of fiction. It is the tale of a native singing girl who, having been deceived and abandoned by one of the "foreign devils," conceives an undying hatred of all foreigners. She is fortunate enough to inspire a mandarin of great importance with a genuine passion. The account of

this dignitary's sufferings is really touching; he can hardly understand what has happened to him, he only knows that he is willing to sacrifice everything that a Chinaman holds most dear,—even to the extent of insulting the ashes of his father,—for the sake of his overmastering love for this girl, and his agony when she deserts him for a mere soldier rises to the height of tragedy. Incidentally, there is a wonderful description of the murder of a Christian bishop by Boxers after all his flock, save five only, have abandoned their faith and insulted the Cross. To the last he prays: "Father, forgive them, for they know not what they do."

MODERN THEOSOLOGY.

In *Onze Eeuw*, the Dutch magazine, Prof. Chantepie de la Saussaye gives us another installment of his "Impressions and Opinions," dealing this time with what he calls "The Modern Theosophy," that mystic religion which has claimed many strong minds, including that of Mrs. Annie Besant, whose personality is fading from our own minds. Mystic and theosophist, says the writer, are uttered in the same breath, are regarded as synonymous, but they do not follow the same path all the way through. The one is a spiritualist, the other is a materialist; the one turns from the material world, the other turns toward it. Each, in seeking for greater enlightenment, goes off in a different direction to look for it. The professor has a leaning toward theosophy, and he writes attractively on a subject which is, in itself, mysterious and not especially easy for the ordinary reader to comprehend. The other contents of this excellent review are worth perusal.

AN ITALIAN CRITICISM OF MARION CRAWFORD.

Nuova Antologia (September 1) contains an interesting review of the works of F. Marion Crawford with respect to that author's ideas of Rome and of Italy in general. Mr. Crawford has thoroughly understood the capital of United Italy and the character of its inhabitants, but he has not properly grasped the very complex character of the Italians as a whole. His observations concerning their simplicity, their religious ideas, and many other characteristics are correct enough; he has quite understood the inter-provincial disagreements and sentiments; but he denies that they are a people gifted with artistic fancy, and makes similar statements equally erroneous. The writer speaks of Mr. Crawford's special views on the fight for the temporal power of the Papacy, his detestation of the Garibaldian revolution, and his admiration for the personality of Victor Emanuel II., as well as many other things known to readers of Mr. Crawford's novels; the whole forms a good introduction to his works for those who have not perused them, and the article is illustrated with a portrait.

CHILDREN'S WHIMS.

In its issue for September 16, the *Nuova Antologia* contains a thoughtful article on the whims of children, giving the results of the author's study of an important and complex subject which has remained a mystery because psychologists and teachers have not considered it worth studying. Signora Paola Lombroso thinks it most decidedly worth studying, for if these whims are not corrected there is danger to the race. The cause of a violent outburst of tears and anger is often quite disproportionate to the violence of the outbreak; the fit of the sulks continues in many instances long after the

cause has entirely vanished from the child's mind. These are such common phenomena that we take them as a matter of course; yet we ought not to do so.

SEX IN HANDWRITING.

M. Alfred Binet, director of the psycho-physiological laboratory at the Sorbonne, discusses, in *La Revue* for October 1, the question whether sex betrays itself in handwriting, and if so, how. The article is illustrated with fourteen facsimiles of envelopes addressed to him, Madame, or Mademoiselle, Binet. He called in two experts, and a number of intelligent people, of widely different ages and occupations, but ignorant of graph-

ology. His conclusion is that sex certainly does betray itself in handwriting, though age is not so markedly shown. The sexual differences are seen alike by students of graphology and those ignorant of it, but the former can give more clearly the reasons why they think such and such writing is that of a young woman, and such and such another that of an old man. In the most favorable circumstances, the correct guesses number 90 per cent.; but occasionally a feminine handwriting is universally taken for a man's. Clear, simple, firm writing is characteristically masculine; more embroidered handwriting, with certain letters unduly tall, is characteristically feminine.

POPULAR TOPICS IN THE SCIENTIFIC JOURNALS.

THE numbers of *Nature* for September are largely taken up by the formal addresses of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. These addresses generally give a *résumé* of the subject treated by the speaker, and very commonly they are of an historical character. Some of the addresses are pretty technical, but others contain much that interests the popular reader. The address of Mr. Charles Hawksby before the section of engineering, while treating of modern engineering in general, devotes some special attention to the subject of water supplies from the engineer's standpoint. He has nothing especially new to say on the subject, but as a concise statement of the methods of securing water in the United Kingdom it is admirable. His remark that water obtained by gravitation is almost, if not quite, as expensive as water obtained by pumping may be something of a surprise to a layman, but is easily explained by the greater cost of gravitation works. The address of the president, Sir Norman Lockyer, is of marked popular interest, for he takes up the subject of Britain's failure to succeed in business competition with Germany and the United States. He finds the remedy in an increase in the universities and in greater attention to pure research. He advocates large expenditures of public money to bring this about, saying that Great Britain should have eight new universities. The money can be raised, if the need is really felt, as England raised the money to rebuild and equip its navy, when the navy bill was passed in 1888.

THE BIRDS OF EGYPT.

The main article of the last number of *Ornis* is a somewhat elaborate one entitled "Considérations sur les Oiseaux d'Égypte," by Dr. Quinet. Like so many of the articles written by French and German authors, it is unmercifully spread out, but nevertheless it does contain a large amount of information in regard to the birds of Egypt and their migrations. He says that the birds of Egypt are, to a large extent, like those of Europe, but it is very noticeable that the woodpeckers and tomits are wanting. The migration tables in connection with the article are very extensive. In his charts of migration, the striking thing to a layman is that the lines of movement of the birds are so generally on a

northeast and southwest line. Of course, there are some exception to this general direction, like the lines between Iceland and Great Britain, and those between Great Britain and the Continent.

A GERMAN ZOÖLOGICAL STATION.

Of all the work done by the German people for the advancement of scientific research, perhaps none has been more fruitful than the establishment of zoölogical stations, of which the one at Naples is by far the most complete and most noted. Therefore, the article begun in the September number of *Der Zoölogischen Garten* by Hans Zimmerman, describing a visit to the station of the Berlin Aquarium at Rovigno, is of a good deal of interest. Zimmerman gushes like a boarding-school girl, and distributes the technical names of plants and animals in a promiscuous and entirely unnecessary manner, but, nevertheless, the article is interesting as describing a somewhat elaborately-equipped station. The building is a rather imposing one, three stories in height, fitted with large aquaria, laboratories, and living rooms for those connected with its work. German biologists may well take pride in such permanent stations, which are almost ideal in their arrangement.

EXERCISE AND ALCOHOL.

In *La Nature* of September 5 is an interesting short article on the influence of muscular energy in eliminating alcohol which has been introduced into the blood. M. Grehant made a series of experiments, dosing with alcohol, and then examining the blood after a varying number of hours. He found that under ordinary circumstances the elimination of alcohol was extremely slow. He then had constructed a wheel three meters in diameter into which a dog could be placed and kept moving. Alcohol was introduced into the stomach of the dog, and after five hours in the wheel its blood was examined, when it was found that the alcohol had diminished much more rapidly than when the animal was not exercising. M. Grehant commends the result of this experiment to the consideration of men who have somewhat over-indulged, and suggests that experiment might show beneficial results from carriage riding when the degree of "ivresse" was too great for walking.

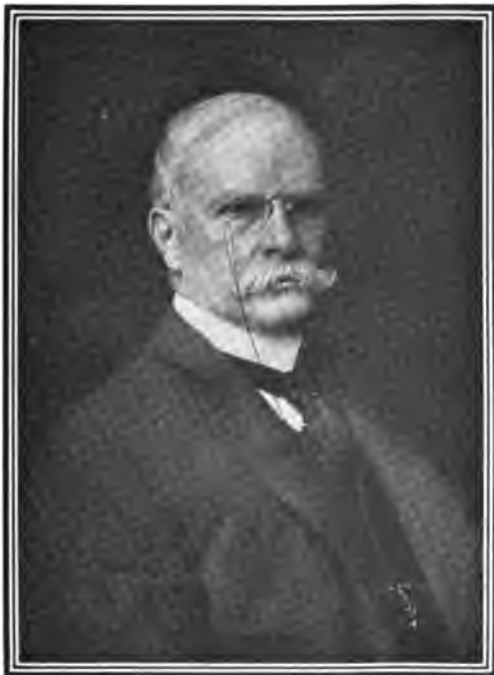


A GLANCE AT THE NEW NOVELS.

THE rapid-fire production of novels during the last few seasons has given rise to the remark that novel-writing has become a disease and every one has it. It came about, perhaps, in two ways: some stories, like "David Harum," had been very successful commercially, and there was a distinct wave of creative impulse evident. Now, although a considerable number of novels were published in midsummer, something scarcely attempted before "Richard Carvel's" quick popularity, there is an increasing hesitancy among publishers about launching too many books of fiction in a season. Only three or four novels recently published seem likely to reach one-fifth of "David Harum's" wide circulation. So much for the business viewpoint. People are reading as much as ever,—only there are more books and constantly new and inexpensive ways of getting them. But the creative impulse is still evident. More fiction of good quality is being written, perhaps, than ever before, and if there are more students than masters of the art, it is to be remembered that a book, however faulty, is a better sign of literary progress than a book about a book. The only writers whose earnestness lessened sales will affect are those like a man we know who recently brought an adventurous tale to a publisher, and said frankly, "I've studied these successful novels and learned the trick,—I think this book will sell." His book, by the way, is not published yet.

Of the newer books, while there are still many historical and adventurous romances, the people and places and problems of the present day seem to be in-

teresting the novelists and readers more, not the realism of commonplaces unlifted by personality, but the splendid, sincere, imaginative realism that Frank Norris laid the way for, if he, himself, could not realize it. And the most notable books are more generally the most widely read. Publishers are hoodwinking readers less easily with each successive season. The popular books of the last months, for example, have been, according to reports, Mr. Allen's "Mettle of the Pasture" (Macmillan), Mr. London's "The Call of the Wild" (Macmillan), Mr. Page's "Gordon Keith" (Scrib-



JAMES LANE ALLEN.



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THOMAS NELSON PAGE.

ner), Dr. Dixon's "The One Woman" (Doubleday), Mr. McGrath's "The Grey Cloak" (Bobbs-Merrill), and Mr. Fox's "The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come" (Scribner). Critics might quarrel with public for some of these selections, and yet in each case a sane reason for their popularity is evident. "The Call of the Wild" is almost epic. The dog which is carried from luxurious California into clementary Alaska, and returns naturally to his own, is, after all, only an evidence of the workings of the spirit of the wilderness. The story is vital and true, and in it and through it you feel the lash of the northern wind, the oppression and the exaltation of an undiscovered, primitive land, the mysterious, ruggedly poetic touch of primitive nature; you yourself hear the insistent call of the wild. The sense of this virile book remains as a permanent possession. "The Mettle of the Pasture" is diametrically different.

Here is human tragedy resultant from human weaknesses of many kinds. The young man and woman who are separated by his earlier sin, and who suffer through the cruelty of their friends, are brought together only after the ruin of their happiness has been accomplished. Mr. Allen has still the grace of good writing and a sense of the more delicate poetry of nature. The story of "The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come," his boyhood in the Kentucky mountains, his youth in the settlements, and of how, in his manhood, he fought for the

Union with and against his friends, grips one with its strong virility and its gentle tenderness. Chad is unforgettable, and it is all so human and true that you feel that your finger has been on the pulse of the most dramatic heartbeats of our national life. "Gordon Keith" is the story of a young Southerner who, born a gentleman, is forced, because of the ruin the war brought his father, to make his own way, which he does manfully and as becomes a gentleman, in Virginia



MRS. NANCY HUSTON BANKS.

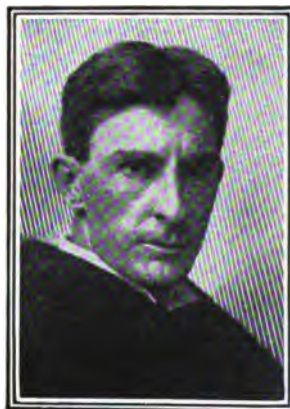
and in New York. That the author personally felt this story deeply is evident. No detail is spared, and if this sometimes clogs the action of the book, it is all done with the charm and truth to life which made "Red Rock" a literary achievement. The people of the Virginia country are more human and attractive than the city folk in the story, exactly as they are in real life. Certain and not-to-be-neglected vigor and force make "The One Woman" important. The story is about a young socialistic preacher in New York who, though married, falls in love with a rich girl who helps him to carry out his theories for social equality and salvation. He leaves his wife, and is married to the other woman by the socialistic marriage ceremony; but she, in turn, passes him by for a friend of his, whom he kills in a

duel with knives in the dark. His wife stands by him through it all, and, finally, saves him from the death penalty for murder. The story is sensational and melodramatic; every color in it is flamboyant, and every sound a scream. But it is powerful with elementary force, and the passages describing the life of a city preacher carry weight by a sense of personal experience. "The Grey Cloak" is a typical historical romance of the time of Mazarin. The main characters hurry from France to Quebec,

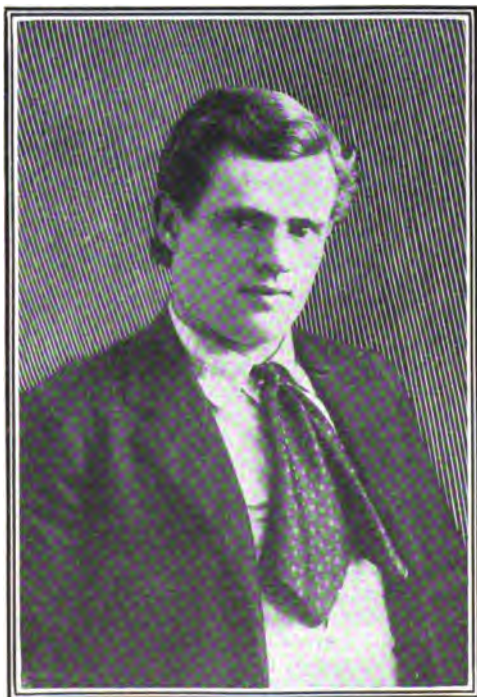
because a paper is abroad which will ruin them. In the Canadian wilds, the four men, in love with one lady, struggle for supremacy, and all but the lover are killed. The action throughout is stirring, and the web of intrigue and misunderstanding is unwoven only at the end. The most sympathetic character in the book is a young priest, who is the illegitimate son of the hero's father.

HISTORICAL ROMANCES.

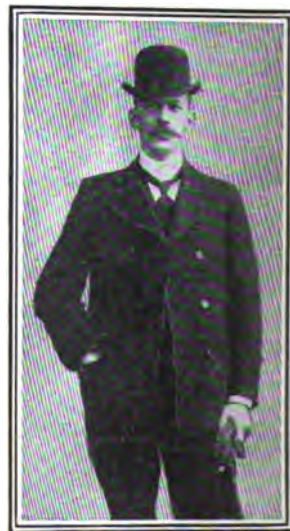
The number of new American historical stories is comparatively small. In "Peggy O'Neal" (Biddle: Philadelphia), Alfred Henry Lewis has written both an interesting tale with a charming heroine and a clear-cut characterization of Andrew Jackson. Frederick Palmer's "The Vagabond" (Scribner) is an interesting story of the Civil War, with



THOMAS DIXON, JR.



JACK LONDON.



CUTCLIFFE HYNE.



JOHN FOX, JR.

a hero who is, perhaps, even more attractive as a child, searching for a mountain, a mine, and a maid, than in his war setting, and a charming heroine who is loyal to the South, but who surrenders with it. "Round Anvil Rock" (Macmillan), is another of Miss Nancy Huston Banks' Kentucky stories, its scene laid in pioneer days. It is a pretty love story and a dashing historical romance rolled into one. Here, again, is Andrew Jackson, but in the days before he was "the General." "A Spectre of Power" (Houghton, Mifflin) takes the reader South, into Tennessee, in the primitive times of the struggles between the French, English, and Indians. Charles Egbert Craddock has written a rattling adventurous story. "On the We-a Trail" (Macmillan) is one of a large number of novels of the pioneer West. This one, by Caroline Brown, is not greatly different from its predecessors, but holds the reader by its crowding incident and adventure.

Historical stories with a foreign setting are more numerous. Stanley Weyman's "The Long Night" (McClure) is different in its first chapters from any of his previous novels. These describe the superstition of old Geneva; but soon the action quickens, and in the end comes the dashing fight between Savoy and Geneva, done characteristically. The love story is charming, but Mr. Weyman is always better in a fight than anywhere else. "The Adventures of Gerard" (McClure) are the braggadocio accounts of the prowess of a Napoleonic soldier, told by himself. Though written by Conan Doyle, these stories are more like Weyman than is "The Long Night." Robert Chambers' "The Maids of Paradise" (Harper) is a characteristic story of the Franco-Prussian War, with a more human hero and a more inhuman villain than he usually indulges in. Among others deserving mention are "Castle Omeragh" (Appleton), by

Frankfort Moore, a very historical story of Ireland in Cromwell's time; "Gorgo" (Lothrop), a story full of the atmosphere of ancient Greece; "The Spoils of Empire" (Little, Brown & Co.), a love story with old-time Mexico as a background; and "The Sins of a Saint" (Appleton), a virile romance of old England.

TALES OF ADVENTURE.

Cutcliffe Hyne's "Captain Kettle" is imperishable; and McTodd and Thompson, the heroes of his two latest books (Macmillan), are as real, if less well rounded and novel; and no one makes the sea so real and vivid a background for restrained, never-labored or melodramatic action. His terse, clean-cut writing contrasts with the easy flow of Clark Russell's "The Captain's Wife" (Page: Boston). Invention rampant characterizes "The Wings of the Morning" (Clode), but none will put aside the book until the last of hundreds of hairbreadth escapes is over and all live happy ever after; nor can one easily leave "The Golden Fetich" (Dodd, Mead), Eden Phillpott's well-told story of the adventures of a young Englishman in the heart of Africa. "The Red Triangle" (Page) is a new detective story, by Arthur Morrison, which would be striking if we had never known Sherlock Holmes, and "Murray Davenport" (Page), unlike Mr. R. N. Stephens' previous stories, is laid in New York of the present day. It has, however, Mr. Stephens' characteristic thrilling and melodramatic climaxes. "The Love of Monsieur" (Harper) is a new French romance, by George Gibbs, after the style of Dumas and Weyman; "Barbe of the Grand Bayou" (Dodd, Mead) is an exciting and rather powerful story of the Brittany coast by John Oxenham; "The MS. in the Red Box" (Lane) is a story of daring in seventeenth-century England which, like many others, has difficulty in being as



FREDERICK PALMER.

interesting as its publisher's announcements; "The Yellow Crayon" (Dodd, Mead) is another novel and interesting tale, by E. P. Oppenheim, having to do with



KATE DOUGLAS WIGGIN.

the Order of the Yellow Crayon, a secret society of nobility, formed to put down socialists and anarchists.

STUDIES OF A SINGLE CHARACTER.

Kate Douglass Wiggin has never written a more quaint story than "Rebecca of the Sunny Brook Farm" (Houghton, Mifflin), nor has she created a fresher, more subtly-conceived character than Rebecca. It is altogether charming, reposeful art. "Darrel" (Lothrop) is another of Irving Bacheller's north-country characters, full of charming sentiment and humor, and always talking as if he knew many were listening. "Andy Barr" (Lothrop) is still another homespun philosopher, who is the central character despite the love story and the glimpse of the Civil War. "Ike Glidden" (Dickerman) is another variant of the type. "Wee MacGregor" (Harper) is the quiet tale of a Scotch lad and his very human father and mother. Mr. J. J. Bell writes with distinction and charm. "My Friend Annabel Lee" (Stone) is naturally all about Mary McLane, and "My Mamie Rose" (Baker-Taylor) is the frank autobiography of Mr. Owen Kildare.

STORIES OF AMERICAN SOCIAL LIFE.

George Barr McCutcheon's recent story, "The Sherrods" (Dodd, Mead), deals with an attractive but weak artist who loves two women and marries both. His discovery makes clear the nobility of both women, and of an old country rival whose love has regenerated him. It is a strong American story, written clearly and forcibly, but with artistic restraint, about an old theme. It

has the freshness of "The Gentleman from Indiana." New York is the scene of many stories of city life. Howard Pyle's "Rejected of Men" (Harper) is a reverent attempt to show how New York would receive Christ's coming, and the old story is told with a modern background. Arthur Stringer's "The Silver Poppy" (Appleton) is a strong story of human inhumanity and weakness in literary Bohemia. "The Girl of Ideas" (Scribner) shows another side of New York literary life. "White-wash" (Dana, Estes) and "An April Princess" (Dodd, Mead) are crisply-written stories of New York fashionable society and Bohemia, while "The Dominant Strain" (Little, Brown), though primarily a character study, is written against a background of musical and music-worshiping New York. "The Millionaire's Son" (Dana, Estes) is an unusually vital picture of a young man who, by a sharp experience with his worldly-minded father, proves to himself that he is more scholar than business man. Like "The Dominant Strain," it is a study of a character that has two twists instead of a bent. "The Mills of Man" (Rand, McNally) is a story of modern business, and "The Story of an East Side Family" (Dodd, Mead) the realistic evolution of a young couple who fight their way up together by thrift and industry. Miss Alice Brown's "Judgment" (Harper) is an exquisite small-bit of literary workmanship. The story of the frail, large-hearted woman who lives for others, and of the final judgment of her hard though intentionally just husband, is intensely human. It is a paragraph from real life.

Harold Wilson's "The Spenders" (Lothrop), which contrasts with keen analysis the old mineworker and his city-living, luxury-loving grandson, has been succeeded by "The Lions of the Lord" (Lothrop), a tale of the Mormons; and if it is less universal and less finely drawn than its predecessor, it is, nevertheless, fresh and virile writing. There are a considerable number of strong, healthy stories of American country life, strong and healthy as contrasted with the cleverness of the city tales. Arthur Pier's "The Triumph" (McClure) is an example, with its scene laid in the oil regions, and showing the author's increasingly firm grasp of character and situation; "The Red Keggers" (Booklover's) is another, a story of the lumber district; "The Red-fields' Succession" (Harper), with the modern South as a background; "The Beaten Path" (Macmillan), a realistic story of American commercial life; and "The Main Chance" (Bobb's-Merrill), with the scene laid in a West-

ern town, and with a rather interesting villain. More notable are Mrs. Burnham's second Christian Science story, "Jewel" (Houghton, Mifflin), Gwendolen Overton's "Anne Carmel" (Macmillan), and Anna McClure Sholl's "The Law of Life" (Appleton). These two latter stories, — one of a girl whose passionate, unseeing love of a man of the world is kept from ruining her only by her devotion to her brother, the other, of a young



HOWARD PYLE.

wife of an older, academic man in a modern college, who loves and is loved by a young and daring instructor, but who finally triumphs over herself and him and obeys the law of life,—are exceedingly acute studies of the sex problem and of marriage conventions. "A Gentleman of the South" (Macmillan) is a story which carries a study of the old-time Black Belt. Dr. Brady's "Doctor of Philosophy" (Scribner) details the tragedy caused by a strain of negro blood in a charming girl, and "Good-bye, Proud World" (Houghton, Mifflin), is an entertaining tale of a girl who leaves the city for a quiet Connecticut town, and of her further quiet adventures in quiet surroundings.



GWENDOLEN OVERTON.

STORIES OF FOREIGN SOCIAL LIFE.

Charles Marriott's "The House on the Sands" (Lane) is written against a background of English politics. The hero loses his career in his love for a woman who has lived platonically with a social theorist. The story, quietly and artistically told, and full of keen character analysis, contains some comment on America that is interesting. "Americans don't think," says Tate, "they calculate; they are amazingly clever, but not very wise; they have no statesmen, only politicians." "Felix" (Stokes) is a very strong if somewhat morbid story, by Robert Hichens, of an English country boy who reads Balzac, falls in love with a *morphineuse* in London, and is finally reclaimed by his love for his mother. "Pigs in Clover" (Lippincott) is another morbid though forceful story, with a couple of weak women and a vigorous Jewish financier, who works between South Africa and England, and his devil-like brother as leading characters. "Place and Power" (Appleton), "Twixt God and Mammon" (Appleton), and "Stay at Homes" (Longmans) are intimate studies of English social life, and "Eleanor Dayton" (Lane), a readable story of an American girl in the Paris of the Second Empire.

CHEERFUL LOVE STORIES.

Justus Miles Forman's stories have an indefinable poetic charm throughout, and his "Monsigny" (Doubleday), a slight tale of the picturesque old castle of that name, is potent as pretty dreams are potent. "The Land of Joy" (Doubleday) is another frank, cheerful story of the love affairs of two college men at Cambridge and in Virginia. "Kidnapped" (Harper) is a cheery yarn, by Mary Raymond Shipman Andrews, of young American daring and a lively love affair. "The Castle of Understanding" (Harper) is a pretty love story, full of delicate humor, and exceedingly attractive in its drawing of the youthful hero and heroine; and "The Man With the Wooden Face" (Fox, Duf-

field) is similarly and differently simple and pretty, a crisp little story of the present day. Molly Elliot Seawell's "The Fortunes of Fifi" (Bobbs-Merrill), a light and pretty love story of France of the First Empire, and Onota Watanna's poetic Japanese tale, "The Heart of a Hyacinth" (Harper), both show a delicate sense of literary fitness.



CLARA LOUISE BURNHAM.

SHORT STORIES.

Publishers are slow to print volumes of short stories, and, as a result, most of the new collections are written by authors whose names will carry the book to some considerable success. Another result is that some of the best writing of the season is in them. "Trent's Trust" (Houghton, Mifflin) has much of the earlier Bret Harte in it; F. Hopkinson Smith's art, essentially a short-story telling one, is at its best in the reposeful stories in "The Under Dog" (Scribner); Frank Norris's virility and rugged realism come out strongly in some of the other stories than "A Deal in Wheat" (Doubleday), which gives the name to the volume; Mrs. Steel's mastery of incident has never been so clearly revealed as in the India tales of "In the Guardianship of God" (Macmillan).

Alfred Henry Lewis's stories, told at "The Black Lion Inn" (Russell), are national in their interpretation of character and in the swing of dramatic incident; and George Ade's stories, "In Babel" (McClure), show that he is a more facile master of short-story writing than he is of slang. Other interesting collections are Seumas McMannus' "Red Poocher" (Funk & Wagnalls), characteristic Irish stories; "Earth's Enigmas" (Page), some more of C. G. D. Roberts' nature sketches; "Old Plan-

tation Days" (Dodd, Mead), intimate negro yarns by Paul Laurence Dunbar; "The Change of Heart" (Harper), half a dozen gentle love stories; "The Black Chantier" (Macmillan), clever and tender Highland stories by Nimmo Christie; and "The Untilled Field" (Lippincott), some rather powerful stories by George Moore.

Some not-to-be-neglected short stories that have been published in single volumes (Macmillan) are Owen Wister's "Philosophy Four," an altogether merry, boyish Harvard story, written inimitably; "Man Overboard," a clever sea story by Marion Crawford; "Mrs. Pendleton's Four in Hand," a pretty society tale by Gertrude Atherton; and Wm. Stearns Davis' "The Saint of Dragon's Dale," a weird little German story. "Cirello" (Life) is a slight story of musical and artistic people. "The Unwelcome Mrs. Hatch" (Appleton) is a novelization of Mrs. Harrison's play. It has some power, and is made vital by the character of the heroine.



CHARLES MARRIOTT.

STORIES TOLD BY LETTERS.

Three recent novels,—by W. D. Howells, Messrs. Vickar and Collins, and Beulah Marie Dix,—take the form of letters: "Letters Home" (Harper) are letters written to people at home telling of the interesting things that are happening in New York, and, together,

making a single complete love story; "A Parish of Two" (Lothrop) are letters which pass between a restless young man who is traveling and an invalid friend in West Braintree, Mass. Both are in love with the same already married woman, but neither recognizes the lady in the other's letters until the book has been written. The contrast of the two characters,—one restless, active, healthy; the other, an invalid and a resigned philosopher,—makes a varied interest. "Blount of Breckenhow" (Macmillan) is a scourging tale of nineteenth-

century England, told by letters between the Rowlestons, the Careweses, and James Blount.

HUMOROUS STORIES.

Very little real humor has appeared during the last months. "Sinful Peck" (Harper), which has something of the quality of W. W. Jacobs, and is infinitely more flexible than anything Morgan Robertson has done before; "The Captain's Tollgate" (Appleton), a posthumous novel by Frank R. Stockton, with the author's

quaint and mellow humor abundant; and "The Brazer Calf" (Dodd, Mead), a society satire by James L. Ford, are the best examples. Miss Lillian Bell's "Dowager Duchess and the American Girl" (Harper) and Mr. Van Zile's "A Duke and His Double" (Holt) are both about royalty folk, and have consciously or unconsciously considerable humor.



ALFRED HENRY LEWIS.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE SEASON.

BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS.

THE important place held by biography among the books of the present season is especially notable. Not only is Mr. Morley's "Life of Gladstone" distinctly the "book of the month" in England, and to a great extent in America as well, but in the United States there are at the present moment at least half a dozen biographies of statesmen, soldiers, and literary men claiming the attention of the reading public. One of the most interesting of these new enterprises in the field of biographical writing is Mr. Thomas E. Watson's volume on the "Life and Times of Thomas Jefferson" (Appleton). This book demands notice not merely because its author has a vivacious style and positive convictions, but even more because it is a characterization of the first and greatest of our Southern statesmen by a man of Southern birth and breeding. Mr. Watson alludes in his preface to the fact that by far the greater number of books treating of American history and biography have been written by Northern men. He complains not without justice that many

of the histories of our country are histories of New England rather than of the nation. It may very well be that if historical writing had been attempted to any great extent by Southern men in the early days of the Republic, the results would have revealed provincialisms to an even greater degree than do the works of our New England authors. Nevertheless, Mr. Watson is entirely right in his contention that the South should be better represented in our histories. Any Northern man may certainly read with interest and profit what Mr. Watson has to say concerning that man among the founders of our national government who has always more than any other typified the spirit of American democracy.

A delightful volume of reminiscences entitled "My Own Story" has been written by John Townsend Trowbridge, the story writer and poet (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Those among our readers,—and they are many, we are sure,—who have been familiar from their youth up with the writings of Mr. Trowbridge in such publications as *The Youth's Companion* and *Our Young Folks*, not to speak of his more serious efforts in the

dignified pages of the *Atlantic Monthly*, will take especial pleasure in reading the autobiography of this genial American writer. Mr. Trowbridge was born in Monroe County, New York, in 1827, his parents being pioneer settlers of that region, and he was brought up on a backwoods farm. After attending the primitive district school of those days, he began by himself, at the age of fourteen, the study of French and Latin, and became an eager reader of Byron, Scott, Shakespeare,



JOHN TOWNSEND TROWBRIDGE.

Burns, and other writers. Mr. Trowbridge began to write verses at thirteen, and to print them at sixteen in a Rochester newspaper. Leaving home after his father's death, he attended a classical school for one term, and in 1845 went to Illinois, where he taught a country school in the winter, and two years later came to New York and began to write for the press. The next year he went to Boston, and soon became known as a writer of tales and sketches. For fifty years, Mr. Trowbridge was a contributor to story papers and the author of a large number of popular poems and stories. His book abounds in reminiscences of Walt Whitman, Father Taylor, Emerson, Longfellow, and other men of letters.

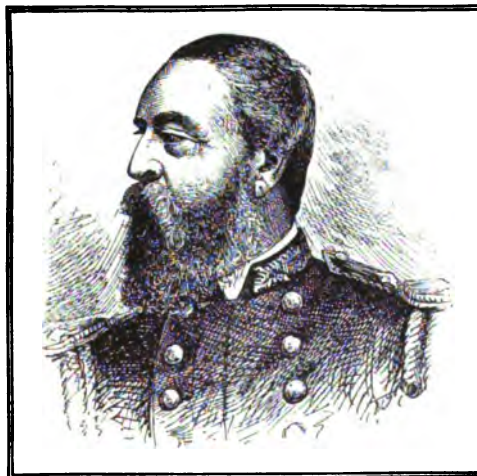
It seems strange, indeed, that the world has had to wait so many years for a complete and authentic account of Dr. Howe's famous experiments with Laura Bridgman which resulted in the first case of successful instruction of a child who was blind as well as deaf-mute. Such an account is now given to the public by Dr. Howe's daughters, Maud Howe and Florence Howe Hall, in a volume entitled "Laura Bridgman, Dr. Howe's Famous Pupil, and What He Taught Her" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). Dr. Howe himself died in 1876, after having more than once expressed a determination to write a full account of these experiments; but he was absorbed in other work and found no time for the task. It is announced that this volume will be followed in due time by the earlier adventures and journals of Howe, which another daughter, Mrs. Richards, is editing, and eventually, it is hoped, by the

later and more public life of Dr. Howe. As is well known, many blind deaf-mutes, such as Helen Keller, have been benefited by the system of education which Dr. Howe devised for Laura Bridgman. The records of his experiments are of the highest scientific and educational value.

Anthony Wayne, the Revolutionary general who is known more commonly as "Mad Anthony," is the subject of a memoir in the "Historic Lives" series (Appleton), by John R. Spears. General Wayne's brilliant achievement at Stony Point, and his later career as an Indian fighter in the West, have made his name familiar to successive generations of American schoolboys.

A predestined writer of memoirs was the late M. de Blowitz, the Paris correspondent of the London *Times*, and the volume recently published (Doubleday, Page & Co.), giving the recollections of this extraordinary adventurer and diplomat among journalists, is in no sense a disappointment to those who are familiar with its author's remarkable career. His book is mainly occupied with the hitherto unpublished history of Europe for the past thirty years. Especially interesting is the chapter which recounts the author's interview with the Sultan in 1883.

In the "Great Commanders" series (Appleton), Mr. James Russell Solley, formerly Assistant Secretary of the Navy, writes the life of "Admiral Porter." This is the first time that the record of Admiral Porter's life has been given to the public. It is based upon official documents and correspondence, together with the published narratives of officers who took part in the Civil War. The Porter family had followed the sea for a hundred years before the admiral was born. The admiral's grandfather served as commander of a privateer in the Revolutionary War. His father, of the same name, was the famous Commodore Porter of the War of 1812. The admiral's own distinguished services in



THE LATE ADMIRAL PORTER.

our Civil War are matters of familiar history. Mr. Solley has done a thorough and altogether creditable piece of work.

The life of "Theodore Leschetizky," the greatest of living piano teachers, as written by the Countess Potocka, has been translated into English by Miss Gene-

vieve Seymour Lincoln (Century Company). Not a few American pianists have been numbered among Leschetizky's pupils in Vienna, and he became famous years ago as the teacher of Paderewski.



THEODORE LESCHETIZKY.

BOOKS OF TRAVEL, DESCRIPTION, AND EXPLORATION.

In "The Land of the Heather," written and illustrated by Clifton Johnson (Macmillan), Scotland is described as some portions of England, Ireland, and France have been described in earlier volumes by the same author. Mr. Johnson's text is not less illuminating than his pictures, and to the stay-at-home as well as to the would-be traveler the combination of text and pictures offers much that is both instructive and pleasing.

"Grindelwald," by Daniel P. Rhodes, is avowedly a "pleasure book." The author has obtained his practical information about Grindelwald through observation and by talks with the Oberländer themselves. The present volume is mainly an answer to a series of questions about the region put by friends of the author. Needless to say, a great amount of this information is beyond the range of the ordinary guide-book literature. The book is beautifully illustrated from half-tone plates.

"To California and Back," by C. A. Higgins and Charles A. Keeler (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is a description of the Southern journey through New Mexico and Arizona, by way of the Grand Canyon, to southern California, and back through the central States. It is full of practical information to the intending traveler, particularly in regard to side trips and the prices of accommodations.

"Gardens of the Caribbees," in the "Travel Lovers' Library" (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), is a series of sketches of a cruise to the West Indies and the Spanish Main by Mrs. Ida M. H. Starr. In the selection of material the writer has given the preference to matters of distinctly human interest, and as a contribution to our

knowledge of the various native types her writing has a special value. The work is in two volumes, and is beautifully illustrated from photographs.

"A Handbook of Modern Japan," by Ernest W. Clements (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), is a survey of Japan as it is rather than as it was. There are chapters on "Industrial Japan;" "Travel, Transportation, Commerce;" "People, Houses, Food, Dress;" "Manners and Customs;" "Constitutional Imperialism;" "Local Self-Government;" "Japan as a World Power;" "The New Woman in Japan;" "Language and Literature," "Education," and various other topics which will appeal especially to the intelligent American reader who desires to get into closer touch with the Mikado's empire.

"Central Europe" is a new volume in Appleton's "World Series," written by Prof. Joseph Partsch, of the University of Breslau, and translated by Miss Clementina Black. Although the author's original text has been somewhat abbreviated, the volume as now presented contains a remarkably clear and accurate description of the physical features, climate, peoples, and political and economic geography of central Europe. The diagrams and maps employed in the work are of special excellence.

"Explorations in Bible Lands During the Nineteenth Century," by Prof. Herman V. Hilprecht (Philadelphia: A. J. Holman & Co.), is a one-volume sketch intended to convey to the intelligent English reading public a clear conception of the gradual resurrection of the principal ancient nations of western Asia and Egypt. This subject is now for the first time presented in a systematic but popular form. To attempt to bring



PROF. HERMAN V. HILPRECHT.

the materials within the compass of a single volume must have been an appalling undertaking, but we have at least the assurance that the volume before us is the work of a scholar and explorer of no mean achievements, and the work throughout is permeated by the enthusiasm of the author.

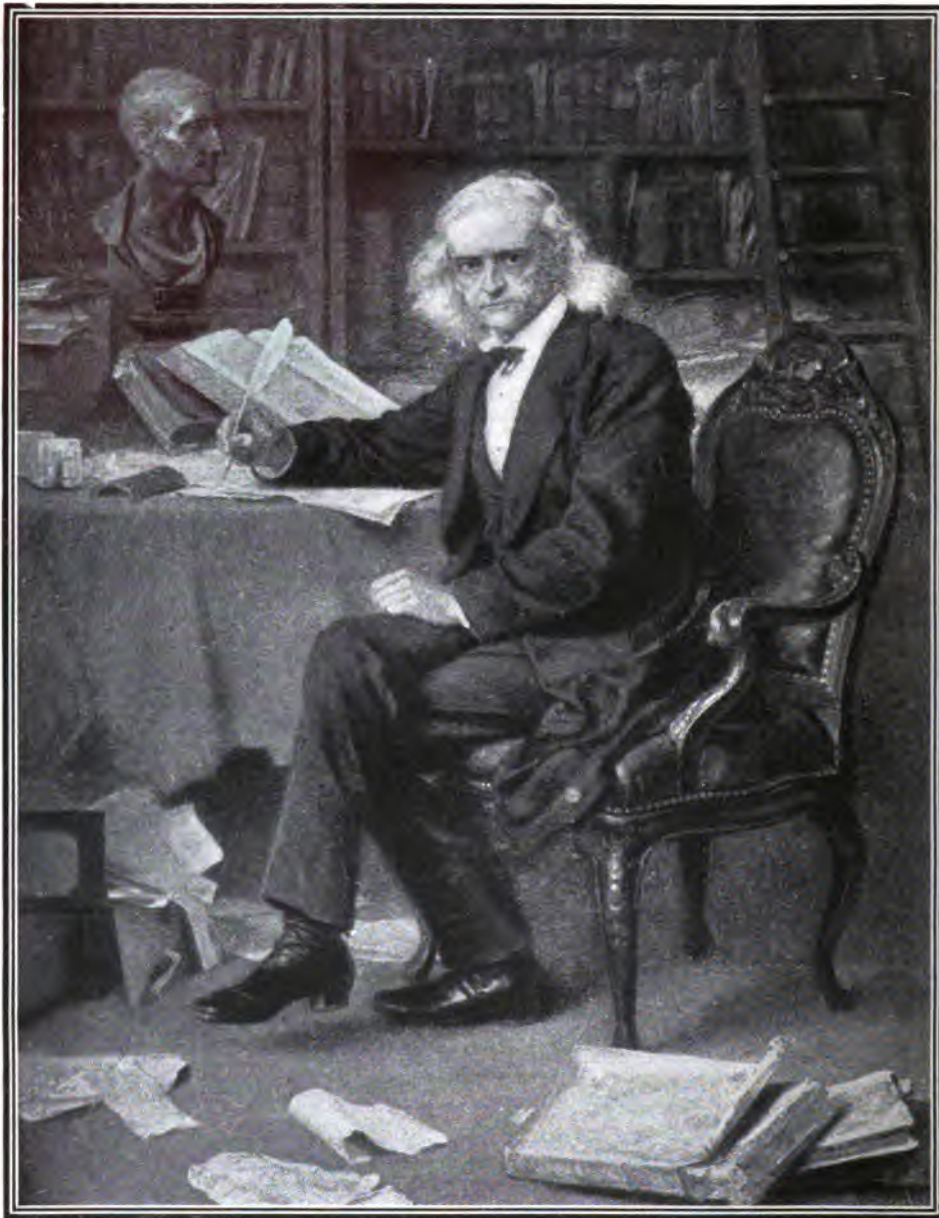
THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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THE LATE DR. THEODOR MOMMSEN.

Theodor Mommsen, regarded by many as the greatest historian of his time, was born in Schleswig, in 1817. After some years of study at the University of Kiel and of travel in Italy and France, he was called to a professorship of law at Leipsic, but was soon removed from that position for political reasons. Subsequently he held professorships of Roman law at Zurich and Breslau, and from 1858 to the day of his death (November 1, 1903), he was professor of ancient history at the University of Berlin. In the field of authorship, Mommsen's masterpiece was his monumental "Roman History," but his other contributions to classical learning were almost numberless. In the collection of Latin inscriptions, Mommsen had no peer. The "Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum" was his creation. In politics, Mommsen was an advanced Liberal, and, while a member of the Landtag, a bitter opponent of Bismarck.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The Independence of Panama. The revolt of the Isthmian state of Panama from the republic of Colombia took place by the unanimous consent of the population, and without effective resistance, in the opening days of November. The arguments in favor of such a movement were set forth in this REVIEW for the month of October, and the factors actually at work to bring the matter to a prompt conclusion were described with some detail in these pages last month. The course of events, indeed, has followed so closely the forecasts made in this REVIEW that certain newspapers have drawn wholly unwarranted inferences. It was not necessary to be either a conspirator or an astrologer to foresee a happening so logical,—indeed, so inevitable,—as this emphatic repudiation of the corrupt Bogota government by the long-suffering people of the Isthmus.

The Canal in Retrospect. For generations the Panama Canal had been the dream of men of bold imagination, and for half a century it had been the subject of practical effort—engineering, financial, and diplomatic. The Panama Railroad, built by citizens of the United States and operated under the guarantee and protection of the government of this country, had always been looked upon as the precursor of an Isthmian ship canal. When the De Lesseps company actually began work, with the prestige behind it of success at Suez, the long-deferred enterprise seemed finally assured. In due course of time, however,—not to recount familiar history,—the failure of the De Lesseps company, under circumstances as disgraceful as they were disastrous, seemed to have blighted, at least for a generation, the hopes of the people of Panama. Their discouragement was all the greater because, meanwhile, American citizens had formed—and were pushing with seem-

ingly good prospects—the Nicaragua Canal Company, for which it was expected that the financial support of the United States Government could be secured. But in its turn the Nicaragua Canal Company had to confess failure and abandon the work which it had actually begun. A new Panama company had been formed in France to hold the franchises and the various assets (including the Panama Railroad) of its bankrupt predecessor. This company obtained from the president of Colombia a six-year extension of the time limit within which the canal must be built in order to keep the franchises from lapsing, and it carried on a certain limited amount of construction work in the hope either of selling out or else of securing some kind of financial backing which would make it possible to finish the canal.

Uncle Sam to the Rescue. The next significant event in the history of the canal question was the Spanish-American War, which by means of the voyage of the *Oregon* and in other ways illustrated the strategic need of a canal for the better defense of the Atlantic and Pacific seaports of the United States. Furthermore, the expansion of American interests by reason of the acquisition of the Philippines, as well as of Hawaii and Porto Rico, added fresh weight to the arguments in favor of an interoceanic canal. It had become fairly evident that private capital would not come forward in the immediate future to build a canal on purely commercial grounds, and that the only agency possessing sufficiently strong motives and a sufficiently large exchequer to construct a waterway deep enough for battleships and the great freighters now in use, was the United States Government. In this conclusion there was concurrence of judgment on the part of the private financiers and transportation masters of all countries, and

there was no dissent on the part of the governments of the countries possessing fleets and merchant marines. The public opinion of the United States, without regard to section or party, had become overwhelmingly in favor of an inter-oceanic canal to be built and controlled by the Government.

*Nicaragua
Favored.*

At this time it was taken for granted, in view of many surveys and a long discussion of the subject, that for our purposes the Nicaragua route was decidedly the best one to choose. Accordingly, a bill was perfected and introduced by the proper committee of the House of Representatives, known as the Hepburn bill, definitely selecting the Nicaragua route and making a large appropriation of money, and instructing the President to proceed at once to dig the canal. This bill was passed in the House by practically a unanimous vote. The one or two men, out of the hundreds of Representatives, who opposed it were conscientiously of the opinion that railroad transportation had so developed as to have superseded the necessity of a costly canal undertaking. A like action in the Senate was prevented by the unexpected announcement that Secretary Hay had been negotiating a treaty with England by virtue of which the canal, when built, was to be put in the same position as the Suez Canal,—that is to say, neutralized under the guarantee of the great European powers. Objection to this idea caused much delay and led to the framing of another treaty from which the European guarantee was omitted.

*Panama's
Last Chance.*

By this time it had become clear that the people of the United States were determined to construct a canal; and all persons interested in the Panama route perceived that the only chance left for them was to secure the substitution of Panama for Nicaragua. They found a strong ally, moreover, in the coalition of transcontinental railway interests, which was opposed to any canal at all, and which sought to cause delay by promoting differences of opinion wherever possible. Thus it came to pass that when Congress, as a last preliminary step, was providing for an expert commission to make final surveys of route and estimates of costs for the Nicaragua Canal the Panama interests and the railroad interests, working together, succeeded in getting the bill so amended as to require the commission also to investigate the Panama route. The commission, headed by Admiral Walker, reported that both routes were feasible from the engineering standpoint, but that the Panama Canal could be constructed for less money than the other if the French company

could be bought out at a reasonable price. The commission reported that the French company demanded considerably more than \$100,000,000 for its assets, which, in the commission's judgment, were worth only \$40,000,000.

*The
Spooner
Compromise.*

At this juncture, events moved rapidly. The directors of the French company in Paris held a meeting and dispatched agents to this country to offer their assets to the United States Government at the precise valuation put upon them by the Walker Commission. The volcanic disturbances in Central America which had followed the destructive eruptions in Martinique had given the Panama advocates a new argument, which was exploited by Senator Hanna with great effect. Thus, the public mind, which had been practically unanimous for Nicaragua, had become greatly confused, and the deadlock that the railroad interests had been working for was apparently secured. This deadlock was broken by an ingenious move on President McKinley's part, followed by a still more ingenious piece of legislation. President McKinley had called together again the members of the Walker Canal Commission, and had asked them to reconsider their previous findings on the new financial basis. The commission reported promptly that if the French company could be bought out at \$40,000,000 it would recommend Panama in preference to Nicaragua.



PANAMA: "I'll just float around on this log for a while and perhaps Uncle Sam will pick me up."
From the *New-Tribune* (Duluth).

The Senate, in spite of the strenuous adherence of the chairman of its canal committee (Senator Morgan, of Alabama) to the Nicaragua route, was won over to Panama under the powerful leadership of Senator Hanna. The House of Representatives still, apparently, preferred Nicaragua, although with much weakening of conviction. Public opinion as reflected in the press cared much more for the canal than for the particular route. Out of this situation there came the ingenious measure known as the Spooner Act, which instructed the President to adopt the Panama route if he could make the necessary arrangements, and to proceed with the construction of the canal, the act itself appropriating all necessary funds. If, however, the President could not make the necessary arrangements within a reasonable time, this Spooner Act instructed him to make arrangements with Nicaragua and Costa Rica, and to construct the canal along the route first recommended by the Walker Commission.

Colombia's Fatal Cupidity. During this period of discussion, the government of Colombia had sought to interest the United States in the

Panama route, and had given every assurance that no obstacles would be placed in the way of an advantageous treaty under the terms of which our government could enter promptly upon the work of canal construction. The Colombians were much elated by the passage of the Spooner Act, and were quite too ready to assume that the Nicaragua alternative was not going to be seriously considered. They began to take a mercenary view of the matter, and it was only after very large concessions to their demand for money, and for recognition and guarantee of their perpetual sovereignty over the canal strip, that Mr. Hay succeeded in getting the treaty signed. Its unanimous rejection at Bogota by the Colombian Senate was due to the idea that by this means more money could be obtained from the United States, and that a large portion of the \$40,000,000 might be extorted from the French company, by processes akin to blackmail.

Panama's Occasion and Opportunity. It seems well-nigh incredible that these Bogota politicians could not have foreseen the obvious results of their conduct. The only explanation is that they were too selfish and irresponsible to see things clearly. They forgot how easy it is to change the political map when the necessity arises. They seemed to imagine that their control over the destinies of Panama would be respected and supported, no matter to what



PRESIDENT MARROQUIN, OF COLOMBIA.

extent they might abuse that control. It had, in point of fact, been evident for many years that the isthmus connecting North and South America should be delivered from its unfortunate connection with Colombia and accorded some stable and reputable form of administration and general control. The opportunity had at last come. The rejection of the treaty at Bogota had filled to the brim the cup of Panama's grievances. The leading citizens of the Isthmus planned a separation, with the establishment of an independent republic that would seek prompt recognition by the United States. The urgency lay in the fact that the Government at Washington would turn to Nicaragua if it were not speedily assured of a concession at Panama. The special opportunity for the separation movement lay in the powerful support in the United States and France of the Panama Canal Company, which had already made a conditional sale of its assets to the American Government.

Setting up a New Republic. The mere details of the establishment of the new republic have no special significance. They have all been recounted in the newspapers. The affairs of the Isthmus center in the two cities of Panama and Colon, the first being on the Pacific side of the

Isthmus and the other on the Atlantic side. The initial action was taken by the municipal council of the city of Panama on the afternoon of November 3, and adherence to its proclamation of independence was followed speedily in Colon and throughout the Isthmus. A provisional government was at once established, and the resistance offered by the few Colombian troops on the Isthmus amounted to nothing at all. Several hundred soldiers who had just been landed were allowed to embark peaceably and sail back to Cartagena. Several American naval vessels were quickly in Panama waters, to be followed by larger war ships within a few days, so that by the middle of the month the United States had ships enough on both sides of the Isthmus to protect the ports, and marines enough, in case of necessity, to prevent the use of the railroad for warlike objects.

*Recognition
at
Washington.*

The provisional government having immediately taken charge of the administration of the cities and ports of Panama and Colon, and the local government of every other part of the Isthmus, it was entirely proper that our government should have given instructions to our consular representatives to recognize the *de facto* authority. On November 6, the position of our government was set forth in an elaborate statement by Secretary Hay. In this statement, Mr. Hay explained at length the grounds upon which the United States regards itself as entitled to exercise paramount control



THE SMALL ONE: "I'm the republic of Panama, I am!"
From the *Blade* (Toledo).



WE COULD USE IT NOW.

UNCLE SAM: "Perhaps this will be an object-lesson as to the need of a canal."

From the *American* (New York).

over Isthmian transit. He further declared that this right "runs with the land," quite irrespective of the personnel or central location of the government of the country. For example, our treaty of 1846, under which we guarantee the freedom of Isthmian transit, was made with New Granada; but the position of the United States on the Isthmus remained the same when New Granada was dissolved and the Isthmus fell to the control of Colombia. In like manner, when the Isthmus assumes control of its own affairs it inherits the treaty of 1846 as defining a part of its relations to the United States. It was evident from the tenor of Mr. Hay's statement that our government proposed to give the new republic its friendly encouragement.

*Panama's
Envoy.*

The intentions of the new republic regarding the canal were rendered unmistakable by the important announcement, on November 7, that M. Philippe Bunau-Varilla had been appointed its diplomatic agent at Washington. We publish elsewhere an interesting account of the career of M. Bunau-Varilla. He is a Frenchman of international



M. Philippe Bunau-Varilla.

Secretary John Hay.

THE DIPLOMATS WHO SIGNED THE PANAMA CANAL TREATY ON NOVEMBER 18.

reputation who had served under the old French company as one of its engineers at Panama, and who had subsequently come to this country on behalf of the new company to persuade the government and people of the United States that Panama afforded the better route for a canal. He had lately been occupied in trying to bring about the ratification of the Hay-Herran treaty. Thus, he was well known to all the people of Panama as the man who, more than any other in recent years, had been personally identified with the efforts which were now about to be crowned with success for the digging of the Panama Canal. The reception of M. Bunau-Varilla on November 13 by President Roosevelt as the duly accredited envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of Panama to the United States marked the full acceptance of the new republic by our government. A like recognition was accorded by France a few days later. In the new minister's address to the President, and in the President's response, there was frank avowal of the fact that the new republic existed for the purpose of making possible the speedy completion of the Panama Canal. Meanwhile, our consul-general at Panama, Mr. Gudger, had been accorded diplomatic functions, and had been sent back from a visit to the United States.

*Negotiating
a Treaty.*

On the 18th, there arrived from Panama a special commission, consisting of Dr. Manuel Amador, minister of finance of the new republic; Don Frederico Boyd, a banker of Panama and a member of the triumvirate appointed to head the provisional government of the Isthmian republic, and Don Carlos Constantino Arosemena, who, after acting as secretary of the commission, is expected to remain in this country as secretary of the legation of Panama at Washington. This commission brought with it authority to aid the minister at Washington in negotiating a canal treaty and in securing recognition from other countries through diplomatic agencies at Washington. The President seems to have been advised by the legal authorities of the administration that the independence of Panama had not altered the authority conferred upon him by the Spooner Act. This legislation had appropriated the money needed for buying out the French Panama company, arranging for the necessary cession of a canal strip, and then for proceeding with the canal. In brief, the Spooner Act selected the Panama route and instructed the President to make the necessary arrangements to acquire the territorial rights. It was held that he possessed full authority to resume



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N. Obarrio.

M. Espinosa.
J. Arango.

C. C. Arosemena.
M. Amador.

Tomas Arias.

Ricardo Arias.
Frederico Boyd.

LEADERS IN THE FORMATION OF THE NEW PANAMA REPUBLIC.

(Messrs. M. Amador, Frederico Boyd, and C. C. Arosemena are the three commissioners who arrived in Washington last month. Messrs. Arango and Arosemena and Tomas Arias are the triumvirate, or "junta," temporarily governing the republic. Obarrio is minister of commerce and marine in the provisional government.)

with Panama the negotiations that had failed with Colombia, and that the administration had only to secure the completion of a new treaty,—to be ratified, of course, by the Senate,—in order to proceed at once to carry out the Spooner Act.

If the decisive steps taken by the administration in recognizing the new republic and in preventing hostilities on the Isthmus had received the well-nigh universal approval of the country, this approval was deepened and strengthened by the announcement, on Thursday, the 19th, that the new canal treaty had not only been drawn up and agreed to in its main points, but had been actually signed on the evening of the 18th by Mr. Hay, on the part of the United States, and M. Bunau-Varilla, on the part of the republic of Panama. Since the new minister had full authority, and since Mr. Hay was entirely ready to concede all

that Panama could well ask, there were no points of difference to cause delay, and therefore no reason for awaiting the arrival at Washington of the Panama deputation. What Panama most needed was the prompt signing of a treaty which gives the United States the right and the authority to defend it against all comers. Thus, validity under international law was given to any naval and military operations the United States might find it necessary to enter upon. As was to be expected, and as this REVIEW had anticipated in its November number, the treaty followed the general lines of the Hay-Herran convention, but with the less desirable features of that instrument omitted. Thus, the treaty with Panama makes the canal strip several miles wider, and gives the United States all the jurisdiction over that strip that it could possibly need for purposes of protection, order, and health, and for the due assertion of our national

*The Treaty
"Signed and
Sealed."*

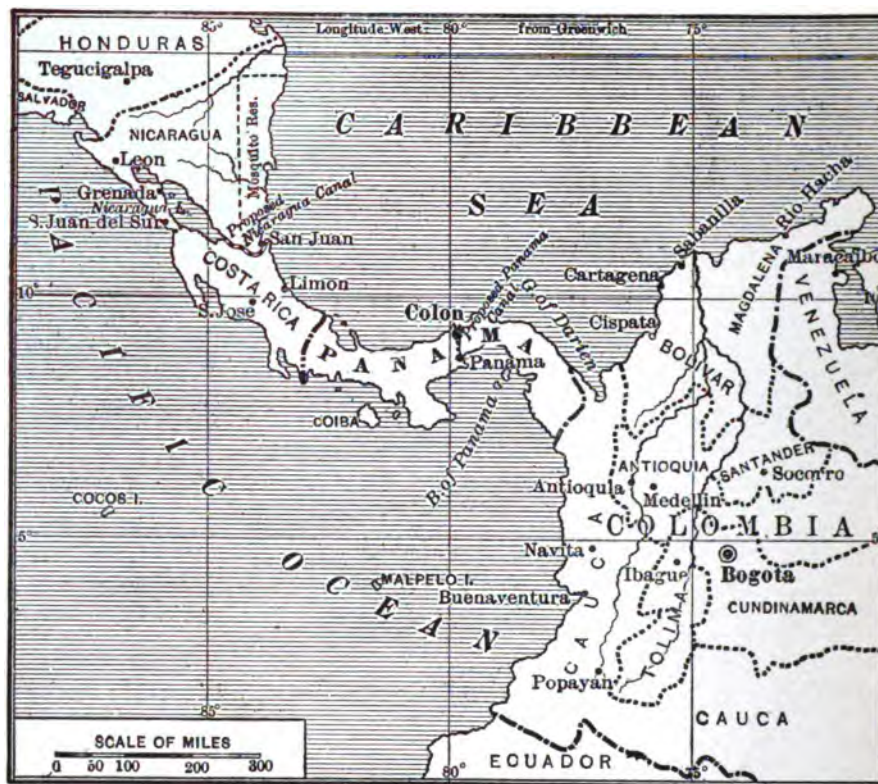


HON. MARCUS A. HANNA, NEW CHAIRMAN OF THE SENATE'S COMMITTEE ON THE INTEROCEANIC CANAL.

dignity on the scene of our greatest public work. It was, of course, to be expected that the terms of compensation should have been transferred from the one treaty to the other. It was announced that the treaty would be taken to Panama early in December and promptly ratified there, while it was not expected that President Roosevelt would lay it before our Senate until after the opening of the regular session on December 7.

Approval of Our Government's Course. The course of our government in its prompt and cordial acceptance of the new republic, and its quiet but determined tone in announcing that it would not permit Colombian troops to land on the Isthmus and attempt to regain by force the lost territory, met with general approval throughout the United States, and was viewed with favor by European countries. It was, however, naturally disturbing to those interests which have always been at work to prevent the construction of any canal at all. Some of the well-known organs of these interests aroused amusement by their assumption of virtuous indignation against the

President and Secretary Hay. Their quibbles were too palpably insincere to be deserving of any attention. Congress, meanwhile, had assembled under a special call to deal with the Cuban reciprocity matter, and it was not strange that the Democratic minority, in view of the approach of next year's election, should have cast about to see if the Panama situation afforded any chance for party capital. It was entirely right, and quite in accordance with the traditions of party government, that they should have been disposed to scrutinize critically this Panama policy as well as all other acts of the administration. But it is also in accordance with sound tradition that the party spirit should not be carried too far in any matter having to do with foreign relations. Those Democrats who had all along preferred the Nicaragua route naturally felt that under the Spooner Act the President ought to have adopted that alternative as soon as the Panama treaty had been rejected at Bogota, without further hesitation. This position, however, would not bear final analysis, because the changed situation which made it possible to go on with the Panama proj-



ect had come about before a treaty with Nicaragua could have been perfected and submitted to the Senate. The more the matter was considered, the more plain became the fact that everybody who wanted the Isthmian canal dug would have to support the policy of the administration. Thus, the attempt, on the 16th, of the Democratic Senators, in a protracted caucus, to agree upon an anti-administration policy failed completely; and it was from that day forth generally admitted that the canal treaty negotiated with Panama would be duly ratified. Although the Republicans have controlled the Senate for a number of years, they have until now left Mr. Morgan, of Alabama, undisturbed in his position as chairman of the Inter-oceanic Canal Committee. His persistence, however, in opposing the Panama route and the administration's policy had made it necessary to provide another chairman. Senator Hanna has accordingly been put in that position.

The New Republic. The republic of Panama extends about 460 miles from east to west, and has an area of about 31,500 square miles. The Statistical Bureau of our Department of Commerce at Washington estimates the population at about 300,000. It is

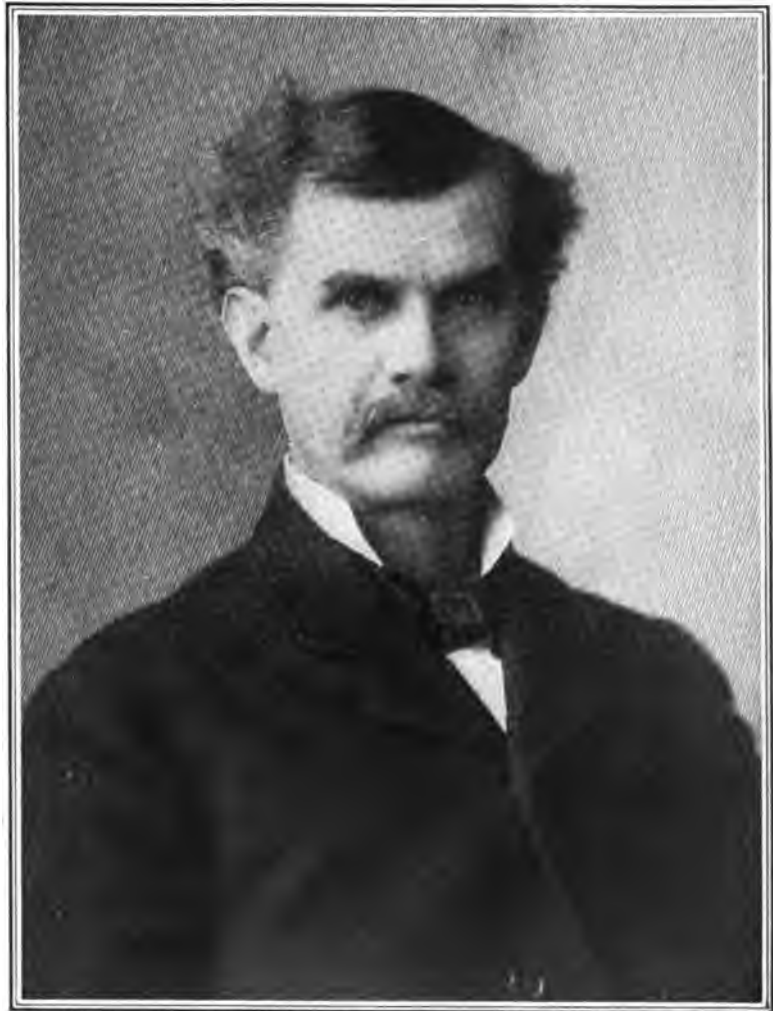
chiefly the seacoast that is inhabited, most of the interior being dense jungle and unexplored. The city of Panama has about 25,000 people, and Colon, formerly known as Aspinwall, is a smaller place, with about 3,000. Colon dates from the building of the railroad, while Panama was founded a hundred years before the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth. The greatest drawback to the development of the Isthmus has been the prevalence of fevers. American engineers, however, declare that with proper sanitary administration it could be made a favorite winter resort.

Dismay at Bogota. For many days the telegraphic communication with Bogota was greatly delayed and very fragmentary. There were reports of rioting and serious disorder, due to the wrath of the people at the base conduct of their own authorities, which had needlessly cost them the control of a province. Colombia could not have failed, of course, to make some formal protestations; but in view of the well-known facts, these were feeble and unconvincing. The politicians of Colombia, doubtless, regret the loss of the money they had hoped to handle. But the people of Colombia will in due time be greatly benefited by the building of a canal which will

provide easy access from their Atlantic to their Pacific ports, and which will greatly promote the economic development of the northern part of South America. It was expected that Colombia would soon acknowledge the independence of Panama, but it was also expected that the Bogota government would still seek to get some money out of the canal grants in the indirect form of an indemnity for the loss of territory. This, however, would be a wholly unnecessary arrangement. The ten millions that the United States has agreed to pay to Panama for the canal concession ought to be expended by the new republic for its own public works and administrative necessities,—particularly for such needs as schools, highways, and sanitary works.

The New Congress at Work.

Congress assembled on November 9 in extraordinary session. This new Congress is the one elected last year under the rearrangement of seats made necessary by the census of 1900, and the House of Representatives now has a membership of 386, this being considerably larger than under any previous apportionment bill. One hundred and twenty members of this House have never served in Congress before,—a little more than half of these new members being Democrats. As had been fully expected, Mr. Joseph G. Cannon, of Illinois, was elected Speaker. Mr. Richardson, of Tennessee, who had been the Democratic leader of the House for four years or more, intends to retire from public life in the near future; and so he declined to be the candidate for party leadership in the present Congress. The Democratic caucus selected for that position Mr. John Sharp Williams, of Mississippi, who has served in Congress for about a dozen years and has fairly earned the leading position he has now been chosen to assume. Mr. Williams is descended from a long line of able public men of



HON. JOHN SHARP WILLIAMS, OF MISSISSIPPI, THE BRILLIANT NEW DEMOCRATIC LEADER OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

North Carolina, Tennessee, and Mississippi, and is himself a man of fine education and brilliant attainments. He is as much admired on the Republican as on the Democratic side of the House, and it is to be hoped that he may play an important part in helping the Democratic party to a more consistent and unified course of action than it has been able to pursue within the recent past.

Cuban Reciprocity Assured.

The immediate object of the special session of Congress was stated by President Roosevelt in a brief and effective message. The President explained the status of the Cuban reciprocity treaty and asked Congress to enact the tariff legislation necessary to give practical effect to a treaty which reduces the Dingley rates as applied to sugar and other



AN OBJECT-LESSON FOR CONGRESS.
From the Times (Minneapolis).

articles of import from Cuba. The treaty had already been ratified by the Senate, and everything depended, therefore, upon the action of the House. Mr. Payne, of New York, as chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, had prepared a bill which embodied the provisions of the treaty. Many of the Democrats were opposed to the measure in a general way, while still more would have wished to modify it in detail. There was particular objection to the provision intended to favor the American sugar-refining industry. Since a number of Republicans were not favorable to the Cuban treaty, the Democrats might have adopted the plan of endeavoring by obstructive measures to prolong the discussion, with a possible chance of modifying, if not of defeating, the bill. Mr. Williams, however, took a more statesman-like view of the subject, recognizing the just sentiment of the country in favor of a commercial arrangement with Cuba; and under his leadership the Democratic minority took the position that, while asking to be allowed to vote on an amendment or two, they would support the bill as a whole and thus make sure of this important breach in the Republican high-tariff wall. The reasoning adopted by Mr. Williams was that the Democrats must fight for revision of the tariff, and that one step would make easier the next. Thus, he favors not only Cuban reciprocity, but a trade arrangement with Canada, and others, in turn, leading up to a general overhauling of the McKinley schedules. The adoption of a special

rule excluding amendments and limiting debate fixed Thursday, November 19, as the day for final action. The bill was carried by a vote of 335 to 21. In ratifying the treaty, the Senate had committed itself to all the matters contained in the revenue bill needed to give the treaty effect. Nevertheless, the opponents of the measure in the Senate had given notice that they expected to spend considerable time in debating it. The Senate's lack of rules for the limiting of discussion is no longer viewed with tolerance by the public. Every phase of Cuban reciprocity had been debated at exhaustive length when the treaty itself was before the Senate. It was hoped and generally expected that the bill would become a law before Thanksgiving Day, although Senator Teller, of Colorado, had threatened to prevent a vote, if possible, in order to throw the subject over into the regular session of Congress, which opens on the first Monday in December.

In the results of the State elections of November 3 there were few surprises. The more important elections in most States do not occur in the odd years, and it is only in the following nine States that there were noteworthy contests this year. The following list gives in round figures the pluralities shown by the unofficial counting of the vote:

Ohio (Republican).....	115,000
Maryland (Democratic).....	12,887
Pennsylvania (Republican).....	280,471
Massachusetts (Republican).....	35,373
Iowa (Republican).....	80,508
Kentucky (Democratic).....	30,408
Rhode Island (Democratic).....	1,887
Nebraska (Republican).....	9,000
Colorado (Republican).....	10,000

These figures indicate very little average change of party strength since the elections of last year. Governor Bates was reelected in Massachusetts by almost exactly the same majority he obtained in 1902, although Dr. Garvin, the reelected Democratic governor of Rhode Island, lost a great deal of the remarkable majority given him in 1902. It is fair to assume that Rhode Island will continue to be Republican in national contests, the election of Governor Garvin being due to local issues. In local contests, and in the election of members of the Legislature, New Jersey adheres to its recently acquired Republican preferences. In so far as the municipal election in New York City, and other municipal and legislative contests throughout that State, had any party bearing, they showed no marked tendency to change of party preponderance. The contest in Maryland was one in which the Republicans had put themselves in a losing position from the outset

by bitter factional controversies and unhealed feuds among their leaders. Maryland is normally Democratic, and it is not strange that the Democratic candidate for governor should have had a plurality of nearly thirteen thousand votes. Senator Gorman was conspicuous in the Democratic canvass, and made the race question an issue through bitter appeals to prejudice and gross misrepresentation of President Roosevelt's position. The Pennsylvania election was to fill two or three State offices; but the governorship was not involved, and the only significant thing to people outside of Pennsylvania is the vastness of the Republican majority. The Ohio election was by far the most important of the State contests. The plurality of 120,000 for Mr. Myron T. Herrick over Mayor Tom L. Johnson was greater than sanguine Republicans had expected, and the Legislature which is to accord Mr. Mark Hanna a second term in the Senate is strongly Republican in both branches, whereas it had been thought that the Republican margin might be close. Governor Beckham was reelected in Kentucky by a Democratic majority of thirty thousand or more, and Governor Cummins was indorsed for another term in Iowa by a characteristic Republican majority. Nebraska and Colorado were both carried by the Republicans in spite of Mr. Bryan's influence in the one State and a bitter factional strife among the Republican leaders of the other. The elections seem to have strengthened the conservative wing of the Democratic party, and to have enhanced the influence of men like Mr. Olney, of Massachusetts, while weakening that of Democratic leaders like Mr. Johnson, of Ohio, and Mr. Bryan.



COMFORT FOR BOTH PARTIES.

BOTH: "Ah! everything BEFORE me looks encouraging for my cause in 1904."—From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



HON. MYRON T. HERRICK, OF OHIO.

(Elected to the governorship, on November 3, by a huge majority.)

In New York City.

Throughout the country, the Democrats have hailed as a party victory the election of Mr. George B. McClellan as mayor of New York. Mr. McClellan's plurality was about sixty-two thousand. It is to be remembered, however, that when Mr. Coler ran as the Democratic candidate for governor, last year, his plurality in the city of New York was about one hundred and twenty-two thousand. Everybody knows that New York City is strongly Democratic when party lines are drawn in State and national elections. If Mr. Low had been reelected mayor, the result would not have been thought to possess any party significance. Nevertheless, the Tammany campaigners kept constantly at the front the party argument, and endeavored in every possible way to create the impression that Mr. Platt and the Republican machine were the chief powers behind Mr. Low and his administration. While most of the newspapers of New York supported the Fusion ticket with energy and ability, the one paper of largest circulation among the voters supported Tammany; and with Mr. Homer Davenport's bold and powerful cartoons belittling Mr. Low and associating him constantly with Mr. Platt, this

paper, with its morning and evening editions, undoubtedly exerted a great influence. It is not to be supposed that the nomination of an independent Democrat in Mr. Low's place would have changed the result. It might have reduced McClellan's majority somewhat, but it could not have caused his defeat. Our readers may remember that we had in these pages all along taken the ground that a great victory for good government had in any case been won in New York by the very fact that the Fusion movement had been kept alive and had been able to bring the real issues squarely before the voters. That the Fusion ticket should have polled about two hundred and fifty thousand votes out of a total of a little more than six hundred thousand was significant and encouraging. The real



"TWO RESPECTABLE GENTS ON ME BOND FOR GOOD BEHAVIOR."
(Tammany presents Mr. Grout and Mr. Fornes to Father Kickerbocker).
From the *Herald* (New York).



WHERE HE STANDS.—From the *American* (New York)
(A characteristic Davenport cartoon subordinating Mayor Low to Senator Platt).

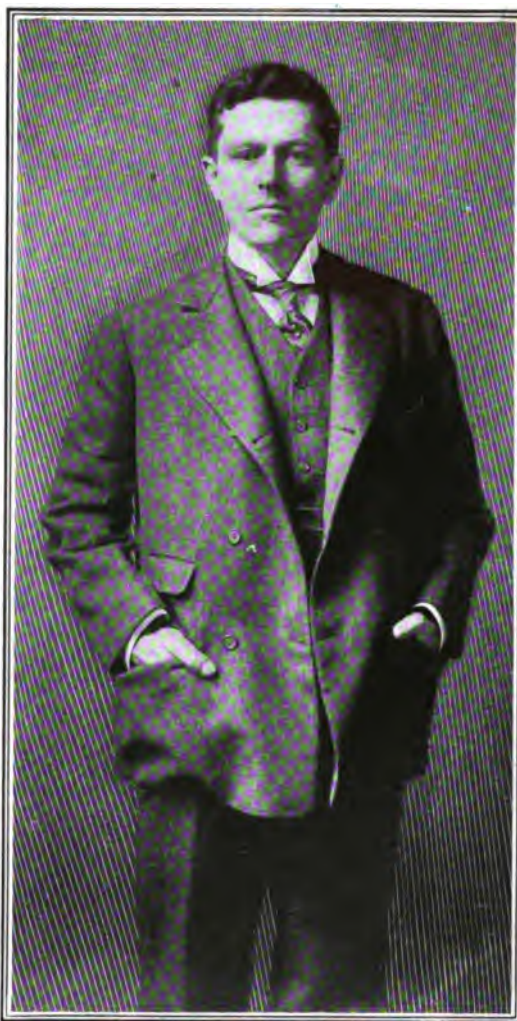
work for municipal progress is accomplished in the gradual education of the community rather than in the success at the polls of one ticket or another. Viewed in this light, New York has made great progress in the past few years, and the recent campaign period, in spite of Fusion defeat, has had a remarkable educational value.

New York's Essential Progress. In a hundred conspicuous ways, and in a thousand matters of more obscure detail, the administration of Mayor Low has brought order, efficiency, intelligence, and character into the various departments of the municipal administration. It has also trained a new set of experts and critics who will not fail to watch with close attention every act of this Tammany government that takes the reins with the beginning of the new year. With organizations like the Citizens' Union alive and at work the year around, and with the newspapers steadily upholding the cause of good local administration, Tammany will have to govern better now than in the past. In failing to secure a second Low administration, it is true, the city has suffered a great loss. Nevertheless, in having enjoyed this first Low administration, it has made gains that must to a marked extent be permanent. Since Mr. Murphy, as the head of Tammany, took a Fusion comptroller, Mr. Grout, and a Fusion president of the Board

of Aldermen, Mr. Fornes, and placed them on his ticket with Mr. McClellan, it would seem not wholly impossible that he might in one or two instances retain the services of Fusion heads of departments, as, for example, that of Dr. Lederle, head of the health department.

*Mr. McClellan
as a Political
Figure.*

It seems to be generally thought that Mr. McClellan's election as mayor will give him a considerable importance as a Democratic leader, and some people have even mentioned him as a possible candidate for the Presidency. Mr. McClellan has not as yet done anything either good or bad to give the public even the faintest impression as to his mental or moral qualities. He is the son of Gen. George B. McClellan, and was born in 1865, a few months after the end of the war, while his parents were sojourning in Germany. He was given educational advantages, and graduated at Princeton in 1886. After that he did some newspaper work and studied law, becoming a *protégé* of Mr. Richard Croker, the head of Tammany, who made him president of the Board of Aldermen in New York City for a year or two about a decade ago. He was then sent to Congress from a New York City district which always gives an overwhelming Tammany majority; and he was elected again last year for the fifth consecutive term. He figured in the special session at Washington last month, but will resign his seat this month in order to prepare for the active duties of the mayoralty at the beginning of January. During his eight years in



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HON. GEORGE B. McCLELLAN.

(Who was elected mayor of New York on November 3.)



FATHER KNICKERBOCKER COULD NOT RESIST THE TEMPTATION TO TRY THE OLD TRICK AGAIN.

From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

Congress, he has not attained prominence by reason of active or energetic public service; nor has he compelled the attention of the discerning by reason of having shown any special aptitudes or abilities. He has been looked upon as a perfectly subservient Tammany member, with the advantages of a distinguished name, good social relations, and decidedly attractive private and personal qualities. It would seem quite too much to expect that an amiable gentleman of such record as this could suddenly, at about forty years of age, show the strong convictions or the qualities of independence, energy, and moral courage that belong, for example, to District Attorney Jerome. All indications render it likely that he will be

even more completely Tammany's mayor than was Mr. Van Wyck. It may, however, be Tammany's policy to make a better class of appointments than it made in 1898. It has been the misfortune of New York, as of almost every large American city, that the work of securing general efficiency in municipal government has been mixed up with a series of distinct questions having to do with the manners, morals, and customs of the people. Yet it is true that the question of the character and enforcement of the State excise laws again played a very large part in the election of a New York City government which is to have charge of the raising and spending of more than one hundred million dollars a year for schools, police, health administration, parks, public charity, and various other departments of the city government.

The Erie Canal to Be Enlarged.

When the mere political aspects of the elections of 1903 have been long forgotten, the decision made at the polls by the voters of the State of New York on the question of enlarging the Erie Canal will stand forth as a landmark in the history of American transportation and commerce. It is a singular fact that the two most costly waterway undertakings ever projected by any government were practically assured by events occurring on the same day,—namely, November 3, 1903. On that day the revolt of Panama fixed the fate of the interoceanic canal project, upon which the people of the United States will expend, probably, more than \$200,000,000, while the voters of New York, also on that day, gave their assent to the issuing of bonds to support the decision made by the last Legislature to enlarge the Erie Canal at an estimated expense of \$101,000,000, in order that it may readily accommodate barges each carrying as much as one thousand tons of freight. The people most interested in the project are naturally those of the cities of New York and Buffalo, together with the population of the other towns and cities along the route of the canal from Lake Erie to Albany, and along the Hudson River from Albany and Troy to New York City. In most of the other parts of the State, a majority of the voters were opposed to the proposition; but the favorable majority in and about New York City reached a total of almost four hundred thousand, and the net majority in the State was well in excess of two hundred thousand.

Objects of the Enterprise.

The burdens of taxation fall so heavily upon the people of New York City that they will in the end have to pay much the greater part of the cost of the

canal, although the work will be done and the money spent in a portion of the State quite remote from the metropolis. The improvement is to be looked upon as an expenditure on the part of the commercial and manufacturing cities of New York for the maintenance and further development of their industries and commerce. The improved canal will bring to New York the raw materials of manufacture as well as the wheat and foodstuffs of the West. It will even benefit the farmers of the State of New York, at least much more than it will burden them by adding to their taxes. The reason for this may be stated in a very few words. The prosperity of agriculture in New York and other Eastern States does not lie in competing with the great West in the production of wheat and corn, or in the raising on a large scale of the country's meat-supply. Its prosperity lies, on the contrary, in its adapting itself to the varied demands of the manufacturing and urban populations for garden products, small fruits, eggs, milk, and butter, and for other special as distinguished from staple farm products. Thus, the more readily the cities of New York, and especially the great metropolis, can be supplied at low transportation rates with Western products, the greater will be the ability of the people of the cities to buy at good rates the products of the farms of the State of New York.

The Work to Begin Next Year.

The canal improvements will be carried out under the direction of the State engineer and the head of the State department of public works, assisted by an advisory board of expert engineers to be selected by the governor. It is understood that actual work will be entered upon at some time in the course of the coming year. One or more of the men named by rumor as possible members of the advisory board for the Erie Canal have in like manner been mentioned as among those whom President Roosevelt may choose for the board which is to construct the Isthmian waterway. The enormous railway betterments which have been going on throughout the country during the past two or three years are now to a great extent completed, thus throwing out of employment thousands of unskilled laborers hardened to the work of the shovel and the pick. In like manner, the underground railway system in New York City is rapidly approaching completion. It will be fortunate, therefore, if the enlargement of the Erie Canal can be entered upon promptly, in order to afford work to many of these men who might otherwise be out of employment. It is just the time for pushing such public works as this canal.

Labor and Immigration. It is to be noted that Mr. John Mitchell, in the convention of the American Federation of Labor held at Boston last month, introduced resolutions requesting Congress to restrict work on the Panama Canal to American citizens. Mr. Mitchell called attention to the fact that great numbers of men would probably be available for such employment by reason of the lessening of work on our railroads; and he further suggested that since many of these men were from Italy and other warm countries, they might be well adapted to work in the Panama climate. However that may be, it is a fortunate thing that we shall have had the experience of the old and new French Panama companies for warning and guidance. In the earlier years of the work at Panama, men died by the hundreds from bad conditions which medical and sanitary precautions have already largely removed and can cause to disappear almost entirely. The lessened demand for common labor observed in many parts of the country has directed attention again to the evils and dangers of unrestricted immigration. Figures now available for the last fiscal year show an increase of steerage immigrants of 32 per cent., or more than two hundred thousand people, as compared with the previous year. Nearly a quarter of a million people have come in this last fiscal year from Italy alone. The commissioner of immigration, Mr. Sargent, in his annual report, urges legislation for the better restriction of the ignorant and relatively undesirable classes of new-comers. The subject is bound to have its share of attention in the press of the country, and in Congress, also, during the coming winter, although there is little reason to believe that legislation in the line of Senator Lodge's views could be enacted in the year before a Presidential election.

Immigration and Citizenship. Mr. Lodge has again brought forward his favorite measure, which is in the form of a bill to exclude immigrants above the age of fifteen who cannot read and write. The test he proposes to make is with extracts from the Constitution of the United States, exemption being provided for the wives and children of immigrants already settled here. It was substantially this proposition that passed the House in 1896 and the Senate in 1897 (the year following a Presidential election) but was vetoed by President Cleveland. The House passed the bill by the requisite two-thirds majority over Mr. Cleveland's veto, but it did not command a similar support in the Senate. It might be interesting to apply to the statistics of immigration for the past half-dozen years the query what

would have been the result if Mr. Cleveland had not vetoed the restriction bill, or if the Senate had voted to pass it over his head. The steamship companies, which have been almost wholly responsible for the drumming up and dumping here of undesirable immigration, would not have made so much money. We should have had a large movement to our shores, but the immigrants would have been of much higher average quality. If immigration laws are not to be radically changed, there ought at least to be no hesitation in changing the naturalization laws in two particulars,—first, the period of residence ought to be extended in all cases to at least ten years before the new citizen should be allowed to vote; second, every applicant for final naturalization papers should be compelled to show positive qualifications for the exercise of the franchise. It is one thing to allow ignorant foreign laborers to come here and work; it is quite a different thing to give them the ballot.

Again the Statehood Issue. In spite of the long contest in the Senate which ended last spring in the defeat of the project to force Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma into the Union as full-fledged States, the Statehood promoters came forward promptly with their bills at the beginning of the special session last month. The reasons why Oklahoma should not be admitted without a provision for its reunion with the fragments that remain of the old Indian Territory are absolutely conclusive to all disinterested minds. Whenever such union can be brought about, Oklahoma may well be admitted. A little delay, however, will do no harm to any legitimate interests. As for Arizona and New Mexico, neither has nearly attained the maturity of development that would entitle it to admission as a State; and the only possible basis upon which admission could be properly granted is that of the union of the two. The mistakes of the past in the admission of crude territories render it the more necessary that the future creation of States should be well considered, free from temporary exigencies of partisanship, and above all, free from the scandalous taint of private interests.

Some Lessons of Experience. The great national protest against the seating of Mr. Smoot, the Mormon apostle Senator from Utah, is evidence of a widespread feeling that the latest admission of a new State was wholly unwise. The decline of Nevada,—which has now less population than that of an ordinary county in one of the well-developed States, yet sends its two members to the United States Senate,—

affords another warning and example. The extraordinary conditions of government and judicial procedure that exist in Montana, where copper kings hold sway, and where popular self-government seems to have become the merest farce, make it plain enough to clear-minded people that all legitimate interests would have been much better safeguarded for years to come, in that region of rich mining camps, if the executive and judicial authority of the United States had continued to hold sway under the territorial form of government. Idaho and Wyoming have afforded, in their own way, illustrations of the same fact that a continuance of the territorial form of government for some years longer would have been better on all accounts than their admission to the Union.

"Patronage and the Spoils of Office." The postal investigations are extending from the conditions of the general service to the organization of particular post-offices like that of New York City. Wholly sporadic and unrelated to these systematic investigations are the charges brought against Senator Dietrich, of Nebraska, who is under indictment for having sold his influence in getting a postmaster appointed for the city of Hastings, in his State, and against whom there were current, last month, rumors of similar misconduct in connection with other offices. It is to be hoped, for the credit of American public life, that Senator Dietrich, who protests his innocence, may be able to clear himself both of the legal charges against him and also of all moral suspicion of wrongdoing. It may indeed be a long step, on the part of a Senator, from distributing post-offices in return for political support to their sale for cash; but from the standpoint of the man who seeks the job it is not always easy to make sure whether he is paying the required money into the campaign funds of his party or into the private pocket of some boss or person of superior influence who can give the office or withhold it at pleasure. The plain fact is that Senatorial and Congressional patronage is a very bad business. The function of aiding and advising the Executive in the filling of postmasterships and other federal offices does, indeed, properly belong to the Senators and Representatives from the States and districts affected; but to transform this function of giving advice into a theory of patronage under which Senators and Congressmen own the offices and distribute them for their own personal benefit is nothing short of a degradation and a shame. Improvement can come about through no change of the law or of the mechanism of government. It can only result

from gradually improved standards of honor and rectitude in public life. And these, in turn, can come about only with the growth of intelligence and right-mindedness among the citizens of the country, and the lessening of that kind of party spirit which has been invoked in the past as an excuse for bad methods and a shield for political rascality.

*Benign
Porto Rico.*

Much interesting information has been coming from Porto Rico of late regarding the development and hopeful prospects of the island, particularly as regards its agriculture. Its officials are anxious to improve the market conditions for its coffee, and have been urging upon the Government at Washington the desirability of special reciprocity arrangements to be negotiated on behalf of Porto Rico with France and some other countries, in order that the coffee crop may have advantageous sale. In so far as Porto Rico is capable of raising sugar, it has a rare advantage, because all its crop is admitted to the United States entirely free of duty, whereas other West Indian sugar must pay full Dingley rates, and Cuban sugar under reciprocity will have a rebate of only 20 per cent. from the present charges. The best solution of the problem how to sell Porto Rican coffee as against the cheaper grades from South America lies in its careful and systematic advertising in this country. In the long run, it is from orange culture that the Porto Ricans expect their best returns. Governor Hunt's annual report, made public last month, declares that the people of Porto Rico are now very loyal indeed to the United States, that their trade is growing rapidly, and that the system of civil government is a demonstrated success.

*Contented
Hawaii.*

Hawaii, our island *protégé* in the Pacific, has a new governor in the person of the Hon. George R. Carter. Gov. Sanford B. Dole, so long and ably identified with the affairs of Hawaii under successive *régimes*, has been transferred by President Roosevelt to the important office of federal judge. Under the old monarchy, Mr. Dole was the chief justice of the Supreme Court, and he left the bench to take charge of the provisional government, and served as president of the temporary Hawaiian republic. Mr. Carter, the new governor, is the son of the well-known Henry A. P. Carter, who was so long Hawaiian minister at Washington in the old days. Governor Carter is a young man, having been born in 1866. His early education was in Hawaii, but his college course was at Yale, where he graduated in 1888. He was a football man and an all-around

athlete in his college period. For a number of years past he has been very active in Hawaiian politics and in large business affairs. Governor Dole's annual report, extracts of which were published in the newspapers last month, contains many interesting observations. The white population shows a tendency to relative decline, and there is much intermarriage of the native Hawaiians with members of the various other races living in the islands. There is an increase in the production and export of sugar, while the coffee and rice crops hold their own fairly well.

Philippine Progress.

We publish in this number two contributed articles concerning the advancement of the Philippine Islands under American auspices. One is by Dr. Wilson, of Philadelphia, and relates especially to the interesting Philippine exhibition that will be made at the St. Louis fair next year. The other has to do with progress among the Moros of the Philippine archipelago, these being semi-independent Mohammedan tribes, in dealing with whom our government has been obliged to use a policy distinct from that employed among the Spanish-speaking inhabitants of Luzon and the neighboring islands. It is expected that before Governor Taft leaves Manila, on December 23, to enter President Roosevelt's cabinet as Secretary of War, he will have succeeded in finally settling the question of the friars' lands, which for months past he has been discussing with the Papal delegate. We have now about eighteen thousand effective troops at seventy different points in the Philippines, and General Allen, head of the constabulary service, advises against a further reduction. It is reported that the much-needed railway system of Luzon may be built upon a financial plan which includes a guarantee of interest on the bonds by the insular government. The new monetary system is gradually becoming established, and business conditions are more stable in consequence. It is strongly felt by those mindful of Philippine interests that Congress ought to make further very sweeping reductions in the tariff rates upon Philippine imports into this country. The details are now known of the new system of Philippine land laws, which has been worked out after careful consideration. It includes, among many other features, a plan analogous to the homestead laws of this country, under which Philippine citizens taking and faithfully observing the oath of loyalty to the United States may occupy a tract of public land of about forty acres in extent and receive full title thereto at the end of seven years. The honest and intelligent work that goes on steadily under the direction of the Philippine civil government for

the advancement of the islands is certain to show with telling effect in the near future.

Optimistic Cuba.

While waiting for reciprocity with the United States, Cuba has been steadily recuperating under the wise and patriotic guidance of President Estrada Palma, toward whom every one manifests respect and esteem. His administration, in its efficiency, economy, and honesty, is in sharp contrast with what the people of Cuba had to endure under the old Spanish *régime*. President Palma's budgetary estimates submitted to the Cuban Congress last month show an income of nearly \$19,000,000, and expenditures of about \$18,000,000. The balance of trade has turned greatly in Cuba's favor, the exports of the past year being much larger than the imports. The projected loan of \$35,000,000 has not yet been secured, simply because the New York money market desires the Cuban Government to alter the nature of the security offered. Such suggestions will probably be met at Havana, and then Cuba should be able to borrow very advantageously. In pursuance of the understanding about coaling stations, the United States last month came into actual possession of the promised facilities at Guantanamo. Thus, we have got our coaling and naval stations sooner than Cuba has been granted her promised reciprocity. *Dun's Review* for November took the form of a special Cuban number, in which appeared articles from various Cuban and American gentlemen doing business in Havana, and it is noteworthy that all of these writers were exceedingly optimistic regarding the prospects for Cuba's future. Within ten years, unless all indications fail, a marvelous transformation will have been accomplished in the island as a direct outcome of American intervention.

San Domingo's Dreadful Plight.

With Porto Rico and Hawaii happy and contented by reason of annexation to the United States; with the Philippines fairly entered upon a career of stability and progress through the excellence of American administration; with Cuba restored and hopeful by virtue of the good offices of Uncle Sam; and with Panama jubilant to a man because the latest policy of the United States insures its permanent peace and prosperity,—it is not strange that certain less fortunate regions should look with some longing toward Washington, and should begin to entertain the wish that Uncle Sam would stretch out his strong arm to save them from themselves. Some of the people of the republic of San Domingo in particular are now in such a frame of

mind. The internecine strife among the Dominicans last month was even more violent than the average of the frequent revolutions that beset their half of the beautiful island of Hayti. The United States cruiser *Baltimore* had to land troops to protect American interests, and the leaders of one of the parties in the struggle for supremacy actually made informal overtures for annexation by the United States. This suggestion, even if it had come in a formal way, would not have been encouraged at Washington. None the less, it is a thousand pities that a region so fair and so rich by nature as San Domingo should be given over to anarchy, and should sink steadily from a state of comparative civilization toward one of sheer savagery.

Further Trouble for Colombia. Soon after the successful revolt of Panama, it was reported that two other states or departments of the republic of Colombia were also about to secede, and news later in the month seemed to strengthen the probability that Colombia, far from being in a position to make any demonstration against Panama, would have her hands more than full in trying to keep the rest of her territory intact. Cauca is much the largest of the eight divisions that remain of Colombia. It has an area of 257,462 square miles, while the whole of Colombia (excluding Panama's 31,571 square miles) has an area of 473,202 square miles. Antioquia, the other disaffected province, has 22,316 square miles. Thus, if these provinces should follow Panama, Colombia would have lost two-thirds of its territory. The great department of Cauca adjoins Panama at the north, then sweeps down the Pacific coast as far as Ecuador, and thence extends inland, comprising the whole southern half of Colombia. Antioquia is a small but important division lying inland from the sea, adjacent to the north end of Cauca, and not very distant either from the Caribbean Sea or the Pacific Ocean. Cauca is credited with about seven hundred thousand people, while Antioquia, according to current authorities, has nearly eight hundred thousand. It was predicted last month that these two departments would seek to be admitted to the new republic of Panama. It was also thought probable that the state of Bolivar, which is about equal in area to Antioquia, and which lies upon the Caribbean Sea, would seek to get rid of its connection with the intolerable government centralized at Bogota. It is, however, doubtful whether it would be a wise thing for the republic of Panama to unite with the adjacent parts of Colombia in forming a new republic. Geographically, Panama is neither a part of North America nor yet of South Amer-

ica, but is a connecting link between them. We have long maintained that there were sound reasons why Panama should be detached, freed from all future connection with wars and revolutions, whether in South American or in Central American states, and brought under the peaceful protection of the United States for its own welfare and for the good of all.

Matters in South America.

It was constantly asserted last month by those American newspapers which were hostile to the new turn of affairs at Panama that the course taken by the United States would arouse the bitter enmity of all the republics of South America. These assertions had neither evidence nor logic to justify them. South America will gain so much from the canal that it will assuredly be glad, in due time, to welcome the new republic of Panama, and it will have an enhanced respect for the efficiency of the Government at Washington, while having neither more nor less affection for the "Yankees" than it has heretofore entertained. Meanwhile, most of the republics of South America have of late had preoccupations and troubles of their own. Chile, which is traditionally unfriendly to the United States, has been going through a period of cabinet reorganization and intense political and economic discussion at home. It is also concerned with the settlement of the Peruvian and Bolivian boundary questions. As for the Bolivians, they, too, have been passing through a political crisis, and have just emerged with a complete new cabinet. They have furthermore been much more concerned about the demise of the so-called "republic of Acre" than about the creation of the new republic of Panama.

The Acre Dispute Settled.

The Acre question seems now to have been settled. This important rubber-producing territory had been gradually invaded by the Brazilians as they had advanced up the tributaries of the Amazon in the process of tapping the rubber trees along the shores. Thereupon Bolivia had asserted its claim upon the territory, and the rubber-gatherers, in default of any help from Brazil, had declared their independence and set up the republic of Acre. War between Brazil and Bolivia was averted by a sensible plan of negotiation, with an agreement to arbitrate in the last resort. Last month a treaty was signed under which Bolivia agrees to relinquish title to the territory on payment by Brazil of several million dollars indemnity, with an arrangement by which Peruvian commerce may pass freely up and down the Madeira and other Amazonian tributaries.

Venezuela at The Hague. Venezuela, more than any other South American republic, will be concerned and affected by the prospective break-up of Colombia. Between the present governments of the two countries there is the deepest antipathy. The Venezuelan Government gave active aid to the long-continued struggle of the Colombian Liberals to overthrow Marroquin and the Conservatives, and since the crushing out of the rebellion, last year, there has been a great deal of danger of war between the two countries. Venezuela would be quite ready to absorb the Magdalena part of Colombia by way of compensation for Venezuelan territory absorbed by England in the expansion of British Guiana. It is at The Hague, however, that Venezuela has been most frequently mentioned in recent weeks. The proceedings before the Hague tribunal in the Venezuelan case ended on November 13. The point at issue was whether or not England, Germany, and Italy had a right to have their claims against Venezuela paid off before other claimant powers could get their money. The argument for preference was, in a word, that Venezuela's final agreement to pay at all was due to the allies' show of force. It seems to us that the counter-argument of the United States and the other peace powers was conclusive; but it will be several weeks before we shall have the decision of the tribunal, of which M. Muravieff was the president.

The Shrunk Claims. It is to be clearly remembered that the matter at issue at The Hague was not the adjustment of claims, but only the order in which those claims should be paid. The claims themselves have been adjusted by the mixed commissions sitting at Caracas, the umpires being appointed by the President of the United States. Those mixed commissions have largely finished their work. As a result, the claims have been greatly scaled down. The amounts awarded to English and German citizens are a mere pittance as compared with the cost of their expedition against Venezuela. Thus, Germany has been awarded \$384,000, as against claims of \$1,200,000. Apart from certain claims for damages in connection with railway matters which were still under consideration, the English claims had been whittled down to \$120,000. The United States and France have each been allowed something more than half a million dollars. The sturdy resistance of President

Castro and the so-called "shirt-sleeves" diplomacy of Mr. Bowen have thus saved Venezuela a great many millions of dollars of unjust foreign claims which European powers were attempting to collect by force. The real arbitration in this instance is that performed by the mixed commissions at Caracas rather than that carried on in the more impressive and spectacular way at The Hague. Nevertheless, the reference of points involving international law to the Hague tribunal forms a precedent of tremendous value, and the settlement of the Venezuela episode is in all its bearings to be regarded as one of the most auspicious events of the year 1903.

Old-World Affairs. The English press, last month, was quite taken up with the visit of the King and Queen of Italy, just as the French press in October had been with the visit of their Italian royal highnesses to President Loubet. These and other recent official visits have had important political and international objects. They are meant to mark the growth of improved relations among the powers of western Europe. France and Italy have settled their old disagreements, and both are on the most cordial terms with England. Yet the dual and triple alliances are still maintained for certain definite purposes, even though Russia and Austria are coöperating with a perfect understanding in trying to force Macedonian reforms upon Turkey, and the Czar and the Kaiser were exchanging friendly calls at Wiesbaden early in November. Later in the month, the Kaiser submitted to an operation for the removal of a polypus from his larynx, with much subsequent discussion in the newspapers as to the gravity of the ailment. There has been little of a history-making character in last month's European news, though every country has had its own current topics of eager controversy and discussion. The great tariff debate has gone steadily on in England, with Chamberlain by far the most prominent figure, and with no acknowledged leader of the Liberal forces yet in sight. The arrival of winter makes it sufficiently certain that there will be no immediate outbreak of hostilities between Russia and Japan. The Russians meanwhile are as firmly in possession of Manchuria as of Moscow and St. Petersburg, and have gone into winter quarters in the far East with well-distributed bodies of troops that have been constantly reënforced during recent weeks.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From October 21 to November 20, 1903.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

November 9.—The Fifty-eighth Congress meets in special session....In the House, Representative Joseph G. Cannon, of Illinois, is elected Speaker (see page 678).

November 10.—Both branches receive President Roosevelt's message on Cuban reciprocity.

November 12.—In the Senate, the eligibility of Mr. Smoot, of Utah, is discussed....In the House, Mr. Payne (Rep., N. Y.) introduces a bill to put the reciprocity treaty with Cuba into effect; Speaker Cannon appoints the Ways and Means Committee.

November 13.—In the House, the Ways and Means Committee reports favorably on the Cuban reciprocity bill.

November 16.—The Senate, in executive session, confirms many nominations....The House begins consideration of the Cuban reciprocity bill.

November 17.—In the House, Mr. Stevens (Rep., Minn.) opposes the Cuban reciprocity bill, while Mr. McClellan (Dem., N. Y.) supports the measure.

November 18.—In the House, Mr. Grosvenor (Rep., Ohio) makes the principal speech in defense of the Cuban reciprocity bill.

November 19.—The House passes the Cuban reciprocity bill by a vote of 335 to 21.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT.—AMERICAN.

October 26.—Postmaster-General Payne orders an investigation of the New York City post-office....The United States Supreme Court decides that State canals are under the jurisdiction of the federal courts.

October 31.—President Roosevelt appoints Gov. Sanford B. Dole United States District Judge for Hawaii, and George R. Carter, now secretary of the Territory, to succeed Mr. Dole as governor.

November 3.—Elections are held in thirteen States; in Iowa, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, and Rhode Island, the legislatures chosen are Republican; in Kentucky, Maryland, Mississippi, and Virginia, Democratic; Iowa, Massachusetts, and Ohio elect Republican governors; Kentucky, Maryland, Mississippi, and Rhode Island elect Democratic governors; in Colorado, Nebraska, and Pennsylvania, the Republican candidates for judicial and other State offices are successful; in New York City, George B. McClellan, the Tammany candidate for mayor, is elected over Seth Low, the "Fusion" candidate, by a plurality of over



GOVERNOR-ELECT EDWIN WARFIELD, OF MARYLAND.



MR. JOSEPH PULITZER.

(Founder of the School of Journalism, Columbia University. — see page 735.)

60,000; the other Tammany candidates for city offices are also successful, and a majority of the Board of Aldermen is secured by the same party.

Following are the names of the governors-elect:

Iowa.....	Albert B. Cummins (Rep.).*
Kentucky.....	J. C. W. Beckham (Dem.).*
Maryland.....	Edwin Warfield (Dem.).
Massachusetts.....	John L. Bates (Rep.).*
Mississippi.....	J. K. Vardaman (Dem.).
Ohio.....	Myron T. Herrick (Rep.).
Rhode Island.....	Lucius F. C. Garvin (Dem.).*

*Reflected.

November 16.—United States Senator Dietrich, of Nebraska, and Postmaster Jacob Fisher, of Hastings, Neb., are indicted by the federal grand jury at Omaha on a charge of bribery and conspiracy in connection with the appointment of Fisher.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT.—FOREIGN.

October 21.—The Italian and Norwegian ministries resign.

October 22.—The Australian Federal Parliament is prorogued.

October 23.—A new ministry is formed in Chile under the leadership of Don Arturo Besa.

October 31.—The Hungarian cabinet formed by M. Tisza is approved by Emperor Francis Joseph.

November 1.—In the Servian elections the government is sustained by an overwhelming vote.

November 3.—A new Italian cabinet is announced.

November 8.—In the Spanish municipal elections the Republicans are victorious in Barcelona, Valencia, Saragossa, Seville, and the principal towns of Catalonia.

November 12.—Premier Combes announces the introduction of a bill in the French Chamber to restrict still further the powers of the religious orders.

November 13.—The French Chamber of Deputies votes to appoint a committee to investigate alleged political corruption in connection with the Humbert case.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

October 22.—The Austrian and Russian ambassadors at Constantinople present to the Sultan their precise instructions for the execution of reforms in the Balkans under the control and surveillance of the powers.

October 24.—It is announced that Sir Henry Durand, British ambassador to Spain, has been selected to suc-



Photo by Scherer.

SENOR M. AMADOR.

(Member of the Panama Treaty Commission.)



SIR H. M. DURAND.

(New British ambassador to the United States.)

ceed the late Sir Michael Herbert as ambassador to the United States.

October 28.—The United States cruiser *Baltimore* is ordered to San Domingo to protect American interests.

November 1.—As a result of Russia's reoccupation of Mukden, China appeals to friendly foreign legations for aid.

November 3.—Panama's independence of Colombia is proclaimed; government officials are seized and imprisoned.

November 4.—Pending the adoption of a constitution, the insurgent government of Panama is placed in the hands of a junta composed of Jose Augustin Arango, Frederico Boyd, and Tomas Arias; a provisional cabinet is reported; the United States authorities forbid the transportation of troops of either of the combatants on the Panama Railroad.

November 5.—The Colombian troops sail from Colon for Cartagena.

November 6.—The United States Government formally recognizes and enters into relations with the new republic of Panama.

November 9.—The provisional government of Panama appoints a commission to negotiate a canal treaty with the United States.

November 10.—The new republic of Panama is recognized by France.

November 13.—M. Bunau-Varilla is formally received at Washington as the minister of the new republic of Panama to the United States (see page 677).

November 16.—A formal protest from Colombia against the action of the United States in regard to Panama is received at Washington.

November 18.—An Isthmian canal treaty is signed at Washington by Secretary Hay and M. Bunau-Varilla, the minister of the republic of Panama.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

October 22.—Dan Patch paces a mile in 1:56½ at Memphis, Tenn.

HON. H. A. GUDGER.
(United States consul-general at Panama.)



October 23.—It is announced that Professor Finsen has been selected to receive the Nobel prize in the medical section, while the literary prize will be divided between Henrik Ibsen and Björnstjerne Björnson.... On the Marienfeld-Zössen electric line, in Germany, a speed of over 130 miles an hour is reached.

October 24.—Lou Dillon trots a mile at Memphis in 1:58½, breaking the world's record.

October 26.—In the wreck of a French bark near Brest thirty-six lives are lost.

October 27.—A congress of non-Socialist Democratic German workingmen is held at Frankfort.

October 29.—In riots at Paris over the municipal employment bureaus many policemen and rioters are wounded.

October 30.—A National Employers' Association is formed at Chicago, delegates being present from fifty-seven cities.

October 31.—The miners' strike at Bilbao, Spain, is settled on terms formulated by the government, the chief points in the compromise being weekly payment of wages, abolition of the truck system, and the appointment of a sanitary commission to inspect miners' lodgings and food.... Unusual magnetic disturbances take place in France, Switzerland, and the British Isles.... Sixteen Purdue University students are killed in a train wreck at Indianapolis, and many others are injured.... Lord Goschen is elected Chancellor of the University of Oxford.

November 1.—A serious fire occurs in the Vatican at Rome, threatening the library.

November 2.—The *Daily Mirror*, the first daily newspaper to be published in England addressed especially to women, makes its appearance in London.

November 8.—Twelve new cases of yellow fever are reported at Laredo, Texas, making a total of 723 cases, including 66 deaths.

November 12.—An airship designed by the Lebaudy brothers reaches an average speed of $27\frac{1}{4}$ miles an hour over a course of forty-six miles.... Three thousand Chicago street-railway employees go on strike, seriously crippling many important lines.

November 14.—Twenty-five thousand cotton operatives in Rhode Island are affected by a 10 per cent. reduction in wages.

OBITUARY.

October 21.—Samuel E. Morss, editor and proprietor of the *Indianapolis Sentinel*, 51.... Isaac Reingold, known as "the poet of the Ghetto," 30.

October 22.—William E. H. Lecky, the English historian, 65.

October 23.—Gustav von Moser, the German comic poet, 78.... Francis Ellingwood Abbot, the Cambridge (Mass.) philosopher and author, 67.... Chief Judge Charles T. Saxton, of the New York Court of Claims, 57.

October 24.—Robert Wilcox, the first man of the Hawaiian race to occupy a seat as delegate in the American Congress, 48.

October 25.—Dr. Robert H. Thurston, director of the Sibley College of Engineering of Cornell University, 64.

October 26.—Maurice Rollinat, the French poet, 50.

October 27.—United States District Judge Morris M.

Estee, of Honolulu, 70.... Sir Herbert Stanley Oakeley, the British organist and composer, 73.... Felix de Joncieres, the French composer and critic, 64.

October 28.—Ex-Congressman John E. Russell, of Massachusetts, 70.... Mrs. Emma Booth-Tucker, Consul in America of the Salvation Army, 44.

October 30.—George T. Hoagland, a wealthy Missouri philanthropist, 90.

November 1.—Prof. Theodor Mommsen, the German historian, 86.

November 6.—Franklin Smith, of Rochester, N. Y., journalist and writer on sociological questions, 50.

November 7.—William L. Elkins, the Philadelphia street-railroad magnate and financier, 71.

November 9.—Baron Rowton, chairman of



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THE LATE MRS. BOOTH-TUCKER.

a London company formed to provide cheap lodging-houses and hotels, 65.

November 10.—Rear-Admiral Lester A. Beardslee, U.S.N., retired, 67.

November 13.—Andrew H. Green, the "Father of the Greater New York," 83.

November 16.—James Roberts Gilmore ("Edmund Kirke"), American author, 80.... Dr. George J. Engelmann, a well-known American gynecologist, 55.

November 17.—Edwin Lord Weeks, the American artist, explorer, and author, 54.

November 18.—Mrs. Harriet Maxwell Converse, known to American Indians as chief of the Six Nations.

November 19.—Dr.



THE LATE W. E. H. LECKY.

Henry Carrington Bolton, a well-known chemist, 60.... Henry Seton Merriman (Hugh Stowell Scott), the British novelist.

November 20.—Ex-Gov. Francis M. Drake, of Iowa, 73.



SOME AMERICAN CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.

THE dramatic course of events which resulted, last month, in the creation of a new republic, and in definite plans for a speedy completion of the Panama Canal, naturally overshadowed all other public events, and lent itself peculiarly to the purposes of the cartoonists of the public press. Hundreds of such cartoons were published, and we have reproduced a few of them herewith. The New York and Ohio elections, the Alaska boundary award, the Chamberlain tariff proposals, and the Russian position in Manchuria are among the other chief topics of the month as recognized by the cartoonists.



TO SPITE HIS OWN FACE.—From the *World* (New York).



HIS THANKSGIVING BIRD.

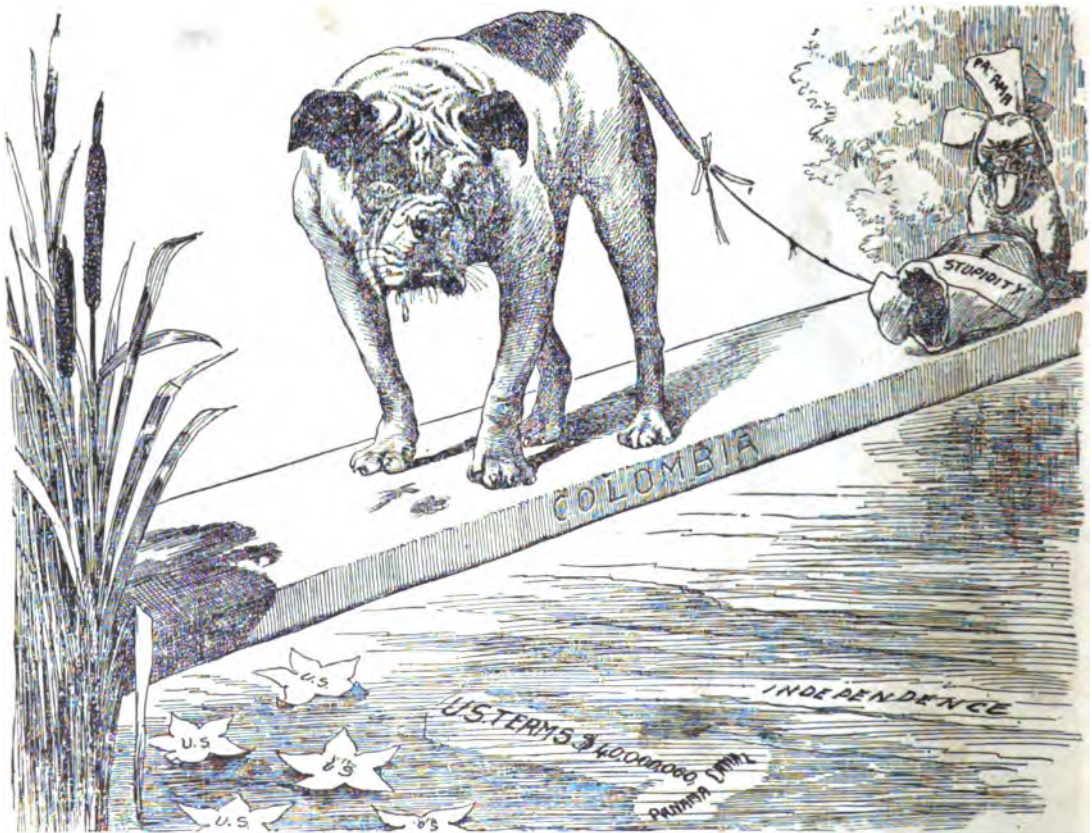
UNCLE SAM: "Luck's no name for it. I didn't jest know how I was a-goin' to give it that canal cut in the neck till I 'found' this here sword."—From the *World* (Toronto).



THE NEW CANAL-DIGGING MACHINE.
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



THE MAN BEHIND THE EGG.—From the *Times* (New York).



THE DOG AND THE SHADOW.

A Bogota dog, while crossing a stream with a fine bone in his mouth, saw reflected in the stream what appeared an infinitely finer and larger bonus than the one he carried, and could not forbear catching at it; but far from getting anything by his greediness, he dropped the bone he had, which immediately sank and was irrevocably lost.

MORAL: He who catches at more than belongs to him deserves to lose what he has.—From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



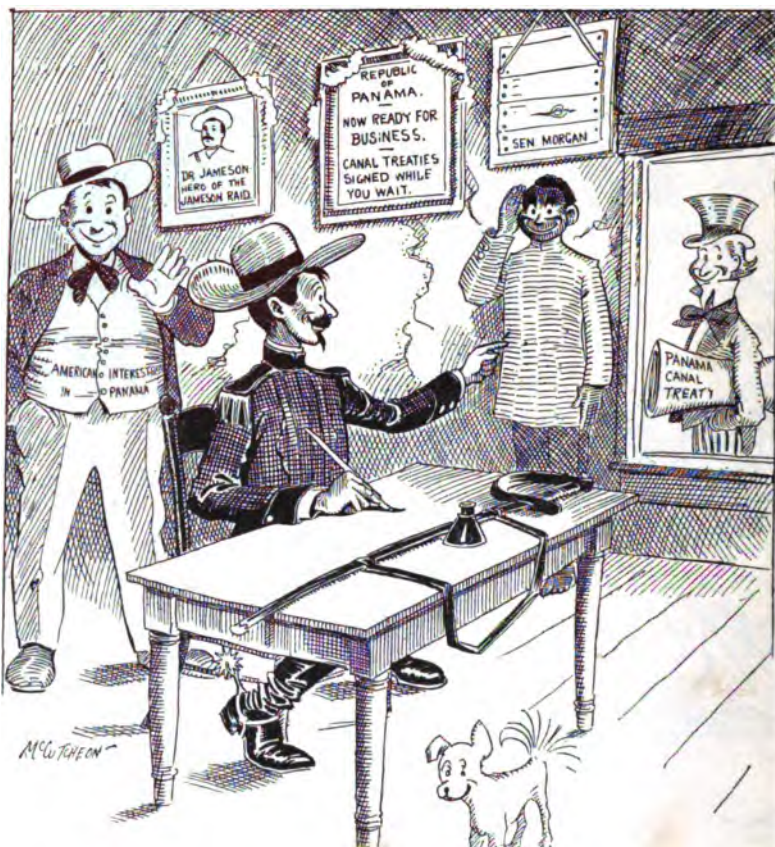
THE NEWS REACHES BOGOTA.—From the *Herald* (New York).



THE ONLY WARRIOR LEFT ON THE ISTHMUS.
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



IT MAY BE EASY.
Uncle Sam's next task will be to break the new colt.
From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



THE NEW GOVERNOR OF PANAMA.

"Say, boy, see if there's anybody out there that wants a treaty signed."—From the *Daily Tribune* (Chicago).



JOHN BULL: "Yes, 'e's makin' a lot of noise, Sam, but 'e'll get over it."—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



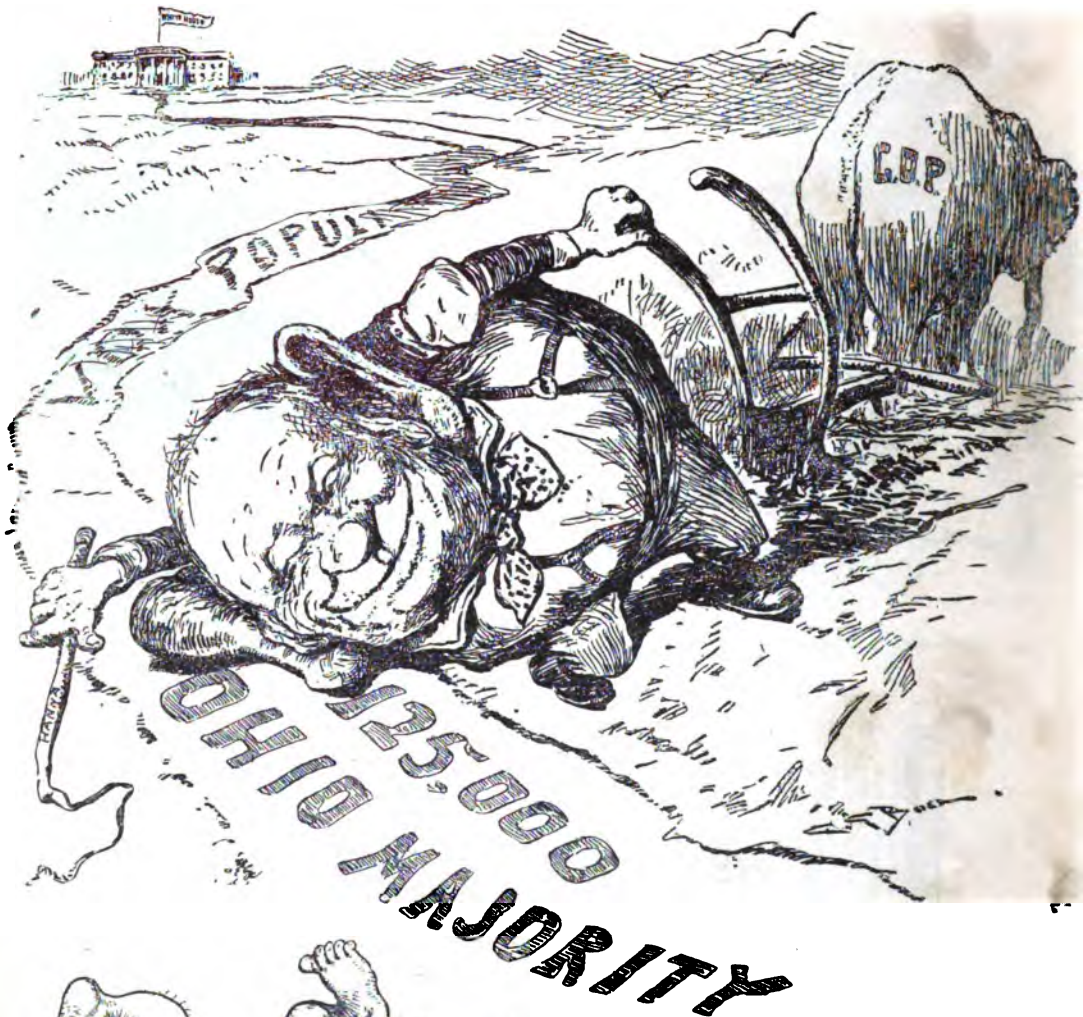
IN NEW YORK.—From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



DEFEAT.—From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



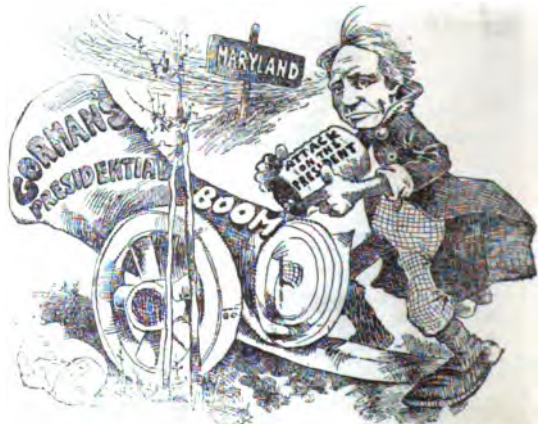
THE FIRST SQUARE MEAL IN TWO YEARS.—From the *Herald* (New York).



CINCINNATUS HANNA (at the plow, hears his country call and exclaims):
 "What! me?"—From the *World* (New York).



PROVIDED WITH A LIFE-PRESERVER, UNCLE MARK GOES IN
 AGAIN.—From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



MR. GORMAN IS USING THE WRONG KIND OF POWDER.
 From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



CONSOLATION.

Miss COLUMBIA (to Canada): "Never mind, dear, you will get that territory back when you become a member of my family."—From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

The Alaska decision has resulted in a widespread discussion concerning the future of Canada. In the Dominion, politicians and newspapers have, as a rule, protested their unshaken loyalty to the empire, but have also insisted that Canada should have the right to make treaties, and should be neutral in British wars. The *Pioneer Press*, on this page, has an amusing cartoon

STAGE-STRUCK.—From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).

representing Canada as a would-be young actress, hesitating, stage-struck, at the door of the Theater of Independent Nations. Mr. Carnegie very shrewdly advises the Canadians to annex the United States,—an arrangement that would undoubtedly be for the greatest advantage of everybody concerned.



MOTHER ENGLAND: "Come, Johnny, take your medicine like a man; everybody is laughing at you, and Sammy is whistling for you to come out and play."

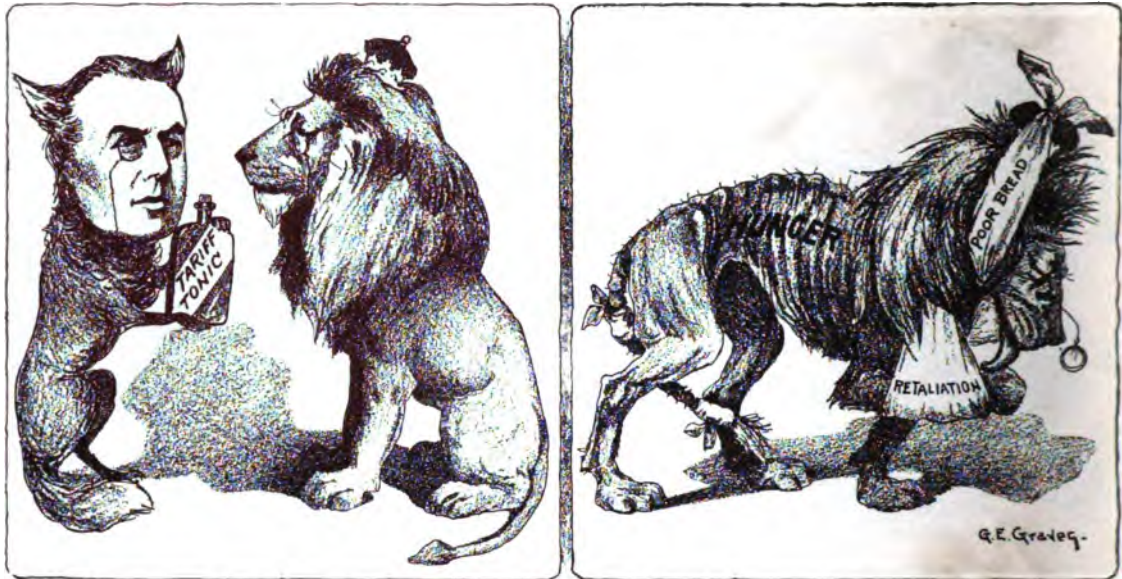
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth).



THE BEAR'S SOLILOQUY.

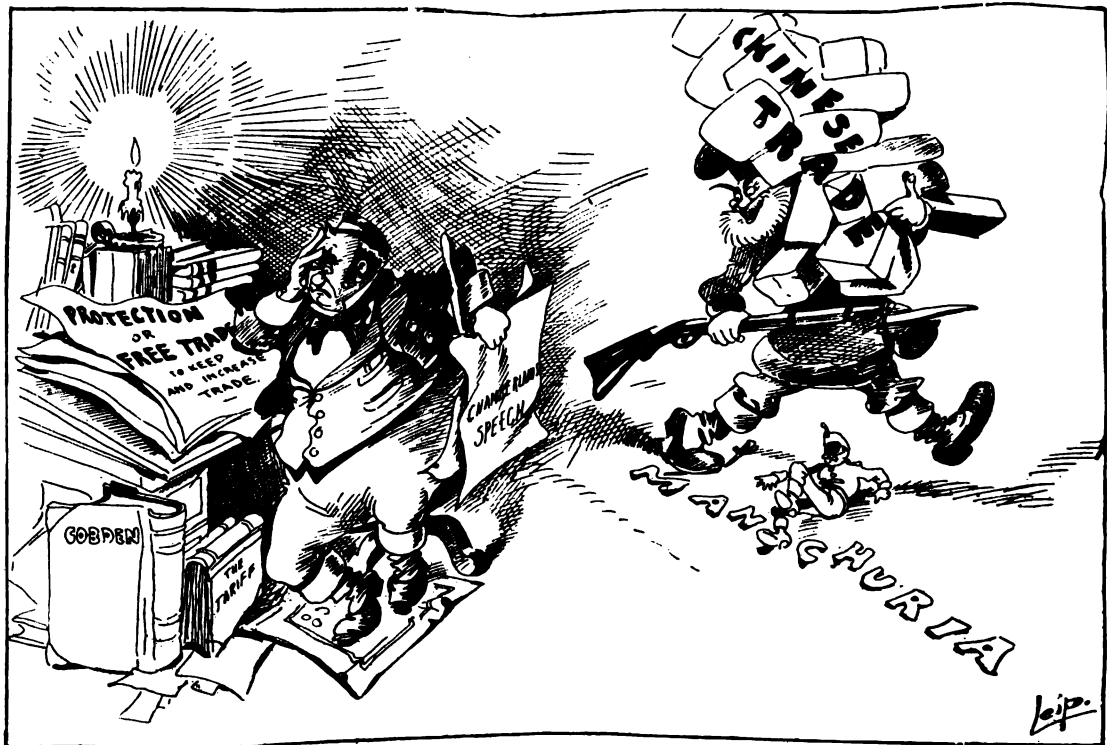
"I ought to be able to hibernate in this without being disturbed."

From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

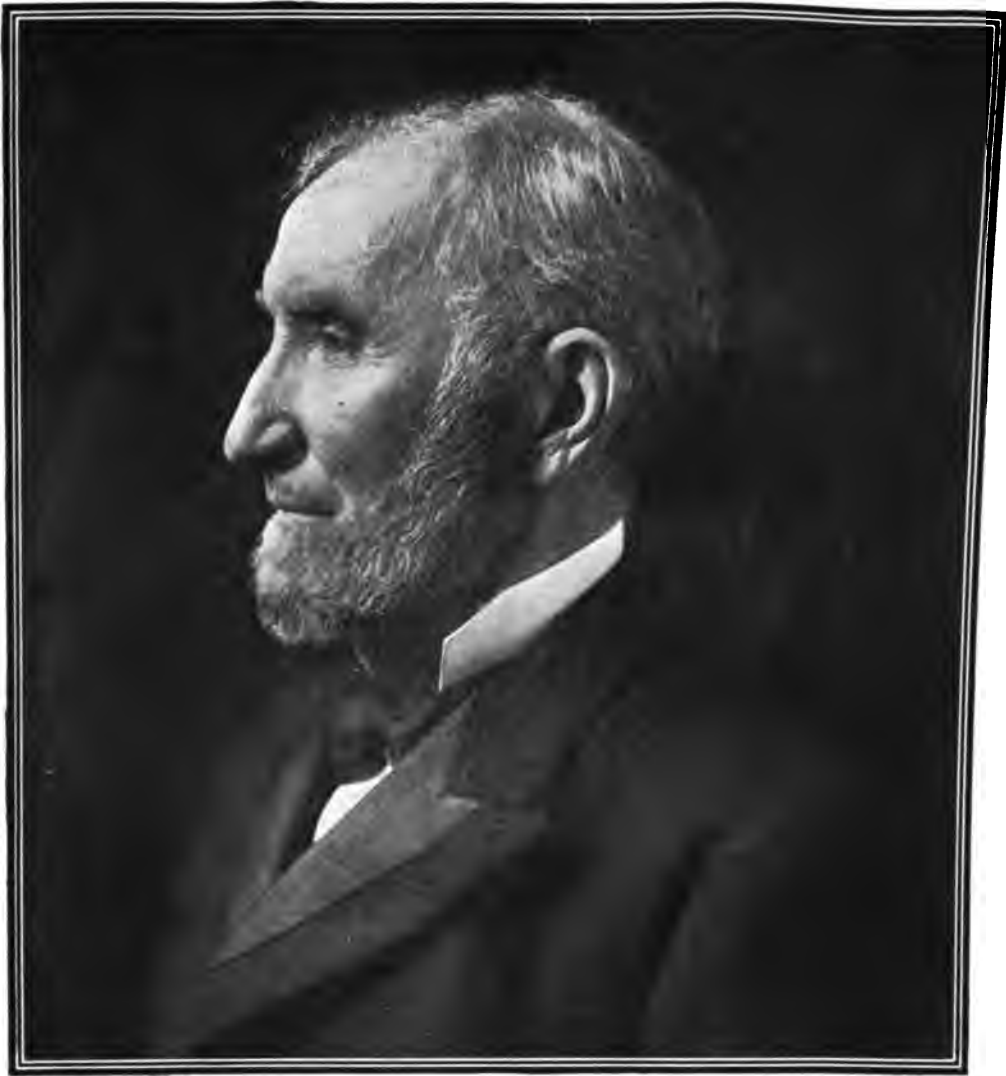


THE BRITISH LION BEFORE AND AFTER TAKING MR. CHAMBERLAIN'S CELEBRATED TARIFF TONIC.

From the *Northwestern Miller* (Minneapolis).



RUSSIA TO JOHN BULL: "You for theories, I for action!"—From the *Evening News* (Detroit).



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THE HON. JOSEPH G. CANNON.

SPEAKER CANNON: A CHARACTER SKETCH.

BY "MENTOR."

THE new Speaker of the House of Representatives is a "character." He is as much a "character" as was Andrew Jackson, the rugged, or John Randolph of Roanoke, the terrible, or Roscoe Conkling, the imperious. The man who now presides over the American House of Commons, and who under our traditions and with our practices is without doubt second only to the President of the United States himself in influence over the affairs of the Government,

has a personality unique, peculiar, most interesting, and in many ways admirable. "Uncle Joe" Cannon he is to all who know him; and the sobriquet in a sense bespeaks the character of the man, for we rarely apply the prefix of "Uncle" to any one who has not a goodly share of the milk of human kindness in his veins. "Uncle Joe" has a nature that is brimming full of sunshine, of kindness, of good feeling, of quaint humor, and above all of what we Ameri-

cans know as plain, common "horse sense." He likes to place his arm affectionately upon the shoulders of the men who are near to him. He likes to ask his callers to "set down and have a good visit," meanwhile planting his feet upon a near-by table and pulling out of his pocket three or four small and not very good cigars. He likes to "talk it over," fully and patiently, and with keen insight on his part and an invitation to frankness on that of his visitor, cigar-ashes meanwhile falling copiously and indiscriminately over his waistcoat, trousers, and shirt-front. His gray eyes twinkle with merriment. His thin, straight, compressed lips part often in smile, but more often merely curl up at the corners with an expression of inimitable humor and appreciation of humor.

But if any one imagines that there is anything "easy" about this good-humored, gossipy, story-telling, quip-loving, homely spoken man; if any one supposes that back of all the man-liking there is not man-knowing; if any one believes that this "sunny Jim" statesman lacks will of iron and nerve of steel, he need not wait long to be undeceived. If ever there was a man in our public life who knew how to say "no" and stick everlastingly to it, "Uncle Joe" is he. The eyes are merry and kindly, but they are sharp, too, and can "see through" men and things with a searching power that is almost X-ray-like. "You can't fool Uncle Joe" is a common saying in the halls of Congress. Or, "he is up to snuff," "he has savvy," "he is a smart one, well able to take care of himself in any company and in any game, be it legislation, politics, or poker." These are common expressions in the mouths of his intimates.

Speaker Cannon is the "David Harum" of the American House of Representatives. He knows the foibles and the weaknesses of human nature. He is "up to" the tricks of all the legislative horse-traders and appropriation log-rollers. He watches everybody else and is thorough master of himself. All that goes on about him is a game which he very well understands at every turn and play, but he doesn't preach or moralize about it, or imagine himself so much better than any one else. It amuses him, and he likes to see the wheels go round, but you may be sure he takes good care they do not go too fast or too slow. To act as a sort of governor upon the big, unwieldy machine of the House of Representatives is nothing new for "Uncle Joe." That has been his rôle for, lo! these many years.

Up to now, "Uncle Joe's" chief service to the House, to his party, and to the country has been as a "watch-dog of the Treasury." As chairman of

the great Committee on Appropriations through a number of Congresses, billions and billions of expenditures have passed under his alert eye. How much his watchfulness and his firmness have saved to the Government no one will ever know; but if he were to be paid a commission of 1 per cent. on the total he would be able to endow a big university. He has not been a cheese-parer. He has never made faces and growled whenever a penny was added to the budget, as some other "watch-dogs" have done. He has always realized that this is a great and growing country,—that it is "a billion-dollar country,"—and he has been willing to meet that expansion and that need with practical business sense. But he has stood like a rock against waste, and extravagance, and foolish schemes. For years, the common understanding in Congress, in the executive departments, and in all the circles which revolve satellite-like about the appropriation processes of the House of Representatives, has constituted a silent tribute to "Uncle Joe." New schemes have been put in or withheld from estimates according as it was thought they might or might not be able to pass muster with the chairman of the Appropriations Committee. "That looks all right, and you ought to get it in the appropriation bill, but Uncle Joe will never stand for it," is a common remark. And so it has come to pass that all sorts and conditions of officials and men interested in securing government appropriations have from time to time looked about for "the man who can do something with Uncle Joe." But they never found him, and were compelled to give it up as a bad job. "Uncle Joe" could not be "worked," and there was no use trying. When the scheme reached him he'd talk it over, and make jokes about it, and fumigate it with tobacco-smoke, and sprinkle cigar-ashes over it, and put his hand lovingly upon the shoulder of its agent and promoter and call him "my boy," but when the thin lips came together like the jaws of a steel trap, and no longer curled up merrily at the corners, and the mild blue eyes took on a sort of metallic glint, the man who didn't have sense enough to quit usually found it necessary to wait only about sixty seconds for the explosion of a volcanic vocabulary which surprised and overwhelmed him.

But it is not only as the Cerberus of the money-box that "Uncle Joe" has been a good servant of his country and of his party. This man of the soil, this statesman of the typical American sort, this politician with honesty and courage, this party man with sagacity, fighting power, and the ability to "get hold of men" and to mold them, has been one of the floor leaders of

the Republican party for nearly a generation. It is not easy to realize that the new Speaker,—young-looking, active, agile, light on his feet as a dancing-master, quick as President Roosevelt with the trigger of his speech, alert and happy with his humor and his satire,—came to Congress in the days of the Senatorship of Hannibal Hamlin, Charles Sumner, Simon Cameron, Zachariah Chandler, O. P. Morton, and that when he took his seat James G. Blaine was Speaker, and for colleagues in the House he had George F. Hoar, Samuel J. Randall, William D. Kelley, and James A. Garfield. How much of a veteran of Congressional life Mr. Cannon is may be judged by the fact that there are now in the two houses only nine men who were on the rolls when he made his *début* in December, 1875,—Allison, Cockrell, and Stewart, then in the Senate, and Burrows, Frye, Hale, Hoar, Hawley, and T. C. Platt, then in the House and now in the Senate. Of all the members of the House of Representatives at the time when Cannon appeared upon the scene, he alone remains.

He was not long in finding his place in the House. When the Democrats were in power he soon proved himself a most effective goader of the majority. He was a rough-and-ready debater. He knew the rules of the House, and its traditions and spirit, better than most of those who were pitted against him. He was never an orator. He never made great speeches. In all his life, he never wrote out but one speech in advance of its delivery, and that was the two-hundred-word address he spoke on the proudest day of his life, November 9, 1903, when he ascended the tribune of the House. He was a debater, a fighting debater, and nothing else. That he enjoyed, and in that he was most successful. Next to the late "Tom" Reed, he is the best cross-fire sharpshooter the Republicans have had in the House since the days of Conkling and Blaine. The annals of the House show that he was ever in the thickest of the fight, swinging his arms in curves which would defy a vitagraph to catch and register, marshaling his facts with the true instinct of effect though careless of his diction, quick and sharp in repartee, and above all, fertile in the art of ridicule. He never possessed Reed's art of making epigrams, or of turning phrases in which every word burned with irony, but this type of the frontier lawyer of whom Abraham Lincoln was the glorification in American history knew how to hurl the shaft of laughter that has sent many an ambitious debater down to defeat. An excellent example of this occurred only last year. A newspaper had announced that a sideboard

which had been given Mrs. Hayes, wife of President Hayes, had disappeared from the White House, whereupon a Democratic member introduced a formidable and formal resolution instituting solemn inquiry into this most dreadful affair. This was too much for the common sense of the coming Speaker. He knew his House better than to be serious. Rolling up his coat-sleeves after his wont in mock appreciation of the solemnity of the moment, with the faint suggestion of a smile playing about the corners of his mouth, he exclaimed: "Mr. Speaker, it is right and proper that this House should carefully guard all the property of the Government. We must do our duty, sir, no matter at what cost of trouble. History tells us that a century ago Abigail Adams hung out her laundry to dry in the East Room of the White House. Good God, Mr. Speaker, where is that clothes-line now?"

In the great laugh which followed, the sideboard resolution was completely submerged, and never again rose to the surface.

"Uncle Joe" was always for his party,—for his party right or wrong. He never kicked over the traces, never set his will against the powers that be. He was never an "insurgent," nor a "reconcentrado." He always "took his medicine," no matter how bitterly it tasted. For a dozen years he has been a potent force in maintaining party harmony. Whenever trouble appeared in the camp, and there were rumors of revolt, "Uncle Joe" was always sent out to round up the rebels and coax or whip them into line. How great have been his services to his party in this field of activity is known only to those who have been behind the scenes. He has had his reward. The man who was always orthodox, who never revolted, who stood up and fought tooth-and-nail for everything that was labeled with the name of his party, has been made Speaker, and that without opposition. The good and faithful servant has been put in the high place; and perhaps no man ever ascended the tribune enjoying more respect and affection from his fellow-men of both parties.

"The Speaker should be the servant, not the master, of the House," declared "Uncle Joe" in his inaugural. But, so far, members of the House have not observed much change in the system. The new Speaker was trained in the Reed school. He was Henderson's right-hand man. He believes the House needs a leader, that it is a ship which must carry a master and a pilot. If any difference be found between the Reed *régime* and the Cannon control, it will be in the latter's effort to keep in closer touch with the passengers and to consult their wishes more freely.

"Tom Reed was a great big feller,—one of the biggest fellers I ever knew," said the new Speaker to a friend, the other day, freely indulging his fondness for speaking in the vernacular, an affectation which he puts on or off according to the occasion. "It is generally believed that he druv the House before him like a flock of sheep,—that nothing could stand against his imperious will. He had the will all right, an' he druv 'em. But let me tell you how it was done. When Reed decreed that a certain thing was to be done, a few of us had to git out and hustle to see that it was done. Some of the hardest work of my life was in goin' among the boys a-coaxin' and a-cajolin' and a-drivin' and a-scarin' of 'em into line. We generally managed to do it, but sometimes we had the closest sort o' calls. Reed is entitled to all the credit for what he did with that great will power of his, but the world will never know what hard work some of the rest of us performed to make that will effective. Reed was a great man, but he didn't keep close enough to the boys. I believe in consultin' the boys and findin' out what most of 'em want and then goin' ahead and doin' it.

"Over in the Senate," added "Uncle Joe," biting the tip off another cigar with a savage clip of his teeth, "they do things in their peculiar way. There are only a few of 'em, and when they get ready to do business they can do it at a great rate. The Senate can spend a whole winter talkin', and then in the last days of a session, when it is in the mood, can pass bills commanding the sun, moon, and stars to stand still without wastin' a minute. But the House is different. We have nearly four hundred members, there are only five or six hours in a legislative day, only six days a week, and only so many weeks to a session. We have to do things in our way; and the way to get results is for somebody to sit up on the front seat and drive."

Speaker Cannon is what Mr. Bryan would call a man of the plain people. He doesn't like fuss and pretension. On the floor of the House he used to roll up his sleeves in the heat of debate and pound his desk with his fist. His gesticulations are famous for their vigor, though



MR. CANNON, AS CHAIRMAN OF THE APPROPRIATIONS COMMITTEE, CALLING UP THE FIFTY-MILLION-DOLLAR EMERGENCY BILL IN 1898.

(It was on this occasion, in March, 1898, that the House unanimously voted to place a fund of \$50,000,000 at President McKinley's disposal for the national defense, in anticipation of war with Spain.)

not for their Delsartean gracefulness. He is a small, wiry, spare man, with a sharp, shrewd face. He wears his old clothes most of the time,—the waistcoat unbuttoned full length,—and a little old slouch hat. Twice he was seen with a high hat,—once when his duty as committeeman required him to ride to the Capitol with McKinley when the latter took the oath as President, and again at McKinley's funeral. The day he was made Speaker he appeared in a fine frock coat, with a boutonniere in his lapel, and men said "Uncle Joe" was putting on airs in his new dignity. But next day he was in his den, the Speaker's room, his feet upon the table, his hand-me-down suit hanging loosely upon his body, the vest open to the waist, the cigar-ashes scattered over his person, and all about him the leaders of the Republican party and scores of members in the most familiar and democratic conference—"a-havin' o' our little visits and a gentle shakin' o' 'em down into their committee assignments."

A "character," the "David Harum" of the political world, he is. But he is a wholesome, a strong, character. He understands human nature, and he understands the American people. He knows the United States as a chess-player knows his board and his pieces. He is sagacious, honorable, faithful. He loves his country, his party, and his fellow-men. He may not be ornamental, but he is useful. He is not polished, but he is to be trusted. He will make a good Speaker, because he will keep his party together and secure results.

M. BUNAU-VARILLA: ENGINEER AND DIPLOMAT.

BY HENRY HALE.

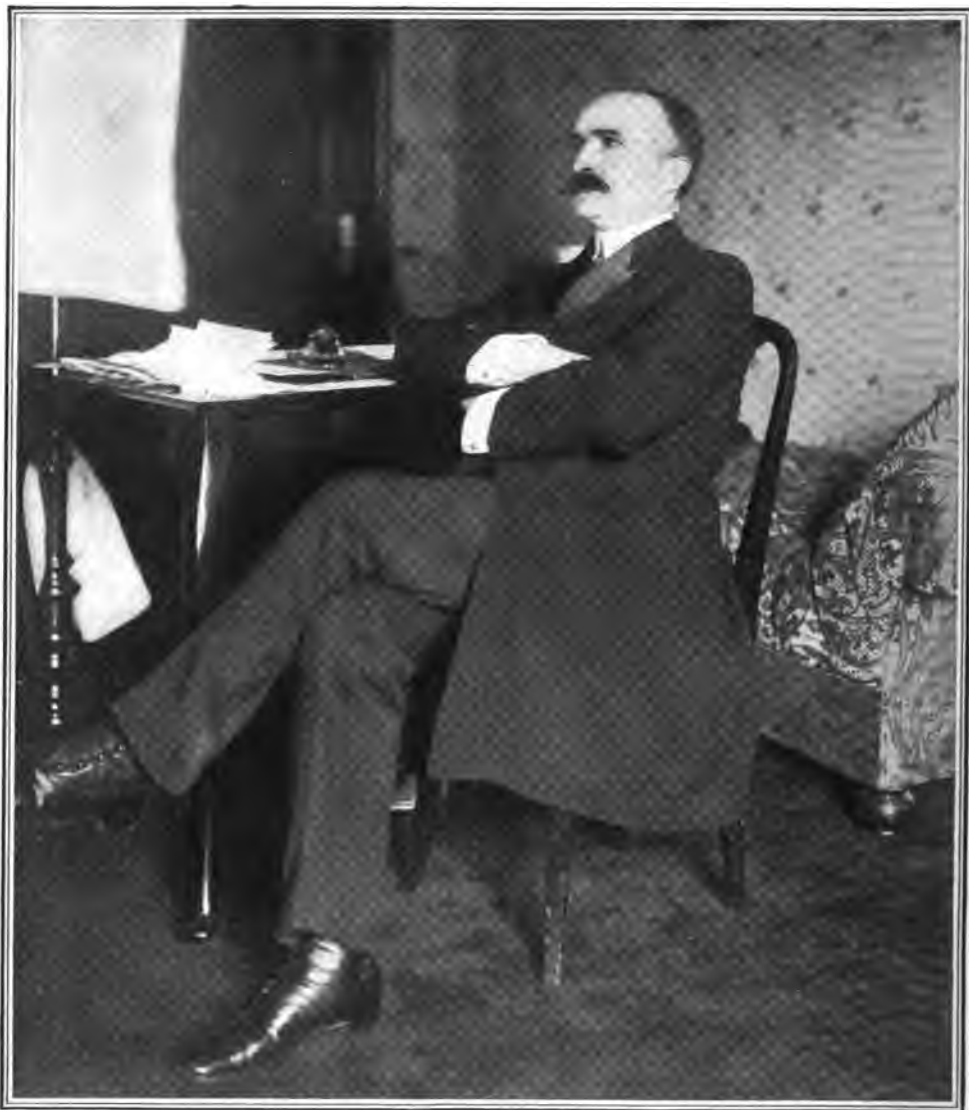
A LITTLE over two years and a half ago, a group of merchants, manufacturers, and financiers of the city of Cincinnati listened to an address upon the Isthmian canals which created such an impression among those who heard it that the idea of taking up and completing the Panama project was almost unanimously indorsed. The agitation which, it may be said, had its birth at this meeting in Cincinnati spread to other cities, and the one who delivered the address has since visited the principal communities of the United States, with the result that popular feeling in favor of the Panama route has become widespread. Among those who heard the address referred to were the governor-elect of Ohio, the Hon. Myron T. Herrick, and the junior Senator from that State. This accounts for the fact that Senator Hanna has become such an ardent advocate of the canal, and that it was taken up in Congress last year. The outcome of the discussion in the national legislature is too well known to be detailed.

Philippe Bunau-Varilla may well be called the apostle of Panama, for the decision of the United States in favor of this route has been almost entirely due to his energy in its behalf. Consequently, it is not strange that he is the representative of the new-born republic in this country and practically represents it in treating with the nations of the earth. His position is indeed unique, but his is a remarkable personality. Although he has not visited the country to which he has so devoted himself since he severed his connection with the original Panama Canal Company in 1888, his interest in it has remained unabated, and it may be said that his selection as minister by the creators of the young republic is due not alone to their belief in his ability as an engineer, but to their appreciation of the really great work which he has performed in arousing the attention of both the Old and the New World to the advantages of the Panama route.

M. Varilla, however, has had a career which has kept him prominently in the eyes of the engineers of this country and Europe. A graduate of the École Polytechnique, from which the French republic selects the men who not only represent it as military engineers, but carry out its public works, he entered the service of the

government in what might be called the civil division, being assigned first to the French possessions in North Africa, where he planned and supervised the construction of railroads and harbor improvements in Algeria and Tunisia. Later, he was delegated by the French Government to take up harbor improvements and other public work in France, but a project which perhaps attracted most attention in the Old World was the famous Congo Railroad, which completes one of the most extensive transportation systems in West Africa. The construction of this line required an unusual display of engineering skill, since it was built along portions of the Congo River where navigation is impracticable. By its means, traffic is now carried on between the seaboard and a very large portion of the continent. It may be added incidentally that the plans of M. Bunau-Varilla were executed by a portion of the corps of engineers which returned from the Isthmus of Panama when the canal project was for the time abandoned. Invited by the King of Roumania to improve the navigable waters of that country, the French engineer utilized a dredge of his own invention which is believed to be the first of the kind to be operated by electric power. Its advantages have since led to its extensive use elsewhere.

When M. Bunau-Varilla became associated with the Panama work, in 1884, the company had been engaged about two years on the project, but, as is well known, comparatively little actual work had been accomplished. During the four years in which he was connected with the De Lesseps enterprise he had an excellent opportunity to study the topography of the Isthmus and analyze the plans which had been originally formulated. The radical changes which were made in those plans were due to his suggestions. One of these was relative to the excavation of the famous Culebra cut. After a thorough investigation of this formation, he ascertained that at the proposed canal level it was sufficiently firm to insure the permanent stability of the sides of the cut. He realized that the removal of the enormous masses of disintegrated rock of the upper part of the cut was by far the most difficult as well as dangerous feature of the work, and the machinery which was afterward used so successfully in taking out the material, so far as the excava-



M. PHILIPPE BUNAU-VARILLA.

tion has been made, was installed at his suggestion.

Next to the Culebra cut, his plan for controlling the flow of the Chagres River has perhaps attracted most attention to M. Bunau-Varilla's ability as an engineer. His conclusions after examining the route were that a sea-level canal was not only a possibility, but should be event-

ually constructed ; but realizing the great expense which would attend its first cost, he devised a series of locks which can be utilized for traffic until the commerce of the waterway develops sufficiently to render the sea-level canal necessary. The most notable feature of the plan of the series of locks is the comparatively small expense of constructing them, and the fact that

they can be readily removed when further improvement is decided upon. While M. Bunau-Varilla's connection with the Panama project was closely followed by his European friends who were familiar with what he had accomplished in North Africa, not until he prepared the book contrasting the advantages and disadvantages of the Isthmus routes did American experts appreciate the importance of his association with the Panama company. Although a number of his theories were condemned by engineers who criticised his deductions at the time, since then it is somewhat remarkable that his conclusions have been accepted as correct.

The subject of this sketch was termed by an eminent French statesman the Bonaparte of engineers, owing to the magnitude and originality of some of the enterprises with which he has been connected. While his achievements in North and West Africa and Europe have been notable, since he first realized the possibility of completing a waterway across the American Isthmus he has regarded this as his life-work, all other projects being secondary to it. This explains why he has so enthusiastically and earnestly advocated it both in France and America. Noting the rapid progress which has been made in the invention and construction of apparatus available for operations of this magnitude, he has appreciated how much of the difficulty which attended the excavation of the canal in the eighties will be minimized by the use of the powerful labor-saving machinery which can now be employed. It may be said that he has much faith in electricity, and in a recent conversation with the writer of this article he expressed the belief that the electric current could be used, not only for the operation of cutting and excavating machinery, but for transporting supplies and material at a great reduction of expense compared with the employment of other systems of power, his idea being to generate sufficient current from a great central power station, to be conducted thence by wiring systems to the various sections of the work. He has kept pace with the development of American as well as European apparatus, as he has frequently visited the United States in the last decade and is familiar with such projects as the Chicago Drainage Canal and other improvements of that class.

The new republic is perhaps fortunate in securing such a representative, for M. Bunau-Varilla adds the experience of a lifetime as an engineer to the qualities of a diplomat,—an exceedingly rare combination. Meeting the latest acquisition to the circle of foreign representatives at Washington, one is impressed with the fact that, while unassuming and agreeable in manner, he is tactful and thoroughly conversant with not only the importance but the delicacy of the position in which he has been placed. When the conversation becomes of a technical nature, however, the fact is appreciated that he is literally an encyclopædia on scientific subjects, and especially on the topic to which he has devoted so much of his life. A feature of his personality is his apparently strong friendship for Americans, which he explains by saying that it is owing to his admiration of the remarkable engineering feats which have been performed in this country. Probably one reason for the friendliness which exists in France toward the American construction and control of the canal is due to the attitude of *Le Matin*. This Parisian newspaper, which has such a remarkable reputation, is principally owned by the brother of M. Bunau-Varilla, while the latter is also a large stockholder.

There is a bit of history which it may be of interest to refer to in connection with the man who has recently sprung into such prominence in connection with Panama. He was a school-mate of Dreyfus in the École Polytechnique, the famous Jewish officer entering the military branch of the engineering service. After graduation, the two officers corresponded at times, and one of the letters received by M. Bunau-Varilla was an inquiry relative to the resources of the Congo country, signed in autograph by Dreyfus. After the latter was convicted and sent to Devil's Island, the accidental finding of this letter and its comparison with a photograph of the letter which furnished the principal evidence against Dreyfus resulted in the discovery of the forgery and the investigation which led to his release from confinement. The publication of the missive in the hands of M. Bunau-Varilla and the photograph of the forgery in *Le Matin* began the agitation which so nearly produced a revolution in the republic.





THE PENANCE OF ELEANOR.

(From the painting by E. A. Abbey in the permanent collection of the Carnegie Institute, awarded the Chronological Medal in 1900.)

FINE ARTS AT THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTE, PITTSBURG.

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT.

THE complete history of the fine arts in America must chronicle a number of important factors in art education,—such, for example, as the salutary influence extended upon our school of painting by the “world’s fair” exhibitions, first at Philadelphia, and then at Chicago. And hard upon these events will come the recording of the work accomplished by the Department of Fine Arts of the Carnegie Institute, at Pittsburg.

This department of fine arts is part of the Carnegie Institute, which was founded by Andrew Carnegie in 1896. For the building of the institute, which at present contains, also, a library and a music hall, Mr. Carnegie gave over \$1,000,000. He also gives a yearly income of \$100,000, to be divided between the Scientific Museum and the Fine Arts Department. And he has more recently donated \$5,000,000 for the extension of the main building, which will contain, in addition, a school of technology. In this

school of technology, under the guidance of the newly appointed president, Arthur A. Hamerschlag, there will probably be a department of architecture, and perhaps of drawing and painting; but at the present time, the Department of Fine Arts relies solely upon the efficacy of its annual and permanent exhibitions of paintings.

It is not so much that these exhibitions have been of unique character as it is that their quality has been so high that, although only seven annual displays have been held, the artists both of Europe and America to-day look upon the autumn Carnegie exhibition as one of the events of the year. An analysis of the *modus operandi* of the institute is not without interest.

An art gallery may have several functions.—a museum function and a patronage function. The museum function is familiar to all, who know that it is proper to send grandfather’s clock or grandmother’s spinning-wheel to the historical museum. the one because it was the first clock

imported to New England, the other because it was the first spinning-wheel used west of the Mississippi.

By the same token, it is proper to send any painting to an art museum, because of its present or possible future interest. Poor as it may be, we never know but that some day an art critic may discover that it is the missing link between different periods in the development of a school.

LIKE ANNUAL WORLD'S FAIR EXHIBITIONS.

This function is not neglected by the institute management; for, besides its mutable annual exhibitions, it possesses a permanent collection, containing a number of valuable paintings, that the Pittsburg public may enjoy the year round. And it may be remarked that when we speak of the Pittsburg public we have in mind a much larger population of the middle West than is embraced within the city limits.

But, so far, it has been the annual exhibition that has made Pittsburg an art center to be reckoned with. To be sure that the young painters who are really active in art affairs are part and parcel of these Carnegie exhibitions, we have only to refer to a list of prize-winners at the exhibitions elsewhere,—to the Pan-American, the Charleston, the Boston, the Philadelphia, and the annual exhibitions of New York,—and notice that honor names therein are repeated in the Pittsburg catalogue each year. Indeed, these Carnegie displays might well be termed annual world's fairs, so representative and so international are they. It is probable that 25 per cent. of the paintings that were shown at the Pan-American,

and that will be shown at St. Louis, have been seen at the Pittsburg exhibitions.

THE GALLERY AND THE SCHOOLS.

But, though the high standard of the Carnegie exhibitions is the institute's main recommenda-



MR. JOHN W. BEATTY.

(Director, since its organization in 1896, of the Fine Arts Department of the Carnegie Institute.)



UNE MATINÉE DANS LE DAUPHINÉ.

(By Henri Harpignies, in the permanent collection of the Carnegie Institute.)

tion, two other factors are to be taken into consideration; first, these exhibitions are not only open to the public, free, and attended by adult visitors, as in New York City, but a local feature, for which the management deserves the greatest praise, is that the gallery is used in connection with the public schools. Every year, Mr. Beatty, the director, invites, first the teachers of drawing in the public schools, and then the children of the higher grades, and taking them through the galleries, talks to them in an intimate, extempore way, of the merits and the meaning of the different paintings. The teachers carry away with them a collection of photographs of the paintings and hang them upon the walls of the schoolroom, and in their turn talk to their pupils of the merits of the pictures; consequently, the Carnegie galleries are attended by more young people than any other art gallery in the United States.

Those who have had pedagogic experience in the art field know how difficult it is to instruct

the adult, who always says that he knows nothing about art, but that he knows what he likes; yet, if truth be told, he is as stubborn as can be in imagining that his likes and dislikes are equivalent to expert judgment, and it is really with the young people, the generation to come, that one can hope for true, unprejudiced study of the arts; and perhaps no feature of the Carnegie Institute is more full of promise than these talks which Mr. Beatty gives annually to teachers and students of the public schools.

It may be added that the galleries are open, free, every day from 10 A.M. to 10 P.M., and on Sundays from 2 to 6 P.M., and there is not that silly custom that obtains in New York and Brooklyn of charging admission on two days of the week. To an Easterner, the large attendance of children at night is a surprise; it is due, perhaps, also, partly to the fact that the public library, also open nights, is in the same building.

AN IDEAL JURY SYSTEM.

The merits and demerits of annual exhibitions are many, but a few may be considered here. The primary merit is like that of the annual State or interstate fair, where the toiler may see what has been accomplished in his craft by his neighbor or workers from foreign parts. In this



PORTRAIT OF A BOY.

(By Frank W. Benson, in the permanent collection of the Carnegie Institute. Chronological Medal, 1896.)

way, our annual exhibitions are always "newsy" and statistical. On the other hand, the demerit is that in the exhibitions of "societies" or "brotherhoods" conventionalism or fadism is apt to run riot, and narrowness is the result. At a certain annual "Academy" we are sure to see nothing but the art of yesterday, while in another "Society" we see nothing but the fads

of ultra-impressionism. In Pittsburg, the method of selecting the painting seems to guarantee that the virtues of an annual exhibition are retained, and that the demerits we have spoken of are eliminated.

The jury is elected by a vote of the annual contributors; every contributor has ten votes; a ballot is printed nominating a number of con-



THE WRECK.

(From the painting by Winslow Homer, in the permanent collection of the Carnegie Institute. Awarded the Chronological Medal in 1896.)

tributors to the last annual exhibition, and from these each voter selects ten, not more than four from each city. In this way, no member of the jury is permanent, and East and West have an equal representation. It is not self-perpetuating, but its personnel must be made up from men who take an active enough interest in the welfare of contemporary art to have contributed to the last exhibition; only those are eligible to vote whose work has been accepted at the last exhibition. It seems as though no more feasible scheme could be devised whereby all elements of old-fogyism, partisanship, or fadism are eliminated,



MISS KITTY.

(By J. J. Shannon, in the permanent collection of the Carnegie Institute. Gold Medal, 1897.)



THE VIOLINIST.

(By Wilton Lockwood, in the permanent collection of the Carnegie Institute. Honorable Mention, 1897.)

and absolute "home rule" granted, and representation of "the period" assured.

professional or layman, may without invitation submit a work to the jury; further, though its author be foremost leader of the most popular school and has been requested to contribute, a painting cannot be hung that has not passed the jury.

Nor is the jury system limited to the American works submitted. In London, Paris, and Munich are advisory committees who pass upon the merits of paintings contributed from the English and Continental artists. On these com-

mittees are men like Alma-Tadema, John S. Sargent, Dagnan-Bouveret, Raffaelli, Thaulow, Carl Marr, and Franz Stuck. Thus, every effort is made to avoid dictatorship, conventionalism, red-tapism, or sectional prejudice.

True, the management, which is in the hands of Mr. John Beatty, may be characterized as strongly individual and strenuously aggressive. The director leaves nothing to chance, and does not rely for succession mere office system, but follows up a circular invitation with personal solicitation. He thinks nothing of making a trip to Italy, Switzerland, or



A LADY IN BROWN.

(By John Lavery, in the permanent collection of the Carnegie Institute. Gold Medal, 1897.)



A PEASANT.

(By Bastien-Lepage, in the permanent collection of the Carnegie Institute.)

Sweden for the purpose of obtaining a single contribution from some painter whose art is really "worth while," but whose modesty and reserve make him not over anxious to force himself upon every annual exhibition. The result of these European trips is often the introducing to the American public of some master whom we could not well afford to miss. Several Italian artists have been "discovered" by Mr. Beatty, among them the late Giovanni Segantini, whose work, had never been brought to this country prior to its being shown in Pittsburg.



A WOMAN READING.

(By Frank W. Benson. First Prize at the Carnegie Institute, 1906.)

being shown in Pittsburg. Thus it is that the Carnegie exhibitions are thoroughly international. For not only is the art of the foremost American painters fostered, but the leading artists of Europe have come to look upon the Pittsburg exhibition as second only to the Salon in Paris, the Academy in London, and the "Society" in New York.

And here it may not be inappropriate to speak of the value of these exhibitions wholly aside from their high order of merit. For example, this year the entire East Gallery is given up to a collection of works contributed by members of the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers of London. No society of modern times has won greater recognition

from the press. In Europe, it is the most common thing to look upon the display of this society as the most select of the year's exhibitions. When the "International" becomes sponsor for a rising painter, his reputation is established. Whistler was its first president. It is thoroughly international in its membership. The names of Aman-Jean in France, Mesdag in Holland, and Franz Stuck in Germany show us the type of contributors of which its personnel is made up.

Now, it happens that many of these men, as well as the Englishmen Lavery, Shannon, Stevenson, Strang, and Greiffenhagen, while well known through their black-and-white productions, are not known to the American public by their paintings. It was therefore a rare educational novelty to see, this year, at Pittsburg one or more canvases from each of these men, even if one viewed them with disappointment.

It allows us, as Americans, to be flattered by the contrast made between these efforts and the more virile, scholarly work of our own artists like Sargent, Winslow Homer, Chase, Cecilia Beaux, and Decamp. Just as at the Chicago world's fair,—a more comprehensive exhibition,—we led every country (saving, perhaps, Sweden) in the uniform excellence of our display. It is not always the function of exhibition management to select only that which is best; so long as the best of



A VISION OF ANTIQUITY.

(By Puvis de Chavannes, in the permanent collection of the Carnegie Institute.)



PORTRAIT OF SARASATE.

(From the painting by James A. McN. Whistler, in the permanent collection of the Carnegie Institute.)

different schools and different nationalities is shown, so that comparisons and relative estimates may be made, an educational advantage is achieved. We expect a public library to use some degree of censorship and draw the line at dime novels and amateur poetry; still, we do not expect the management to pass upon the merits of the latest novels by recognized writers. On the contrary, we demand that they should be upon the shelves. So, in ascribing to the Carnegie Institute singular virtue in its function of selecting, we do not mean to suggest that censorship is exercised, or that the exhibitions never contain works of mediocre qualities.

THE TASTE OF OUR PAINTERS PUT ON RECORD.

Again, too, in regard to the prize awards. It is to be borne in mind that it is not the institute that awards the annual prizes, but the artist contributors. Therein lies a deep significance. It is by no means imperative that the public should follow the judgment of artists. The whole collection offers a variety from which the public may choose that which strikes their fancy; but it is profitable, if they wish to be guided by the judgment of the artist, that they should have the opportunity, and they are afforded this opportunity in having the stamp of approval put upon the prize painting. This approval does not mean unequivocal approval—it does not mean that the picture is the best in the exhibition. It does mean that, in the judgment of a group of progressive, capable painters, there is a consensus of opinion that the picture is painted in the manner of the best modern schools. Though we may often consider the conception of a Carnegie prize picture poor, we rarely find its technical qualities poor.

ALWAYS A HIGH STANDARD MAINTAINED.

This year, for instance, the annual exhibition contains three rare representative examples by Sargent. His portrait of Alexander J. Cassatt is alone worthy of a trip to Pittsburg. There are, besides, Cecilia Beaux's "Portrait of Richard Watson Gilder," Howard G. Cushing's very charming "Woman in White," a sterling "Portrait of a Boy," by Joseph Decamp; Frank Fowler's "Portrait of William Dean Howells," some scholarly pieces of modeling by Robert D. Gauley, and Whistler's charming piece of color entitled "Deep Sea;" Winslow Homer's magnificent "Early Morning After Storm at Sea," J. Alden Weir's "New England Factory Village," and "A Still Life," by William M. Chase.

When one stops to compare, in the retrospect, such an exhibition with the kind of exhibition that was held in the West twenty-five years ago, he realizes how considerably the standard of art taste has been raised. And it does not surprise him to learn that not only do the schoolteachers and the younger people of Pittsburg comprehend intelligently the qualities and attributes which go toward making good art, but that the attractiveness of the Carnegie displays has inculcated among the rich men of the surrounding country a taste for collecting, and for intelligent collecting. Where twenty years ago the collector bought "what he liked," without any thought of selection, his taste now is so much more cultivated that he weighs the pros and cons of technical excellence. Now, a picture must not only



PORTRAIT OF WILLIAM WINTER, BY FRANK D. MILLET.

true connoisseur, the close scrutinizer of methods as well, than are thus obtained of comparing the square, frank, workman-like touch of Franz Hals with that of Sargent in, let us say, his portrait of Lawrence Barrett, the property of "The Players," New York. Again, this same modern, who has been ranged with the great of the past, might, on occasions like these, find himself closely neighbored by a Valasquez; and these chances would properly offer illuminating moments to the intelligent and curious lover of art. Other moments of intellectual and critical pleasure are found where Reynolds and Raeburn, Gainsborough and Romney, to say nothing of Hoppner, Opie, and Lawrence, are seen together; where the Dutch School, the eighteenth-century Frenchmen, the British School since Raeburn, and the American since Copley and Gilbert Stuart, show the transition of not only methods, but of type.

These exhibitions should be welcomed as tending to create a more critical and fastidious public,—one that will not be content to encourage an imported name when not backed by work of a high artistic standard. These recurring opportunities for studying fine examples of portraiture will tend to raise this standard, and we trust that this one and all others which are held here will be most successful.

All this is said of the merely intellectual aspect of portrait exhibitions; there is a personal one which appeals, perhaps, to the larger portion of the visitors,—it is that of the identity of the subjects. For, in wise provision for the popularity of these exhibitions, and in order that the coffers of the particular charity may be appreciably swollen, the governing committees endeavor, and usually with success, to secure portraits of persons distinguished by family, rank, or achievement.

PROGRESS AMONG THE MOROS.

BY CEPHAS C. BATEMAN.

(Chaplain, Twenty-eighth Infantry, U.S.A.)

THE retirement of Gen. George W. Davis from the Division of the Philippines, the departure of Gen. S. S. Sumner from Mindanao, and the coming of Gen. Leonard Wood to exercise the combined functions of civil and military governor of the Moro province serve to punctuate a distinct period of progress in the southern islands.

The men who have brought affairs to the present propitious stage have performed an amount of hard work which those unacquainted with the country, the people, and the conditions can little realize. It would have been nothing short of a blunder to place at the head a civilian in this period of transition and reconstruction. The Moros' ideas of government spring wholly from a military instinct. Our native Moham-medans naturally respect a man who has won distinction in war, who wears a uniform, and who may at any time command troops in the field. A Moro cannot understand why any one should be regarded as a leader who is not, primarily, an exceptionally hard fighter.

Even judges and priests among Moros have done an amount of blood-letting in their day. It is not likely, therefore, that such people will be quick to learn that a man wholly without a "war record" may be deferred to because of superior mental powers or moral courage. A change of viewpoint, when such is made, will mean a radical departure from the fixed mental habit of the Moro.

HOW THE NATIVES HAVE PROFITED FROM THE AMERICAN OCCUPATION.

If asked what has most affected the life of the Lake Moros during the past year, I should say the building of military roads into their heretofore almost inaccessible country. These highways have caused a political readjustment among petty sultans and dattos. When we entered their country, the more powerful leaders were not pleased with our presence, while they disdained our overtures looking toward friendly coöperation.

Fortunately, some dattos who were poorer in purse and lower in the social scale were shrewd enough to recognize their opportunity. By allying themselves with the Americans, they at once secured military protection while in the execu-

tion of labor or transportation contracts. They were thus enabled to live up to their covenants with a fidelity and promptitude both surprising and gratifying. Not a pound of stores intrusted to their care has been captured by their "enemies" or eaten up by their "friends." These men have grown rich in Mexican pesos, are running pony pack-trains, and by reason of sudden opulence, have drawn away from their former feudal lords many active followers.

A notable example of this occurred at Mungun, where an interpreter had married a sultan's daughter, and, ere we were aware of it, had rewarded the venerable patriarch-father of his



GEN. S. S. SUMNER, U.S.A.

(Who successfully commanded the military department of Mindanao and Jolo during a critical period.)



THE SEA GATE OF JOLO.

bride by ousting him from his seat of authority. Whether the son-in-law felt that he had been deceived into an unpleasant matrimonial alliance was not a subject for official inquiry. Certain it is, this young Moro, who a year ago came to us dirty and ragged, possessing the single qualification of being able to speak fluently a species of Spanish that might have caused his death if addressed to a Castilian, is to-day a sultan.

THE VALUE OF STERN MEASURES.

A sub-datto, formerly in the service of a now deposed oppressor, could buy and sell his former master over and over again. For the first time in history, Moros have apprehended and delivered to the military authorities the murderer of a soldier. For the first time, Moro priests have been won from their habit of preaching war to the practice of proclaiming peace. Time was required to reach these men, but by the exercise of patience, kindness, and wisdom, Major R. L. Bullard, Twenty-eighth Infantry, has drawn them about him. Influential agents have they proved themselves to be. It were idle to convey the impression that achievements by peace methods were possible without more or less resort to arms. Not a few Moros have been taught to respect American life and property. They are convinced by the only argument a savage can appreciate that we are here to stay, peaceably if we can, forcibly if we must. Many have learned that kindness does not mean weakness.

Recollections of lessons administered at Pandapatan, Bacolod, Taraca, Lati, Biram-Bingan, and Bacayaun will not fade from the native mind for a generation at least. But so far from our

government being held in dread because of these provoked engagements, Moros refer to them with expressions of entire approval.

General Sumner, who bore the burden and the heat of the day, on the eve of his departure for home put this sentiment into a personal letter :

I am perfectly aware of the fact that a spectacular campaign could have been inaugurated in the Moro country at any time, but I have no desire to kill Moros or devastate their country, and still less have I any wish to expose our men to needless danger. I am drawing toward the end of my military career, and, whatever may be in store for me personally, I wish above all things to retire with the feeling that no one has been sacrificed to add to my military reputation.

THE SULTAN OF JOLO AND HIS WANING INFLUENCE.

Now, if the problems of reconstruction are difficult and delicate in Mindanao, they are quite as much so in the Sulu archipelago. The Sultan of Jolo, who still styles himself the "Shadow of God," is clearly enough a passing shadow. His real power is now known to have been overestimated. It is not unlikely that he may take up a permanent residence in Borneo or elsewhere, beyond the limits of American sovereignty.

As a factor in future equations he is sure to be eliminated, whether he should finally decide upon a step of complete expatriation or not. Months ago, he declared to General Sumner that it would be monstrous to hold him responsible for what the dattos or their followers should do, as they never obeyed his orders unless it suited their convenience to do so. A national feeling is wholly non-existent among Moros. A more

divided people cannot be found on the globe, hence it is easy to play one leader against another.

There is a more or less popular notion that Arabic is very generally understood by Moros. This impression has arisen, no doubt, from the fact that Moro scribes use Arabic vowels and consonants in spelling out phonetically the vernacular. It is also true that a sprinkling of pure Arabic words and not a few corrupt derivatives are found in the Moro tongue.

CURIOUS LEGAL CUSTOMS.

The Moros have no system of laws as such. The penal passages of the Koran, taken in connection with local customs, are referred to as the *Titab*. To be precise, the local customs are mainly interpretations or evasions of the *Titab* proper.

Land is held in common, the dattos claiming sections as their own, just as our Indian chiefs were wont to do. In some localities, a "Master of the Field" allots plots of ground to individuals for permanent or temporary occupancy. Such real estate may not be alienated without permission having first been obtained from the authority granting residence thereon. The criminal laws, if such they may be called, are peculiar. The Koran provides as a penalty for theft that the hands of the thief should be cut off. In consequence of this appalling penalty, the conviction of a thief is next to impossible. Moros evade this penalty by shifting the responsibility from the thief to the man who has suffered loss. It is held that the victim of theft is criminally culpable in that he has neglected to safeguard his property. It is even more difficult to convict a murderer. The accused swears that he did not commit the crime, his relatives are sworn in a like defense, and one and all invoke the curses recorded in the Koran upon themselves and their posterity forever if they have perjured themselves. After the "trial" is ended, it is not uncommon for the datto to collect one hundred pesos from the murderer, in default of which he may be seized and sold into slavery. Theoretically, a thief may also be seized and sold. Unavenged murders and robberies lead naturally to family feuds, and perhaps to inter-tribal wars.

Quarrels involving women are settled in a way known alike to civilized and savage men. Under the Bates treaty, crimes committed by Moros cannot be punished by American courts. This fact makes awkward situations. Sultans, dattos, nadjis, and other head men, who toil not nor spin, prey upon the people; they foment strife in order to levy fines, or go to war for the

sole purpose of enriching themselves by the avails of robbery.

The custom of "running amuck" is often confounded with *jura mentado*. The two are distinct. Running amuck may grow out of the intolerable oppression of an individual, who, weary with life, is quite ready to die if he may first kill enough of his own race to compensate him for the loss of his own life. Unable to soothe his savage breast, the subject breaks out suddenly and hacks right and left until he himself is slain. *Jura mentado* is a frenzy cultivated for the express purpose of wreaking vengeance upon white men. The subject is prepared by a priest. His eyebrows are shaved, his nails closely clipped, and after a bath he is dressed in



A SULTAN WITH HIS FAMILY.

white; an oath is administered by the *pandita* or *imam*, who also bestows his blessings; permission is granted by the datto, who warns Moros to keep out of the way, and the crazy fanatic is turned loose on his mission of butchery. Retaliatory measures easily check *jura mentado*, but the practice of "running amuck" may be resorted to at any time. The one is the outgrowth of fanaticism, the other springs from a long course of injustice.

Important amendments or supplemental legislation will come in the course of events to give a wider application of law than the Bates treaty ever essayed to provide. That instrument served an excellent temporary purpose, for it prevented war with the Moros at a time when we had our hands full of recalcitrant Filipinos. The creation of the Moro province by an act of the Civil Commission makes it possible to reach the real

needs of the people. Judge J. S. Powell, of Jolo, an ex-officer of volunteers, and a man who combines practical judgment with sound learning, is fully alive to the difficulties besetting the legal pathway, while the records of his court disclose the details of contentions totally incomprehensible to one not conversant with Moro life and character.

DEALING WITH THE SLAVERY PROBLEM.

He views the future with encouragement, believing that the absence of cohesion among Moros is one of the surest guarantees that they can be brought within a few years under control of law. Moro slavery, which this writer knows to be something vastly more serious than a "harmless vassalage," will disappear shortly after the lands are divided into severalty and each holder protected in his rights of ownership and prevented from alienating the same. Nothing so quickly develops a spirit of independent manhood as title to land. To liberate Malay slaves by purchase would but enrich the slaveholders and make the pathway of the freedmen more bewildering. Such a policy would greatly strengthen the hands of the strong and proportionately lower the courage of the weak. The slave would still be a slave to a master whose powers had been greatly augmented. Let us say that every fifth Moro is a slave. If there are two hundred and fifty thousand Moros, which is a conservative estimate, there would be fifty thousand men, women, and children to purchase. Assuming that this mass could be bought at \$25 gold per head, there would be put into the pockets of sultans and dattos at one time the sum of \$125,000 in gold, or more than 250,000 pesos. The effect of this would be to fasten more tightly than ever the fetters on the poor and prolong the period of polygamy among the rich. Marriage is largely a matter of barter and sale at best. Poor fathers would continue to sell their daughters to the highest bidders as of yore. Polygamy is sanctioned at once by the Koran and by ancient tradition.

If our Southern negro found himself helpless at the close of the Civil War in America, there still existed between him and his master a "fellowship of suffering," for both were poor. Had slavery in the South been abolished by purchase, the money would have gone into the hands of enlightened men. The worse features of slavery are always present among the Moros, and do often appear in crimes of murder and lust of revolting description. It is not thought by the writer than any scheme of liberation of slaves by purchase is in contemplation. The



JUDGE J. S. POWELL.

consequences of such a course are clearly foreseen.*

The division of land in severalty will give freedmen a chance in life, and the provident and industrious will come to the front. In point of intelligence, the best slaves are equal with their masters, and as matters now stand, do rise above their inherited lot to station and influence. The Koran holds the old, who are naturally conservative, but with a personal acquaintance with some of the prominent Moro priests to base an opinion upon, I am strongly inclined to the view that a rational system of government schools will easily supplant a religious cult whose tendency is toward stagnation and fanaticism.

HEALTHFUL DISCIPLINE OF THE YOUNGER GENERATION.

Moro youth may be led, within a generation, into a broader conception of life than the Arabian prophet ever gained or "revealed." Manual-training schools, experimental farms, the making of highways and railroads, the introduction of agricultural implements which can cope with the cogon grass, the reclamation of vast

* In October last, the Legislative Council of the Moro provinces passed a law prohibiting slave-hunting in all the Moro territory and providing for the confiscation of vessels engaged in such traffic; this law has been confirmed by the Philippine Commission.—EDITOR.

tracts for the cultivation of hemp, coffee, and sugar, and the establishment of mills and factories,—these will work wonders.



GEN. LEONARD WOOD.

It was said last year that Moros would not work. More than two thousand of them have been employed in Mindanao alone during the

year 1903. It cannot, of course, be maintained that these men are efficient laborers. Efficiency comes by training. Real labor is something unauthorized by tradition or custom for any but slaves.

Every Moro who has wielded a pick and shovel this year has done what his ancestors never did. This departure from time-honored example means much to an Oriental. But the love of money is inherent, and the Moros have made a great deal of it out of the American occupation. A mounted Moro police will, in my opinion, prove to be, when properly officered, one of the most efficient bodies of native constabulary ever organized.

Steps will not be taken hurriedly, nor will power be intrusted to natives who are untried in subordinate positions. New material of surprising quality is being developed daily among young Moros, who have everything to gain and nothing to lose by proving loyal. General Wood's first act on arriving in Zamboanga was to make immediate preparations for a journey across the Moro country of Mindanao. This trip was followed by a visit to the principal islands of the Sulu group. Having made himself acquainted with the territory and the more pressing needs, he was prepared to address himself to the task of organizing and putting into effect a suitable government for the Moro province. He has associated with him, by his own selection, cool heads and steady hands. That he will prove equal to the complicated task is not doubted by those who know his worth.



MORO HUTS BUILT OVER THE TIDE-WATER.

PHILIPPINE TRADE AND INDUSTRY ON VIEW.

BY WILLIAM P. WILSON.

(Director of the Philadelphia Commercial Museums and chairman of the Philippine Government Board for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition.)

AT the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, to be held at St. Louis next year, an opportunity will be given to study the Philippine country, its people, and its government at short range. For nearly a year, the insular government, through an exposition board, has been making preparations for an exhibit of Philippine products, manufactures, art, ethnology, and educational methods. The enterprise has been planned on a scale commensurate with the importance of the interests involved. The efforts of the commission have been so heartily seconded by the people that the scope of the exhibit has been enlarged, and every effort is being made to give an adequate idea of the value and importance of our insular possessions in the Orient.

GEOGRAPHICAL FACTS AND RELATIONS.

The little general knowledge which the mass of our people now have of the Philippines was probably largely gained during the exciting period immediately following the capture of Manila, in the summer of 1898. Previously, few people had ever heard of the islands, and fewer still could have located them upon the map.

The Philippine Islands form, together with the empire of Japan, a chain of islands of volcanic origin, lying northeast and southwest, parallel with the eastern coast of Asia. They constitute the southern third of this chain, and lie entirely within the tropics. Their geographical position in respect to the empire of China is of great commercial importance to the United States, and their development, under the auspices of this country, is a matter of absorbing interest.

In territorial area, they constitute an empire in themselves. The land superficies (127,853 square miles) is larger than the combined area of the New England States, New York, and New Jersey (123,860 square miles). The climate is as healthful as that of Jamaica. There are elevated plateaux up to 10,000 feet, and from 5,000 feet upward the air is cool and salubrious. In the island of Luzon, there are nearly a million acres of rolling pine land, with no underbrush or tropical vegetation, where the climate is like that of the upper Alleghany Mountains in June.

GROUPING OF NATIVE TRIBES.

The islands have a population of about 7,000,000 souls, of whom about 600,000 are classed as uncivilized, or non-Christian. There are four general classes of native inhabitants,—the Negritos, Idonesians, Malayans, and European Mestizos. The Negritos are supposed to have been the first inhabitants, and to have come from New Guinea. They are black, of small size, and are the only people on the islands who have kinky hair. There are now Negritos of mixed blood in many of the islands.

The Idonesians are natives of the island of Mindanao. They are noted for great muscular development, light color, a high forehead, aquiline nose, and considerable height. There are seven tribes of the pure blood, and many of mixed blood.

The Malayan race is the one most largely represented in the population. No Malays of pure blood are found in any part of the islands. They are divided into three groups,—the Christian, pagan, and Mohammedan Malays. Among the Christian Malays are the Tagalogs, numbering about 1,500,000, gathered about Manila and the commercial centers of other highly civilized provinces; also the Visayans, of whom there are 2,500,000 spread over the group of islands bearing their name, and who, from an early day, have inhabited the coasts of Mindanao. The most important of the Mohammedan Malays are the Moros, whose political, religious, and commercial center is at Sulu, in the extreme southern portion of the islands.

The European Mestizos are the product of intermarriage between the natives of all groups and Europeans, principally Spaniards. They are found at all commercial centers, but particularly at Manila and the provincial capitals.

Many of the tribes, under the influence of the friars during the Spanish rule, had been Christianized. The intelligence and civilization of the non-Christian tribes exist in widely varying degrees. Not more than 10 per cent. of the inhabitants of the islands, as a whole, know any Spanish, and they necessarily speak their own dialects.

The Negritos are subdivided under twenty-one tribal names, and number about 25,000.

The Idonesian tribes of Mindanao are known under sixteen names, and number about 252,200. The most numerous are the Malayans, who are recognized under forty-seven race and tribal names, and number about 6,000,000. Many of these tribes dwell in the most inaccessible mountains and forests throughout the islands. The dominant races of this blood are the Visayan, 2,601,600; Tagalogs, 1,663,900; Bicoles, 518,100; Ilocanos, 441,700; Pangasinanes, 365,500; Pampangos, 337,900; Cagayanes, 166,300; and Moros, 100,000, exclusive of Mindanao. There are also about 50,000 Chinese in the islands, most of whom are located at Manila, and are chiefly traders.

The Negritos are a weak people, physically and mentally. Their language is conspicuously different from the rest. The languages of the other races are similar, and are intimately related to the Malayan, from which they were probably derived. Books have been published and are in use in the archipelago in twenty-seven different dialects.

The Tagalogs have attained the highest civilization of any of the Philippine peoples. The wild tribes are, as a rule, peaceful, although cannibalism and head-hunting have been charged against some of the tribes fierce by nature. Human sacrifice is practised in Mindanao among some of the more ignorant tribes.

RESOURCES OF THE ISLANDS.

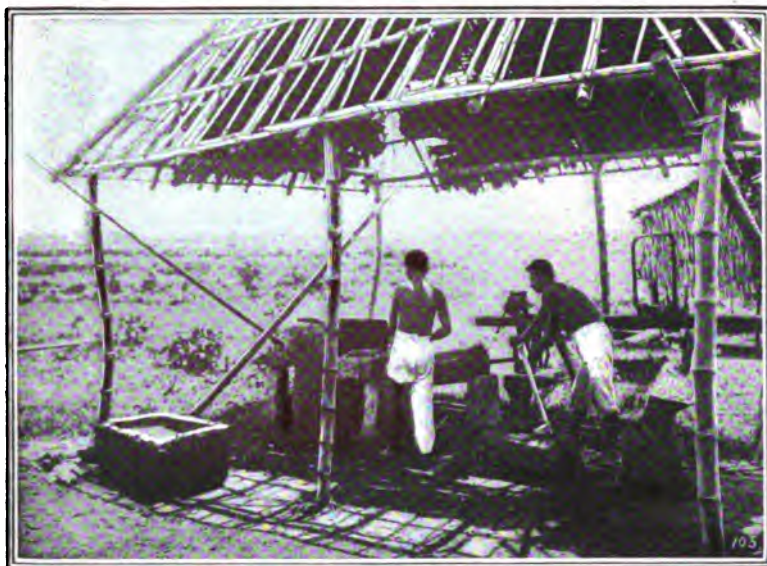
Manila, the metropolis of the archipelago, is a city of 250,000 inhabitants. Eleven other cities contain, each, more than 10,000. They are—Batangas, 35,431; Baliuag, 17,223; San Miguel de Mayumo, 19,397; Copiz, 16,692; Panay, 193,431; Cebu, 11,198; Dalaguete, 19,269; Sibonga, 22,979; Lavag, 30,840; Iloilo, 11,364; San Nicolas, 12,743.

The wonderful productiveness of the soil and the great diversity of climate make the Philippines one of the richest agricultural countries in the world. In some of the islands, all of the cereals and vegetables of the United States may be raised in the higher altitudes. The staple



A NATIVE FRUIT STORE ON THE STREETS OF MANILA.

(Showing bread-fruit in the foreground and dried fish, fruits, and sweet potatoes in the broad basket-pans. The costumes of the women are those of the native Tagalog people, who compose a majority of the native inhabitants of Manila. The covering of the native shacks which furnish shade and protection is made of bamboo poles, with nipa—a sort of palm leaf—covering.)



A BLACKSMITH SHOP, RIZAL PROVINCE.

(The bellows are made out of a large hollow bamboo stem, with piston. The native on the right is working the bellows, while the other forges.)

products, in the order of their importance, are : hemp, known the world over as Manila hemp, tobacco, sugar, copra, coffee, and rice ; coconuts, chocolate, corn, wheat, indigo, peanuts, and vegetables in many varieties are also produced. In Mindanao and Palawan, cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, mace, and other valuable spices are produced abundantly.

Rice is the chief food of all Eastern peoples ; more than one hundred and twenty varieties are known, and it is cultivated both on lowlands and uplands. It was formerly largely exported, but the production is now much below the food requirements of the population. Corn, or maize, was brought to the islands from America by the Spaniards, and its cultivation has become quite general.

The coal of the islands is believed to be the most valuable mineral asset of the Philippines. It is found in many of the islands. Gold and copper were in common use among the islanders when the Spaniards arrived, but mining has never been carried on systematically. The native methods are confined to placer-washing. Since the advent of the Americans the fact has been established through the mining bureau of the civil government that gold, copper, lead, iron, coal, sulphur, granite, marble, petroleum, and other minerals exist in paying quantities. Gas is said to exist in the Cebu coal-fields.

The forests of the archipelago are of enormous value. Over six hundred and fifty indigenous

species have been enumerated, including largely the woods of economic or commercial value. A forestry bureau, created in 1900, has taken charge of this leading source of natural wealth and established regulations covering the protection and marketing of the timber. Gutta-percha is one of the most valuable of the forest products exported from Mindanao. Several indigenous varieties of plants producing rubber have been found in large quantities in a number of the islands. Bamboo and palm are employed principally in the construction of native houses. Bridges constructed without nails, made of bamboo poles tied together with rattan, are strong enough to support army wagons.

The fruits, both wild and cultivated, are superior in quality and abundant in variety. New species introduced from the United States succeed well. The commonest and cheapest fruit is the banana, many species of which are cultivated. The choicest fruit in the islands is the mango, which here becomes much finer than in other tropical countries.

The Philippine Islands is not a manufacturing country, although the natives have great aptitude in making certain kinds of fabrics. A most beautiful cloth is made from a combination of silk and pineapple fiber. Manila hemp is also extensively woven into cloth by the natives. The primitive looms are operated by hand, entirely by women. Cordage and rope are manufactured at several factories in Manila by the most simple methods. One of the principal industries is the extracting and drying of the hemp fiber, which is prepared for the foreign market in bales.

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE EXPOSITION.

Since the United States Government took possession of the islands, every attempt possible has been made for their betterment. Sanitary conditions have been established as far as practicable, and public improvements have been made in every direction. The benefits to the people have been so obvious that opposition has practically ceased. Good order has been restored in many places where formerly only tribal rela-

tions existed. A good system of government has been substituted for a bad, or none. The islands have been divided into about forty provinces, over each of which a provincial governor administers wholesome and well-formulated laws.

It is the purpose of the Philippine government to make, at St. Louis, as complete a picture of the islands as possible. It will be a government exhibit, an exposition in itself, practically standing alone on thirty-five acres of beautiful ground. More than a year ago, the government passed an act ordering this exhibition, under which a board of three was created, to be known as the Philippine Government Board, to carry out the ideas of the government and take complete charge of the exhibition. At the same time, it was arranged by Governor Taft, the civil governor of the islands, that this board should have the aid of all the government bureaus, such as the Bureau of Health, Bureau of Forestry, Bureau of Mining, Bureau of Agriculture, Bureau of Government Laboratories, and others; also the Department of Commerce, with its several bureaus, including that of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, the Philippine Constabulary, and the Bureau of Prisons. The Department of Public Instruction will prepare an educational exhibit.

LITERARY AND ART COLLECTIONS.

In order that the highest state of civilization of the islands shall be represented at St. Louis,

the Government Exposition Board has made numerous special arrangements to secure the best in art, literature, and science which might not otherwise be brought under the government organization. In the very early stages of the work, arrangements were made to gather from Spain and from other European countries, as well as from the Philippine Islands, all the literature produced in or concerning the islands, so that a complete library touching the Philippines, from the earliest notices of their discovery to the present time, is likely to be placed on exhibition. As this literature was most likely to be found in Spain, a thoroughly competent commission was sent to Madrid to carry out the purpose of the board in that direction. Collections of paintings were made in Manila, both from the government and from private citizens, which would illustrate art in the capital. A premium of \$10,000 in gold was offered for the best works in painting, sculpture, wood-carving, and silversmiths' work; \$6,000 in gold was offered in premiums for women's work, such as the finest cloth-weaving, embroidery, and other artistic work requiring great skill.

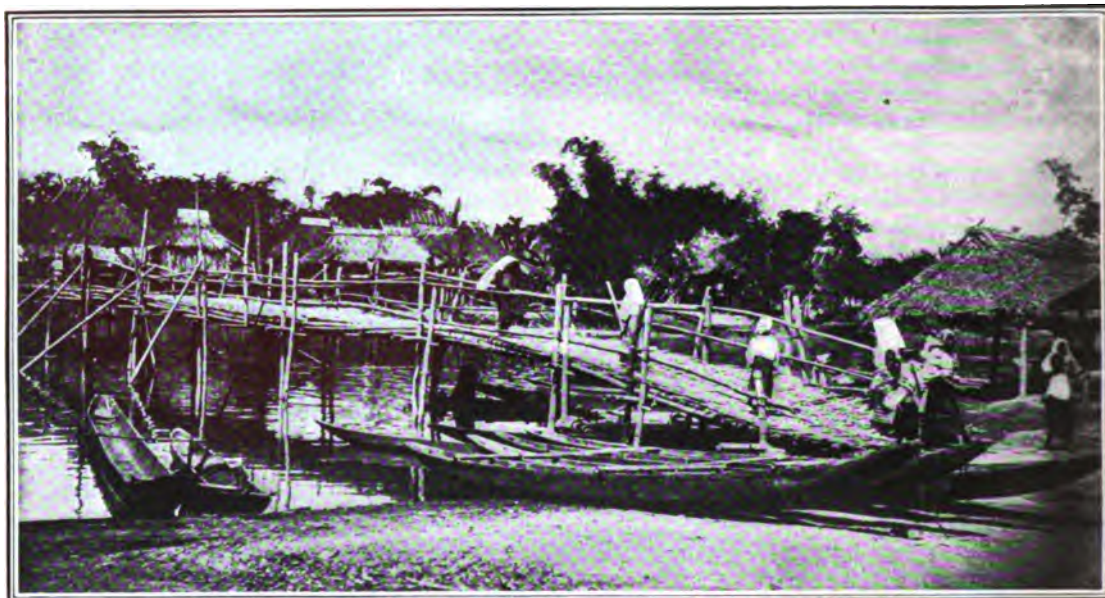
ENTHUSIASM OF NATIVE OFFICIALS.

One of the first moves of the board was to inspire each of the forty provincial governors, who are nearly all Filipinos, with enthusiasm for having his particular province represented at St. Louis with the very best of everything there is



MEMBERS OF THE TRIBE OF IGORROTES PANNING EARTH FROM THE BOTTOM OF THE RIVER FOR THE PURPOSE OF WASHING GOLD OUT OF IT.

(The pans are made of bamboo, woven so closely that water does not run through.)



A BAMBOO BRIDGE IN BULACAN PROVINCE, SHOWING NATIVE METHOD OF CONSTRUCTION.

(No nails or pins are used, the bamboo poles being tied together with rattan. These bridges sustain heavy army wagons.)

in it. Each governor, under instructions from Manila, organized a committee. Where necessary, money was furnished him to carry on the work of making the collections under the direction of himself and his committee. This method proved to be a great success, the governors, without exception, taking a great interest in making a good representation of their provinces.

MINERAL AND AGRICULTURAL EXHIBITS.

In view of the importance of the mineral interests of the islands, the Bureau of Mining has for the last six months had its experts examining the islands to discover the possibilities of systematic mining of gold, making collections of the principal minerals, and gathering information as to their quantity and commercial value. This exhibit, together with copies of the land laws, recently passed, relative to mining and the staking of claims, will show the visitor at St. Louis the possibilities for the future mining industries.

The Bureau of Agriculture will present the results of its investigations in regard to the improvement and more extensive cultivation of the principal staples for export, tobacco and hemp, also the cultivation of rice, sugar, and copra. This bureau has been very active during the last two years, and its experts have visited various southern islands in the Straits Settlements for the study of the production of gutta-percha, rubber, and other valuable tropical products.

The agricultural exhibits, together with such information as can be presented, will be displayed in a large building devoted entirely to that purpose.

THE WORK OF THE GOVERNMENT LABORATORIES.

Very early in the reconstruction of the islands, the United States Government established experiment stations and laboratories to discover the possibilities for the future commerce of the country. Among these were laboratories for the care and protection of animals from disease, for improvements in the methods of culture of rice, sugar, and tobacco, for the development of the gutta-percha and rubber industry, and for the mining of minerals, with which the islands abound. Several bureaus were created for systematic work in these various fields, and the effect upon the country's industries has already been noticeable.

GENERAL FEATURES OF THE EXHIBIT.

The Philippine exhibit will occupy thirty-five acres of beautifully undulating grounds lying south of the great Agricultural Building of the exposition, nearly nine acres of which are covered with forest trees.

To give the visitor an idea of the extent and location of the islands, a great map 125 feet long and 50 feet broad will represent the islands in elevation. It will be built upon a raised platform of cement, and so adjusted that the

visitor can walk around the entire map on a handsome raised platform of bamboo. The map will show the relation of the islands to one another and the waterways between them, and the geographical relation of the whole to Japan on the north, China on the west, and Borneo and the Celebes on the south. The map will give to the visitor a very good idea of the relation of the Philippine Islands to the civilized and uncivilized peoples surrounding them, and the exhibition as a whole will show, as far as possible, their actual position in civilization, art, science, manufactures, and mining.

At the very entrance to the grounds will be a representation of the "Walled City" of Manila, the "Intra-Muros," as it is called by the Spaniards. It will show the massive old Spanish walls surrounded by moats, pierced with embrasures for the guns, and great ports and gateways. This will represent the touch of civilization offered to the islanders by their Spanish rulers.

THE BUILDINGS.

Six large exhibition buildings will be arranged around a central plaza on the high and prominent lands of the reservation. Four of these will occupy each a side of the plaza, and the other two will be placed opposite its diagonal corners. The most prominent of these buildings will be called the Government Building, or *Ayuntamiento*. It will resemble the *Ayuntamiento* in the Spanish capital of Manila. The first floor will contain a large art gallery and representative records, and the second floor will be devoted to offices. The magnificent collection of old paintings, historical and otherwise, loaned to the Government Board by prominent citizens of Manila and other cities of the islands, will be shown in the art gallery.

On the opposite side of the plaza will be the Building of Ethnology, constructed in the form of a cathedral, with three recessed arches on the front. In this will be an exhibition of implements, clothing, utensils, weapons, and other articles showing the customs, habits, and general life of the various races inhabiting the islands. As an object-lesson, this exhibit will be both instructive and attractive.

The other two sides of the plaza will be occupied by the Educational Building, and the building in which the exhibits of mining and fisheries and horticulture will be shown. The last-named building represents a typical Manila dwelling of the higher or cultivated class. The large windows on the first story are covered with iron guards. The stucco walls are done in color. The exhibition rooms are representations of the living-rooms, connected with handsome arches adorned with typical Filipino wood-carving. The supporting columns are the stems of bamboo, and the capitals are representations of the leaves and head of the palm. The frieze is made up of palm leaves fully spread. This building will show the typical overhanging second story, with its sliding shell windows, the shells taking the place of glass. They are the inside half of a variety of scallop, and transmit the light, but exclude the heat.

The building will be filled with exhibits of the various methods of catching and curing fish, also with the collection of minerals representing the mining interests of the islands.

PROGRESS IN EDUCATION.

Directly opposite the fisheries collection is the building for the educational exhibit. Its charts and exhibits will show in graphic form the laws governing education, the methods and progress being made, the number and kinds of schools already established, and between the lines something of the hard work and the self-sacrifice of hundreds of American teachers who are devoting themselves to this work.



A NATIVE GIRL, WITH LOOM, WEAVING, ABRA PROVINCE.



SCENE IN THE HIGHER MOUNTAINS OF BENGUET PROVINCE.

(These mountains are undulating slate and ore, covered with open pine forests, with grass under the trees, but no underbrush. The temperature in the hot season is cool and delightful. Picture shows recently constructed government trail.)

But few persons are aware of the fact that under the school system devised and put into operation by the new civil government, and now thoroughly inaugurated and organized all over the islands, more than two hundred and twenty-five thousand adults and children are learning to read and speak the English language. It is said that only 10 per cent. of the inhabitants in the most highly civilized portion of the islands speak any Spanish, after the four hundred years of occupation by Spanish rulers; but the prophecy is here made that in less than five years the Filipinos who speak English will outnumber tenfold those who have learned to speak Spanish with any degree of fluency.

The teachers sent over from the United States in 1901 have met with the greatest success in their work, and nearly all have renewed their engagements with the government for another two years' period. Old and young are equally anxious to obtain the advantages of the schools, and especially to learn to speak English. Many schools have established an evening session to accommodate the large numbers who crowd into them. As has been tersely remarked, "A nation has gone to school."

EXHIBITS OF FORESTRY AND AGRICULTURE.

The two buildings located at opposite diagonal corners of the plaza, and at a considerable distance from it, are for exhibits of forestry and agriculture, respectively. The Forestry Bureau has made a most interesting collection of the native woods, many of which are unknown outside of the islands. Some of these trees grow to enormous proportions, and slabs and sections of their trunks will be placed on exhibition, polished and unpolished, to show their adaptation for furniture woods. One hundred and fifty or more large logs, each of a different

species, will form the supports for the Forestry Building.

The Agricultural Building will be built almost entirely of bamboo, with a palm covering for the roof. It will be one of the best illustrations of Philippine construction. Forty-one Filipino carpenters are already on the exhibition grounds to take charge of the work of construction, and a fine opportunity is thus presented to observe their methods, which are so unlike those of other nations.

In this building will be shown the various kinds of grain grown in Luzon and the other



A NEGRITO DWELLING, ZAMBALES, WITH NATIVES.

(Showing native shack of great simplicity.)



A TYPICAL SCENE ALONG THE COAST OF LUZON, NORTH OF MANILA.
(The cocoanut palms give a beautiful setting to the native hut below.)

provinces, together with the methods of cultivation of rice. A realistic model of a rice plantation, and an exhibition of the processes used in the cultivation and preparation of Manila hemp for export, will prove of interest.

MILITARY COLLECTIONS.

A leading officer of the United States army has for some time been engaged in getting together a suitable war exhibit. This will consist of maps of the various campaigns made in the islands, with a collection of the weapons, home-made arms, documents, insignia, flags, and accoutrements of every kind captured during the insurrection. Old-time cannon and armaments from the Spanish forts will also be shown. The collection will include arms manufactured or used by the various tribes of islanders. This collection will be shown in the War Building in the Walled City.

NATIVE FILIPINO VILLAGES.

Probably the most interesting exhibits will be the native villages, occupied by the natives themselves. On the southeast quarter of the Philippine grounds is what is now known as Arrowhead Lake. On the borders of this lake the Moro village will be built, the dwellings standing over the water, as in their native land. Farther along the lake, in a northwest direction, and adjoining the Moros, another peculiar tribe,

the Visayans, will erect their dwellings and show their varied industries. They weave especially fine cloth, and make hats and many interesting things. They live in small open bamboo huts, roofed with the Nipa palm. Their domestic habits may be readily observed by the visitors.

The Igorrote village lies still farther up the lake. This will be occupied by about fifty natives. They are an extremely interesting tribe, living wild in the mountains. Although the climate is cool there, they go almost naked. They are very docile and tractable. The noted head-hunters are members of this group. None of their young men was allowed to marry until he had captured the head of an enemy, when he was permitted to take a wife.

POLICED BY NATIVE SOLDIERY.

The grounds will be policed by a battalion of the Filipino constabulary, which constitutes the police force of the islands. This force is made up entirely of native Filipinos, and will eventually supersede the United States troops now in that country. The men are carefully selected, and it is esteemed a high favor to have a place on the force. During the insurrection, one tribe of natives, the Macabebees, remained loyal to the United States army, and were used as scouts. Two hundred of these will be brought over to aid the constabulary in guarding the grounds and buildings.

The Filipinos are good musicians. A fine band of eighty pieces, well trained, will be sent to St. Louis. This band is a part of the constabulary organization, and holds the same relation to it that the Marine Band at Washington does to the regular army. It has, besides its brass, a complete set of orchestral instruments, which were recently presented by the government. Free concerts will be given daily by this organization from a large band-stand.

REPRODUCTION OF PHILIPPINE SCENERY.

Hundreds of natives are being selected in the various parts of the islands for the exposition. There will be more than a thousand in all. They will all live on the grounds.

The grounds will be attractive and the buildings unique. The nine acres of forest will be made to represent, in some respects, a Philippine forest, and the introduction of the huts of the tree-dwellers and other novelties will form a striking picture. The Oriental character of the twelve buildings now under construction, the fifty or more native shacks comprising the villages along the banks of the lake, and the swarthy boatmen of the Orient urging their peculiar craft through lake and moat under the shadow of the Walled City will make up a scene truly picturesque, realistic, and instructive. Probably nothing else connected with the St. Louis Exposition will attract greater interest or be more instructive than this exhibition of the Philippine government.

A REPRESENTATIVE FILIPINO COMMISSION.

Under the act creating the Exposition Board, provision was made for the appointment of five honorary commissioners, who will visit the exposition and the United States in 1904. These honorary commissioners will be selected from the most representative Filipino families, and it is hoped that their study of conditions in the United States, and their subsequent report on the same, will give to the people of the Philippine Islands a more comprehensive idea of the government of the United States, and instill in their minds a greater degree of confidence in its aims and purposes with respect to its administration of Philippine affairs.



A GROUP OF NATIVE CONSTABULARY AT MALABON.

(The withdrawal of the regular army is being slowly accomplished by replacing it through the organization of a native police force for all the islands, called the "constabulary." This picture shows a group of fourteen members of this organization.)

MR. MORLEY'S "GLADSTONE."*

BY W. T. STEAD.

[Undoubtedly the most important literary production of the present year,—at least in the English language,—is Mr. John Morley's "Life" of the late William E. Gladstone. An adequate biography of the great English statesman must needs be voluminous, even if it were carefully to avoid the character of a political history of the nineteenth century. It would hardly be possible to find a reviewer of Mr. Morley's great work so sympathetic and so competent as Mr. Stead, whose journalistic labors in England were for so long a time and at so many critical points brilliantly identified with the support of Mr. Gladstone's policies. Furthermore, when Mr. John Morley was editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, before he left journalism to enter upon his Parliamentary career, Mr. Stead was his associate editor, and became his successor as chief of the staff. Mr. Stead has always retained his great admiration for Mr. Morley, and has almost always been able to agree with Mr. Morley's views as to questions of British statesmanship and public policy.—THE EDITOR.]

THE life of *pious Aeneas* by *fidus Achates*. Emphatically *pious Aeneas*, not less emphatically *fidus Achates*. But it is more than that. With a vivid remembrance of the life of Cobden, I feared that this new book might be an overgrown political pamphlet, a cross between history and biography. I close the book with pleasurable disappointment. This is literature, a book worthy of the greatest of English statesmen by one of the greatest of English men of letters.

FIDUS ACHATES.

And Mr. Morley is *fidus Achates* indeed, notwithstanding the gulf which divides him from the religious beliefs of his hero. In his introduction he touches briefly and delicately upon the subject. He says :

The detailed history of Mr. Gladstone as theologian and churchman will not be found in these pages. . . . No amount of candor and good faith can be a substitute for the confidence and ardor of an adherent in the heart of those to whom the Church stands first.

There is, however, as he says, some trace of compensation in this. "For churches also have their parties," and they acquiesce in Mr. Morley's unveiling the life of Mr. Gladstone, as Latin and Greek agree to leave the Holy Sepulcher in the charge of the Turkish infidel.

WHEN AENEAS FIRST MET ACHATES.

Mr. Gladstone first met Mr. Morley one week-end at Sir John Lubbock's country seat. Huxley was there, and Playfair. On the Sunday afternoon, the party walked up the hill from High Elms "to the hill-top, whence in his quiet country village Darwin was shaking the world" :

When we broke up, watching Mr. Gladstone's erect, alert figure as he walked away, Darwin, shading his

eyes with his hand against the evening rays, said to me, in unaffected satisfaction, "What an honor that such a man should come to visit me !"

In his diary, Mr. Gladstone made no mention of his visit to Darwin, but records that "He found a notable party, and much interesting conversation," and that "he could not help liking" one of the company, then a stranger to him.

The stranger whom he could not help liking, in 1877, remained more or less a stranger until the eventful year when, with Mr. Morley as his chief secretary, he took the famous home-rule plunge. From that day he became *fidus Achates*. In a foot-note at the end of the third volume we are glad to read :

One poor biographic item perhaps the tolerant reader will not grudge me leave to copy from Mr. Gladstone's diary : "October 6th, 1892.—Saw J. Morley, and made him envoy to —. He is, on the whole, about the best stay I have."—(Page 499.)

After years of faithful service as his home-rule henchman, Mr. Morley has now paid the last honor to his illustrious chief by rearing to his memory in these volumes a monument more durable than brass.

I.—OF THE BOOK AND ITS AUTHOR.

The personal reminiscences of Mr. Gladstone furnished by Mr. Morley are necessarily confined to the last fifteen years of his life, and are almost entirely contained in the third volume of the biography. In the history before 1880 we only glean a few scattered allusions to Mr. Gladstone's sayings, as, for instance, that he would never discuss with Mr. Morley either De Maistre or Machiavel, that he entertained invincible heresies on the subject of copyright, and so forth. But in the third volume the personal contribution is copious.

* "The Life of W. E. Gladstone." By John Morley. Three volumes. 425 pp. (Macmillan.)



RT. HON. JOHN MORLEY, M.P.

[Mr. John Morley, the authorized biographer of Gladstone, was born in Lancashire, in 1838. After taking his degree at Lincoln College, Oxford, he engaged in literary work in London, becoming editor, successively, of the *Literary Gazette*, the *Fortnightly Review* (1867-82), and *Macmillan's Magazine*. During Mr. Morley's editorship of the *Fortnightly*, there were published his "Critical Miscellanies," his monographs on "Voltaire," "Rousseau," and "Diderot and the Encyclopædists," his "Life of Edmund Burke" in the "English Men of Letters Series," and his "Life of Cobden." In 1880, he became editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and in 1883 was returned to Parliament for Newcastle-upon-Tyne. Twice, under Mr. Gladstone (in 1886 and again in 1892-95), Mr. Morley was Chief Secretary for Ireland. Since 1896, he has represented Montrose Burghs, Scotland, in Parliament. In addition to the titles already named, Mr. Morley's publications include "Walpole" (1880), "Studies in Literature" (1891), and "Oliver Cromwell" (1900).]

THE INTEREST OF THE STORY.

In the biography of Mr. Gladstone, his reminiscences of his childhood, the stories of his schooldays, the record of his life at the university, are of more general interest to the general reader than the narrative of his political adventures prior to the year 1860. It is possible that some will put that date further forward, a few may push it backward. But the ups and downs of the political hurly-burly have no perennial interest for the children of men, excepting for those who have themselves participated in the struggle, the fierce raptures of which find faint expression in the pages of the historian. The experiences of the child, the boy, and the man never cease to interest. The human charm is indestructible by time, while the purely political interest evaporates in a few years.

THE LIFTED VEIL.

Mr. Gladstone lived so much in the open, he wore his heart so constantly upon his sleeve, and played his great part under the blaze of such brilliant footlights, that the eager hunter after new and sensational revelations will find these volumes a somewhat barren field. These truffles of history that have not been long ago unearthed are few and far between. There are some, however, which will attract universal attention, especially those which are of comparatively recent date. Mr. Morley has allowed himself great liberty in revealing what are known as cabinet secrets, which no one is supposed to reveal until all the actors are dead. That he has had full warrant for doing so from the highest authority is admitted, and the permission to remove the veil which conceals the proceedings of ministerial conclaves from the public eye adds much to the interest of his book. It can hardly be said to minister to edification or to raise the public estimation of the character of cabinets.—at least of those cabinets in which Mr. Chamberlain was a member. The picture which Mr. Morley gives of the last months of Mr. Gladstone's cabinet that expired in 1885 is melancholy indeed.

MR. MORLEY'S STYLE.

Of Mr. Morley's style it may be said that while it preserves his admirable qualities of lucidity and limpidity, he has quickened the familiar, sententious, stately march of his prose, and has often arrayed his thought in a somewhat unaccustomed splendor of apparel. The diction is as nervous and sinewy as of old; but at times there is a rush, a glow, and a fervor that is a welcome improvement upon the austere severity of some of his books.

II.—BOYHOOD AND YOUTH.

In his old age, after his last retirement, Mr. Gladstone jotted down many reminiscences of past years. He speaks much more warmly of his father than of his mother, although to her also he pays a warm filial tribute. Of his father he wrote: "None but his children can know what torrents of tenderness flowed from his heart." His account of his childhood is interesting.

HIS CHILDHOOD.

The boy hardly appears to have been in his case the father of the man. He says:

I have no recollection of being a loving or a winning child; or an earnest, or diligent, or knowledge-loving child. I was not a devotional child. I have no recollection of early love for the house of God and for divine service.—(Vol. I., p. 18.)

If I was not a bad boy, I think that I was a boy with a great absence of goodness. I received, unless my memory deceives me, very little benefit from teaching.—(Ib., p. 14.)

I went to Eton in 1821, after a pretty long spell in a very middling state of preparation, and wholly without any knowledge or other enthusiasm, unless it was a priggish love of argument which I had begun to develop.—(Ib., p. 15.)

Developed probably by the fact that it was—

John Gladstone's habit to discuss all sorts of questions with his children, and nothing was ever taken for granted between him and his sons.—(Ib., p. 19.)

He used to teach pretty regularly on Sundays in the Sunday-school built by his father, near the Primrose Bridge.

AT ETON.

At Eton, Mr. Gladstone said, in those days "the actual teaching of Christianity was all but dead." Mr. Morley remarks that—

the ancient and pious munificence of Henry VI. now inspired a scene that was essentially little better than pagan modified by an official Church of England varnish.—(Ib., p. 28.)

Mr. Gladstone as a schoolboy showed no trace of Mr. Gladstone the statesman. He says:

I had read Froissart and Hume with Smollett, but only of the battles, and always skipping when I came to the sections headed "A Parliament."—(Ib., p. 29.)

At first "I remained stagnant, without heart or hope." A change arrived when he was thirteen.

HE WAKES UP.

Hawtrey became his teacher, and he started studying in earnest. He wrote long letters home, read copiously, began to make speeches, and contributed to the *Eton Miscellany*, of which he was

the joint editor with G. Selwyn. He left Eton in 1827, when he was eighteen. In 1828, he entered Christchurch, Oxford. Mr. Morley says :

Toryism of a stolid, clownish type still held the thrones of collegiate power. Yet the eye of an imaginative scholar, as he gazed upon the gray walls, reared by piety, munificence, and love of learning in a far-off time, might well discern behind an unattractive screen of academic sloth the venerable past, not dim and cold, but in its traditions rich, nourishing, and alive. It is from Gladstone's introduction into this enchanted and inspiring world that we recognize the beginning of the wonderful course that was to show how great a thing the life of a man may be made.—(*Ib.*, p. 48.)

AT OXFORD.

At first at Oxford he took his studies pretty easy for eighteen months. He was in those days a fervent Evangelical. An entry in his diary (April 25, 1830), says Mr. Morley, is a sentence that reveals what was in Mr. Gladstone the nourishing principle of growth :

In practice the great end is that the love of God may become the habit of my soul, and particularly these things are to be sought : 1. The spirit of love. 2. Of self-sacrifice. 3. Of purity. 4. Of energy.—(*Ib.*, p. 52.)

In all his letters in the period from Eton to the end of Oxford, and later, says Mr. Morley, a language noble and exalted even in these youthful days is not seldom copiously streaked with a vein that, to eyes, not trained to evangelical light, and to minds not tolerant of the expansion that comes to religious natures in the days of adolescence, may seem unpleasantly strained and excessive. The fashion of such words undergoes transfiguration as the epochs pass. Yet in all their fashions, even the crudest, they deserve much tenderness.—(*Ib.*, p. 56.)

PROPOSES TO ENTER THE CHURCH.

He was brilliantly successful as a student, taking a double first, but his mind turned toward the Christian ministry. He wrote to his father in 1832 :

I am willing to persuade myself that in spite of other longings which I often feel, my heart is prepared to yield other hopes and other desires for this,—of being permitted to be the humblest of those who may be commissioned to set before the eyes of man, still great even in his ruins, the magnificence and the glory of Christian truth.—(Vol. I., p. 83.)

Politics, however, he admitted, were "fascinating, too fascinating." With the following extract from his diary at the end of 1831 we may close these quotations from the story of his life at Oxford :

One conclusion, theoretically, has been much on my mind : it is the increased importance and necessity and benefit of prayer, of the life of obedience and self-sacrifice. May God use me as a vessel for his own purposes, of whatever character and results in relation to myself. May the God who loves us all still vouchsafe me a testimony of his abiding presence in the protracted though

well-nigh dormant life of a desire which at times has risen high in my soul, a fervent and a buoyant hope that I might work an energetic work on this world, and by that work (whereof the worker is only God) I might grow into the image of the Redeemer.—(*Ib.*, p. 84.)

Looking back in after life upon this period of his career, Mr. Gladstone says :

I was possessed through and through with a single-minded and passionate love of truth, with a virgin love of truth, so that, although I might be swathed in clouds of prejudice, there was something of an eye within that might gradually pierce them.—(*Ib.*, p. 85.)

III.—HIS POLITICAL EVOLUTION.

It is impossible here to follow Mr. Gladstone's career step by step across the century. Suffice it to note that when he first became member of Parliament for Newark he was dominated by a dread of social convulsion.

HIS EARLY TORYISM.

After the election of 1835 he wrote :

That we have now some prospect of surviving the reform bill without a bloody revolution is to me as surprising as delightful. It seems the greatest and most providential mercy with which a nation was ever visited.—(Vol. I., p. 122.)

When Cobden began his agitation for the repeal of the Corn Law, Mr. Gladstone would have none of it, or of him. Writing in later years of this youthful error, he said :

I regarded the Anti-Corn Law League as no better than a big borough-mongering association. Such was my first offense in the matter of protection, redeemed from public condemnation only by obscurity.—(Vol. I., p. 232.)

When Cobden died, Mr. Gladstone had long repented of the folly and misjudgment of his youth. He wrote :

I do not know that I have ever seen in public life a character more truly simple, noble, and unselfish.—(Vol. II., p. 148.)

HIS CONVERSION TO FREE TRADE.

As he said, it was experience that altered his politics. It is interesting to note that, when he embarked upon a policy of inquiry into the fiscal system as vice-president of the Board of Trade, when retaliation was in full swing, he was converted to free trade. He says :

My assumption of office at the Board of Trade was followed by hard, steady, and honest work ; and every day so spent beat like a battering ram on the unsure fabric of my official protectionism.—(Vol. I., p. 250.)

ODD FORECASTS AND GROSS ERRORS.

In those early days it is interesting to note that James Stephen thought well of Mr. Gladstone, but doubted if he had pugnacity enough for public life.—(Vol. I., p. 127.)

Mr. Disraeli was reported as saying that with his resignation of Maynooth, Mr. Gladstone's career was over.—(Vol. I., p. 276.)

One very extraordinary fact not generally known is that about that time Mr. Gladstone entertained the idea of being accredited to Rome as minister to the Vatican. Mr. Gladstone, writing in 1896, says that about the time of his resignation he became impressed with the idea that

there was about to be a renewal in some shape of our diplomatic (relations) with the See of Rome, and I believe that I committed the gross error of tendering myself to Sir Robert Peel to fill the post of envoy.—(Vol. I., p. 272.)

Sir Robert Peel, "with great propriety," made no answer to the suggestion, which to Mr. Gladstone, in his later years, seemed neither rational nor excusable.

DISRAELI AND MR. GLADSTONE.

"Nobody ever had fewer secrets than Mr. Gladstone. Nobody," says Mr. Morley, "ever lived and wrought in fuller sunlight."—(Vol. I., p. 6.)

But it has been a well-kept secret, that in 1858 Mr. Disraeli addressed a long letter to Mr. Gladstone, in which he urged him to join Lord Derby's cabinet. Disraeli's letter is a very curious one. It set forth "a brief narrative," the gist of which was that in 1850, and again in 1855, Disraeli had endeavored to throw the game into Mr. Gladstone's hands. In 1855, he suggested that the leadership should be offered to Lord Palmerston, "entirely with the view of consulting your feelings and facilitating your position."

On a third occasion, he had suggested to Sir James Graham that he should accept the post of leader and "allow both of us to serve under him."

Thus you see, for more than eight years, instead of thrusting myself into the foremost place, I have been at all times actively prepared to make every sacrifice of self for the public good, which I have ever thought identical with your accepting office in a Conservative government. Don't you think that the time has come when you might deign to be magnanimous?—(Vol. I., p. 588.)

Mr. Gladstone did not rise to the bait. His reply was somewhat stiff:

You consider that the relations between yourself and me have proved the main difficulty in the way of certain political arrangements. Will you allow me to assure you that I have never in my life taken a decision which turned upon those relations.—(Ib., p. 589.)

And so forth, and so forth. This thought of Disraeli and Gladstone both sitting in the same cabinet is almost as *bizarre* as that of Mr. Gladstone minister at the Papal court.

A HUMBLE CONFESSION OF FAULT.

Mr. Gladstone, when nearing the grave, wrote many notes which served Mr. Morley well as material for the biography. In some of these he proclaims his manifold imperfections, and makes humble confession of his sins. The most remarkable instance of this penitential attitude is afforded by his humble acknowledgment of the gross blunder which he committed when, in 1862, he publicly declared, at a time when he was a minister of the crown, that Jefferson Davis had made a nation. Writing in 1896 he says:

I have yet to record an undoubted error, the most singular and palpable, I may add the least excusable of them all, especially since it was committed so late as the year 1862, when I had outlived half a century.

After describing the significance of his remark, Mr. Gladstone says:

Strange to say, this declaration, most unwarrantable to be made by a minister of the crown with no authority other than his own, was not due to any feeling of partisanship for the South or hostility to the North. . . . I weakly supposed that the time had come when respectful suggestions of this kind, founded on the necessity of the case, were required by a spirit of that friendship which, in so many contingencies of life, has to offer sound recommendations with a knowledge that they will not be popular. Not only was this a misjudgment of the case; but even if it had been otherwise, I was not the person to make the declaration. I really, though most strangely, believed that it was an act of friendliness to all America to recognize that the struggle was virtually at an end. . . . That my opinion was founded upon a false estimate of the facts was the very least part of my fault. I did not perceive the gross impropriety of such an utterance from a cabinet minister. . . . My offense was, indeed, only a mistake, but one of incredible grossness, and with such consequences of offense and alarm attached to it, that my failing to perceive them justly exposed me to very severe blame. It illustrates vividly that incapacity which my mind so long retained, and perhaps still exhibits, an incapacity of viewing subjects all round in their extraneous as well as in their internal properties, and thereby of knowing when to be silent and when to speak.—(Vol. II., pp. 81-82.)

Was there ever more noble and self-abasing a recognition of a great blunder?

IV.—FROM BULGARIA TO MIDLOTHIAN.

I turned with some degree of anxiety to the chapter on what seems to some of us to be the supreme and culminating point of Mr. Gladstone's career. The heroic and forlorn hope which he headed in the home-rule cause naturally appeals more to Mr. Morley than the magnificent, and on the whole the successful, attack which Mr. Gladstone made on the Turkish Alli-

ance. But the story of the great campaign, which began with the publication of the pamphlet on the Bulgarian horrors and culminated in the ever-memorable Midlothian campaign, is told by Mr. Morley with verve and sympathetic appreciation.

WHAT STARTED MR. GLADSTONE.

It is exceedingly interesting to know, on the authority of Mr. Gladstone himself, that but for the efforts of the faithful few who bestirred themselves in getting up atrocity meetings in August, his famous pamphlet on the Bulgarian horrors might never have been written. He wrote :

"I went into the country, and had mentally postponed all further action to the opening of the next session, when I learned from the announcement of a popular meeting to be held in Hyde Park that the question was alive."

This was not the only cause that spurred him to action. At the same time that news of contemplated indignation meetings began pouring into Hawarden, Mr. Gladstone received one of the most pathetic and piteous appeals which a broken-hearted woman ever addressed to one of the most chivalrous of men. About the share which Madame Novikoff had in prompting Mr. Gladstone to the action which, as he said, made him leader again whether he would or no, Mr. Morley is silent. He refers to Madame Novikoff as a "Russian lady who at this time began to exercise a marked influence upon the opinions of important men, with much influence on the opinions of many other people" (Vol. II., p. 557); and in a foot-note he adds: "The story of the heroic death of Colonel Kireeff, her brother, was vividly told by Kinglake in the introduction to the cabinet edition of his 'Invasion of the Crimea.' This episode is supposed by some to have helped to intensify Mr. Gladstone's feeling on the issues of the Eastern war."

MR. GLADSTONE ON LORD SALISBURY.

Mr. Gladstone, in those days,—eighteen months before the fatal Congress of Berlin that reënslaved Macedonia,—believed in Lord Salisbury. When that nobleman was appointed plenipotentiary at the Conference of Constantinople. Mr. Gladstone sent to Madame Novikoff the following admirable thumb-nail sketch of the late prime minister :

I think it right at once to give you my opinion of Lord Salisbury, whom I know pretty well in private. He has little foreign or Eastern knowledge, and little craft; he is very remarkably clever, of unsure judgment, but is above anything mean; has no Disraelite prejudices; keeps a conscience, and has plenty of man-

hood and character. In a word, the appointment of Lord Salisbury to Constantinople is the best thing the Government has yet done in the Eastern Question.—(*Ib.*, p. 560.)

HIS CORRESPONDENCE WITH MADAME NOVIKOFF.

The war broke out. At every stage of that tremendous struggle Mr. Gladstone kept Madame Novikoff posted as to the situation in England. If he had been foreign minister and she the Czar, he could not have been more careful to answer every question she asked or to keep her posted as to the current of affairs in England. He freely denounced the conduct of Lord Beaconsfield's administration, whose action, he declared, was the most deplorable chapter of our foreign policy since the peace of 1815.

The Jingo mob broke Mr. Gladstone's windows in the early months of 1878. In midsummer, the City and Pall Mall went delirious over that "Peace with Honor,"—which is now recognized as one of the most infamous jobs of modern times,—consisting, as it did, chiefly of the filching of Cyprus and the reënslavement of Macedonia. But in November of that year Mr. Gladstone saw the beginning of the end. He wrote to Madame Novikoff on November 1: "My opinion is that this government is moving to its doom, and I hope the day of Lord Granville's succession may be within a twelvemonth. It is not to be desired that this should take place at once. The people want a little more experience of Beaconsfield Toryism."—(*Ib.*, p. 583.)

They got it in the Afghan and Zulu wars. And then came the crowning triumph of Midlothian.

THE MIDLOTHIAN CAMPAIGN.

Mr. Morley, replying to the hypercriticism of those who carp at the series of marvelous orations by which Mr. Gladstone hewed Beaconsfieldism to the ground, nobly vindicates the Midlothian campaign in the following passage of genuine eloquence :

In a word, it was a man,—a man impressing himself upon the kindled throngs by the depth of his vision, by the power of his stroke. Physical resources had much to do with the effect,—his overflowing vivacity, the fine voice and flashing eye, and a whole frame in free, ceaseless, natural, and spontaneous motion. So he bore his hearers through long chains of strenuous periods, calling up by the marvelous transformations of his mien a strange succession of images,—as if he were now a keen hunter, now some eager bird of prey, now a charioteer of fiery steeds kept well in hand, and now and again we seemed to hear the pity or dark wrath of a prophet, with the mighty rushing wind and the fire running along the ground. All this was Mr. Gladstone in Midlothian. To think of the campaign without the scene is as who should read a play by

candlelight among the ghosts of an empty theater.—(*Ib.*, p. 598.)

HOW THE VICTORY WAS RECEIVED.

All the world knows the result. But it is not so well known how it affected the two great leaders in the fray. Mr. Morley tells us of Lord Beaconsfield :

From one in confidential relations with him, and who saw much of him at this moment, I have heard that the fallen minister, who had counted on a very different result, now faced the ruin of his government, the end of his career, and the overwhelming triumph of his antagonist with an unclouded serenity and a greatness of mind worthy of a man who had known high fortunes and filled to the full the measure of his gifts and his ambitions.—(*Ib.*, p. 612.)

Mr. Gladstone himself chronicled his own sentiment in a letter to the Duke of Argyll :

April 12, 1880.—All our heads are still in a whirl from the great events of the last fortnight, which have given joy, I am convinced, to the large majority of the civilized world. The downfall of Beaconsfieldism is like the vanishing of some vast magnificent castle in an Italian romance. It is too big, however, to be taken in all at once.—(*Ib.*, p. 615.)

It was the culminating point of Mr. Gladstone's triumphant career. After Midlothian came bitter disillusion, a long series of disappointments, and ultimate defeat.

V.—UP TO HOME RULE, AND AFTER.

As might have been expected, it is in the third volume, in the story of Mr. Gladstone's heroic effort to carry home rule, that Mr. Morley is at his best. At his best because, in these chapters more than in any other, he lets himself go. You have Morley stripped to the buff ; the restrained, austere precision disappears. We have no longer a philosophic historian weighing out judgment with a steel meteyard. We have the passionate hero-worshiper, describing with a glow of unusual and sustained eloquence the exploits of his illustrious chief. In these chapters, notably in the tragic tale of Mr. Parnell's catastrophe, Mr. Morley rises to heights untouched before. It is a new Morley that we meet in these pages, a Morley glowing with the fervor of his earlier manhood, a Morley who is still hot with the press and throng of battle, who chants as an exultant war-song the story of the prowess of his chief. There is a splendid swing in the movement of this stirring theme. In those times of *sturm und drang*, Mr. Morley was "the chief stay" of Mr. Gladstone. He was with him in the moments of high exultation and of deep depression. He was a friend trusty in council who failed not, neither was weary, and who, when old friends fell from the old veteran like

leaves in autumn, clave to him with a love greater than that of a brother.

HOME RULE INEVITABLE.

What wonder is it, then, that in these final pages there is more of the drum-and-trumpet style than is found elsewhere in the sober-tinted prose of the rest of the book ? But with all his unusual *abandon*, Mr. Morley never loses his grip upon the story which he has to tell. His narrative of how home rule forced itself upon Mr. Gladstone is a masterpiece of art. Even the stoutest Unionist who reads it can hardly resist the conviction that Mr. Gladstone could not, and indeed ought not to, have come to any other conclusion. Mr. Morley has rendered Ireland many services, but, as an appeal to the intelligence of reasonable Englishmen, nothing that he has ever said or written can be compared for subtle force and irresistible cogency of appeal to the chapters in which he describes how it was that Mr. Gladstone was forced to take up home rule. When the first rush for the book is over, I hope that the home-rule chapters will be reprinted and circulated by the million for the instruction and inspiration of the electorate. Hitherto, many even of stout Gladstonians have sometimes felt ill at ease when challenged to account for what seemed to outsiders the suddenness of his conversion. Mr. Morley, with really marvelous skill, succeeds in demonstrating how utterly impossible it was for anybody in Mr. Gladstone's position to have done anything but what Mr. Gladstone did,—after the line taken by the Conservatives in 1885 and the overwhelming vote of the Irish electors at the first general election in which the peasants were enfranchised.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN,—HOME-RULER.

There is a good deal of light shed upon the relations between Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Chamberlain. After the 1880 election, "Mr. Gladstone was not in the least alive to the importance of the leaders of the Radical section, and had never dreamed of them for the cabinet." He was soon rudely undeceived, and the "pushful one" lost no time in forcing himself upon a reluctant prime minister as an indispensable colleague. In 1885, Mr. Gladstone was quite prepared to sacrifice Mr. Chamberlain rather than allow him and his colleague to enforce their *quasi* home-rule policy upon the majority of the cabinet. In October, 1885, Mr. Chamberlain went down to Hawarden and had a good deal of conversation with Mr. Gladstone. "Chamberlain," Mr. Gladstone wrote to Lord Granville, "is a good man to talk to, not only from his

force and clearness, but because he speaks with reflection, does not misapprehend, or (I think) suspect, or make unnecessary difficulties, or endeavor to maintain pedantically the uniformity and consistency of his argument throughout."

MR. GLADSTONE'S MISSION.

Of Ireland the second and third volumes are full. There is a fine story told by Mr. Evelyn Ashley of how, on December 1, 1868, Mr. Gladstone was cutting down a tree in his shirt-sleeves, at Hawarden, when the telegram came saying that General Grey would arrive that evening from Windsor. He read it, remarked "Very significant," and went on with his chopping. After a few minutes the blows ceased, and Mr. Gladstone, resting on the handle of his axe, looked up, and with deep earnestness in his face, exclaimed, "My mission is to pacify Ireland." He then resumed his task, and never said another word till the tree was down. Next day, General Grey came with the summons from the Queen to form the administration that disestablished the Irish Church and passed the land act. Two years later, he wrote to Lord Russell, reminding him of a saying of his which struck him ineffaceably in 1839 :

The true key to our Irish debates was this, that it was not properly borne in mind that as England is inhabited by Englishmen, and Scotland by Scotchmen, so Ireland is inhabited by Irishmen.—(Vol. I., p. 180.)

Yet even in the previous year, when he was framing his first Irish land bill,

it was deemed heinously wrong to ascertain directly from their representatives what the Irish tenants thought.—(Vol. IV., p. 292.)

Mr. Morley, in describing the Irish agrarian legislation of Mr. Gladstone, invokes the mighty shade of the Lord Protector :

"These poor people," said Cromwell, "have been accustomed to as much injustice and oppression from their landlords, the great men, and those who should have done them right, as any people in that which we call Christendom." It was just two hundred and twenty years before another ruler of England saw as deep, and applied his mind to the free doing of justice.—(*Ib.*, p. 287.)

MR. PARNELL IN COUNCIL.

I have no space to follow the story, the heroic story, of his effort to fulfill the mission that he accepted that December day in 1868, but I must include this brilliant bit of portraiture of Mr. Parnell in council with Mr. Morley over the home-rule bill :

Mr. Parnell showed himself acute, frank, patient, closely attentive, and possessed of striking though not

rapid insight. He never slurred over difficulties, nor tried to pretend that rough was smooth. On the other hand, he had nothing in common with that desperate species of counsellor who takes all the small points and raises objections instead of helping to contrive expedients. He measured the ground with a slow and careful eye, and fixed tenaciously on the thing that was essential at the moment. Of constructive faculty he never showed a trace. He was a man of temperament, of will, of authority, of power ; not of ideas, or ideals, or knowledge, or political maxims, or even of the practical in any of its higher senses, as Hamilton, Madison, and Jefferson had practical reason. But he knew what he wanted.—(Vol. III., p. 304.)

"Very clever, very clever," was Mr. Gladstone's comments upon Mr. Parnell, when he first met him in council ; where, Mr. Morley says, the Irish leader showed himself "extraordinarily close, tenacious, and sharp."

PARNELL'S EXIT.

The whole tragic story of Parnell is told with the power of a master. Mr. Morley goes through it with passionate sympathy right down to the dark and desolate days just before "the Veiled Shadow stole upon the scene and the world learned that Parnell was no more." In those days :

Undaunted by repulse upon repulse, he tore over from England to Ireland and back again, week after week and month after month, hoarse and haggard, seamed by somber passions, waving the shreds of a tattered flag. Ireland must have been a hell on earth to him.

"No more lamentable chapter is to be found in all the demented scroll of aimless and untoward things that seem as if they made up the history of Ireland."

VI.—ESTIMATES OF MR. GLADSTONE.

Mr. Gladstone once said to Mr. Morley :

I do not think that I can tax myself in my own life with ever having been much moved by ambition.—(Vol. I., p. 217.)

Mr. Morley nearly jumped from his chair on hearing this declaration, but afterward he admits he could see the truth of it as Mr. Gladstone meant it. Of the ordinary selfish ambition he had none. Of the ambition to achieve noble ends by noble means,—of that ambition he was all compact.

HIS OWN.

His own estimate of his own gifts, given in one of his autobiographic notes, was as follows :

I am by no means sure, upon a calm review, that Providence has endowed me with anything that can be called a striking gift. But if there be such a thing intrusted to me, it has been shown at certain political

junctures, in what may be termed appreciations of the general situation and its results. To make good the idea, this must not be considered as the simple acceptance of public opinion, founded upon the discernment that it has risen to a certain height needful for a given work, like a tide. It is an insight into the fact of particular eras, and their relation one to another, which generates in the mind a conviction that the materials exist for forming a public opinion and for directing it to a particular end. There are four occasions of my life with respect to which I think these considerations may be applicable. They are these: (1) The renewal of the income tax in 1853; (2) the proposal of religious equality for Ireland, 1868. . . . [Mr. Morley adds, "The remaining two will appear in good time."]—(Vol. II., p. 240.)

Mr. Gladstone, that is, in brief, was a discern-er of the signs of the times. He knew when the cat was about to jump better than any man; but he never hesitated to twist its tail in order to expedite the jumping if the cat did not fulfill his expectations. He was, in one sense, a supreme opportunist. As Mr. Morley says:

When acts of policy were not of great or immediate concern, he took them as they came; but when they pressed for treatment and determination, then he swooped down upon them with the strength and vision of an eagle.—(Vol. II., p. 284.)

MR. MORLEY'S ESTIMATE.

Mr. Morley gives us many estimates of his hero, a few of which I extract here:

He, beyond all other modern statesmen, with perhaps here and there a doubtful exception, gave us the impression of a man who regarded politics as a part of Christian duty.—(Vol. II., p. 506.)

He presented the world with the astonishing spectacle of a politician with the microscopic subtlety of a thirteenth-century schoolman wielding at will the new democracy in what has been called "the country of plain men."—(Vol. I., p. 4.)

Not for two centuries since the historic strife of Anglican and Puritan had our island produced a ruler in whom the religious motive was paramount in the like degree. He was not only a political force. He strove to use all the powers of his own genius and the powers of state for moral purposes and religious. Nevertheless, his mission in all its forms was action.—(Ib., pp. 2-3.)

Lord Salisbury called him a great Christian; and nothing could be more true or better worth saying. He not only accepted the doctrines of that faith as he believed them to be held by his own communion; he sedulously strove to apply the noblest moralities of it to the affairs both of his own nation and of the commonwealth of nations. It was a supreme experiment. People will, perhaps, some day wonder that many of those who derided the experiment and reproached its author failed to see that they were making manifest in this a wholesale skepticism as to truths that they professed to prize, far deeper and more destructive than the doubt and disbeliefs of the Gentiles in the outer courts.—(Pages 3-4.)

Well was it said of him, "You have so lived and wrought that you have kept the soul alive in England." Not in England only was this felt.

On the day that Gladstone died it was said, not by an Englishman, "The world has lost its greatest citizen."—(Ib., p. 5.)

His inexhaustible patience, his active attention and industry, his steadfast courage, his talent in debate and the work of Parliament; his genius in espying, employing, creating political occasions, all made him, after prolonged conflict against impediments of every kind, one of the imposing figures of his time.—(Vol. II., p. 245.)

Mr. Morley says that in a horoscope cast for Mr. Gladstone by Bulwer Lytton,

One curious sentence declares Mr. Gladstone to be "at heart a solitary man." Here I have often thought that the stars knew what they were about.—(Vol. I., p. 197.)

CHARACTERISTICS.

In the chapter on "Characteristics," Mr. Morley attempts an analysis of the most notable features of Mr. Gladstone's character. It is curious to note that Mr. Morley bestows the dignity of capital letters to the qualities which he attributes to Mr. Gladstone, an honor which he refuses to a multitude of words, such as Catholic, Vatican, etc., usually capitalized. But Mr. Morley has always been original in his use of capitals. He says of Mr. Gladstone:

He was never very ready to talk about himself, but when asked what he regarded as his master secret, he always said "*Concentration*." . . . There was nobody like him when it came to difficult business, for bending his whole strength to it, like a mighty archer stringing a stiff bow.—(Vol. I., p. 186.)

After concentration, Mr. Morley regards courage as the chief Gladstonian characteristic. As to his humor, opinion is divided, but in force of moral and political imagination he had no superior among the rulers of England. He abounded in native capacity for righteous anger. He had it under severe control, having succeeded in the struggle since he was twenty-three.

. . . First by the natural power of his character, and second by incessant wrestling in prayer,—prayer that had been abundantly answered.—(Ib., p. 189.)

He had an unequalled gift of throwing his mind into the common stock. He knew that not all questions are for all times. He was consummate in oratory. To great physical advantages for bearing the orator's scepter was joined "the gift and glory of words" (Ib., p. 191). "Active hatred of cruelty, injustice, and oppression is, perhaps, the main difference between a good man and a bad man; and here Mr. Gladstone was sublime." Yet he was exceedingly charitable, and held closely to the command, Judge not that ye be not judged. But "the fundamental fact of Mr. Gladstone's history was religion. One of the strangest things in

Mr. Gladstone's growth and career was the unconscious raising of a partially Rousseauite structure on the foundation laid by Burke. Possibly he went no further for this than the Sermon on the Mount, where so many secret elements of social volcano slumber." "Life was to him in all its aspects an application of Christian teaching and example. If we like to put it so, he was steadfast for making politics more human, and no branch of civilized life needs humanizing more." In his early days, he said :

I contemplate secular affairs chiefly as a means of being useful in Church affairs.—(*Ib.*, p. 183.)

And to the last his devotion to the Church never wavered.

MIRTH AND GOOD MANNERS.

Yet he was a merry man. He relaxed the severe rule of his youth which debarred him from the theater.

He delighted in good comedy, and he reproached Mr. Morley severely for caring less than one ought to do for the "Merry Wives of Windsor."

He laughed till the perspiration ran off him at Lord Dundreary's inanities. He had a good musical voice, used to sing at night, and rumor hath it, although Mr. Morley does not stoop to the detail, that he was inimitable in the nigger minstrel song of "Camptown Races."

What is certain is that nobody of his time was a finer example of high good manners and genuine courtesy than Mr. Gladstone himself.—(*Ib.*, p. 213.)

Mr. Gladstone might be playful, courteous, reserved, gracious, silent, but the House always knew that he had a sledge-hammer behind his back, ready for work on every anvil in that resounding forge.

Those formidable powers of contention and attack Mr. Morley compares to some tremendous projectile describing a path the law of whose curves and deviations, as they watched its journey through the air in wonder and anxiety for the shattering impact, men found it impossible to calculate.—(*Ib.*, p. 261.)

Yet with all his powers of concentration, "Nobody that ever lived tried to ride so many horses abreast."

VII.—HIS RELIGION.

Mr. Gladstone told Manning, in the days before he was cardinal, that his "four doctors" were Aristotle, Augustine, Dante, and Butler (Vol. I., p. 207). But he came to recognize them gradually. Among his disadvantages in early life, he mentioned that he had been educated in an extremely narrow churchmanship, —that of the Evangelical party.

A STRICT EVANGELICAL.

His mother, he said, was a woman of warm piety but broken health, and he was not directly

instructed by her. But his mind was oppressed by deplorable servitude for a number of years to the belief that every Unitarian, and I suppose also every heathen, must, as a matter of course, be lost forever. One of his brothers married a Unitarian beauty, which occasioned Mr. Gladstone much mental difficulty and distress. But as far back as 1829, Mrs. Gaskell, the mother-in-law of another Unitarian lady, had sown in his mind the seed of a larger hope.

She said to me, "Surely we cannot entertain a doubt as to the future condition of any person truly united to Christ by faith and love, whatever may be the faults of his opinion." Here she supplied me with the key to the whole question. At this hour I feel grateful to her accordingly, for the scope of her remark is very wide, and it is now my rule to remember her in prayer before the altar.—(Vol. I., p. 160.) (Query: Was this prayer for the dead?)

MR. GLADSTONE'S TEXTS.

Of the extent to which Mr. Gladstone made his religion the law and life of his every day the book tells us much. He loved the heroes of Homer better than the saints and sages of the Old Testament, but he had all the old Puritan's eager recognition of a chance text from the Bible as a message from God to his soul. Mr. Gladstone wrote, in 1854 :

On most occasions of very sharp pressure or trial, some word of Scripture has come home to me as if borne on angels' wings. Many could I recollect. The Psalms are the great storehouse. Perhaps I should put some down now, for the continuance of memory is not to be trusted. 1. In the winter of 1837, Psalm 128. This came in a most singular manner, but it would be a long story to tell. 2. In the Oxford contest of 1847 (which was very harrowing), the verse, "O Lord God, Thou strength of my health, Thou hast covered my head in the day of battle." 3. In the Gorham contest, after the judgment: "And though all this be come upon us, yet do we not forget Thee; nor behave ourselves frowardly in Thy covenant. Our heart is not turned back; neither our steps gone out of Thy way. No, not when Thou hast smitten us into the place of dragons; and covered us with the shadow of death." 4. On Monday, April 17, 1853 (his first budget speech), it was: "O turn Thee then unto me, and have mercy upon me: Give Thy strength unto Thy servant and help the son of Thine handmaid." Last Sunday (Crimean War budget), it was not from the Psalms of the day: "Thou shalt prepare a table before me against them that trouble me: Thou hast anointed my head with oil and my cup shall be full."—(Vol I., p. 201.)

HIS BELIEF IN PROVIDENCE.

When he became prime minister, after Midlothian, in 1880, he wished he had noted in his diary more particularly

the new access of strength which, in some important respects, has been administered to me in my old age, and the remarkable manner in which Holy Scripture

has been applied to me for admonition and for comfort. Looking calmly on this course of experience, I do believe that the Almighty has employed me for his purposes in a manner larger or more special than before, and has strengthened me and led me on accordingly.—(Vol. III., p. 1.)

On his sixtieth birthday, when he was beginning his first premiership, he wrote in his diary:

I descend the hill of life. It would be a truer figure to say I ascend a steepening path with a burden ever gathering weight. The Almighty seems to sustain and spare me for some purpose of his own, deeply unworthy as I know myself to be. Glory be to his name.—(Vol. II., p. 256.)

THE END.

But now I must close this rapid survey of some of the innumerable interesting things in Mr. Morley's masterpiece.

For Mr. Gladstone, also, in due season the Veiled Shadow did not tarry.

On the early morning of the 19th, his family all kneeling round the bed on which he lay in the stupor of coming death, without a struggle he ceased to breathe. Nature outside,—wood and wide lawn and the cloudless far-off sky,—shone at her fairest.

Mr. Morley's parting words are as follows:

Let us leave off with thoughts and memories of one who was a vivid example of public duty and of private faithfulness; of a long career that with every circumstance of splendor, amid all the mire and all the poisons of the world, lighted up in practice, even for those who have none of his genius and none of his power, his own precept, "Be inspired with the belief that life is a great and noble calling, not a mean and groveling thing that we are to shuffle through as we can, but an elevated and lofty destiny."

SOME THINGS A BOY OF SEVENTEEN SHOULD HAVE HAD AN OPPORTUNITY TO READ.

BY H. L. ELMENDORF.

(Librarian of the Buffalo Public Library.)

THE great treasure of English literature is the birthright of our boys and girls. So much of the store as each one can, by reading and understanding, make his own is freely his, and forms a large part of his intellectual capital for pleasure and profit throughout life. But much the possession of which will be most greatly to his pleasure and profit is beyond his reach after the

"Shades of the prison-house begin to close
Upon the growing boy."

Careful fathers give thought and sharp endeavor to equip their sons with that material capital which is supposed to ease their struggle in the business world; but too many fathers neglect to help their sons to gain that intellectual capital which saves their lives from mental poverty and from starved imagination.

Let us at the outset take an example: every boy of seventeen should have had an opportunity to read Robert Louis Stevenson's essay on "Gentlemen." The boy has been taught to read; the book is in his father's library, or at least he has access to the public library, but still he lacks something to complete the opportunity which is meant in the title of this article. The boy is entitled to a personal introduction to the

essay, which will make him eager to know it. It is usually idle, not to say foolish, casually to recommend any healthy boy to read "an essay" on any subject, and especially one on "Gentlemen,"—a subject about which he probably supposes he has heard quite enough already. Moreover, this particular essay is hidden away in the "Thistle Edition" of "Familiar Studies of Men and Books," which, as a whole, has little or nothing else specially appropriate to the boy.

The boy's natural affinity for

"Schooners, islands, and maroons,
And buccaneers and buried gold,"

will probably have drawn him to acquaintance with "Treasure Island" without any particular introduction further than the verdict of some other small boy.

The first time that the boy comes to the study of the Civil War and its dramatic close at Appomattox Court House, his heart will be warm with enthusiasm for Grant and with sympathy for Lee. Then is the time to tell the boy what his friend, the author of "Treasure Island," has said about the one sentence that Grant added with his own pen to the articles of capitulation before he signed them, and how in that one sentence, "All officers to retain their side arms,"

the "Silent Man" wrote himself down to all the world as a great gentleman, if not a fine one.

The chances are good that, under such circumstances, the boy will read the essay; but whether he reads it or not, he has had the opportunity, which is our point in question.

Still holding to our illustration, it may be asked, "Why should a boy have had the opportunity to read this particular essay on 'Gentlemen'?" The answer is, because it is a very entertaining chapter, in pure, simple, well-nigh perfect English, upon a subject which needs to be brought engagingly before every boy's mind. Here he comes to a description whose application he may exploit entirely for himself, by a man that "Treasure Island" already witnesses is no weakling,—a description of kindly living, of quick tact, of gentle consideration for others. The most charming example of the art of being a gentleman is in the whole essay, moreover, an added halo to a hero already dear to the boy's heart. The essay, because it strikes at the ideal of the gentleman, is likely to have more influence on the boy's life and character than much training and many corrections.

HOME INFLUENCES.

Another natural question is, "Who should give this opportunity, this personal introduction to good literature?" It should come naturally, beginning even in babyhood, and therefore must certainly be begun by father and mother. The mother sits and sings her baby to sleep; here is one of the very best opportunities for the right literature at the right time. The boy whose mother did not have a treasury of songs and stories and poems at her tongue's end for her babies is forever a loser, and must grow up missing a pleasure and a benefit which was his natural right.

That is a happy boy whose first introduction to Walter Scott was from his mother's voice singing—

"Oh, hush thee, my babbie, thy sire was a knight;
Thy mother a lady, both lovely and bright;"

or to Tennyson from the same voice singing—

"Sweet and low, sweet and low,
Wind of the western sea;"

or to Kingsley's "Water Babies" in the lovely song—

"Soft, soft wind, from out the sweet south aliding."

Unfortunately, not all mothers have a store of lovely songs and poems already acquired. More unfortunately still, it is almost impossible to find anything like an ideal collection of the lullabies and child songs of the great poets set to

simple tunes fit for mothers' voices. There is, however, a charming collection without music, edited by Katharine Shute, called "The Land of Song," and many of its songs may be fitted to melodies already in the mother's memory.

The home influence comes first and is strongest; and, as in most things, the worth and power of a right beginning can hardly be overestimated. Many thoughtful people believe that it is not desirable that a boy should learn to read very young, preferring rather that his imagination should be awakened and his memory stored by being read to. This plan affords a large opportunity for the early cultivation of good taste in literature, and for rousing and developing that sense of humor which has been truthfully called a saving grace. Our traditional nursery rhymes, many of which are quaintly and felicitously worded, and essentially witty, may be read and reread and repeated to the growing baby with very happy and amusing application for this purpose. The collection edited by Charles Welsh, called "A Book of Nursery Rhymes," is a particularly good one, and the charming little book "Verse and Prose for Beginners in Reading," which contains more than the Mother Goose rhymes, is very satisfactory.

HERO TALES AND LEGENDS.

The boy of seventeen should have acquired an extensive knowledge of the classic and northern mythologies and hero stories. He should acquire it so early that his soul will not be troubled as to whether the tales of Baldur the Beautiful, and the rest, are sun myths or not.

Much of our best poetry is founded on these old tales, and all of it teems with allusions to them to such an extent that it can hardly be understood, certainly cannot be appreciated, without acquaintance with the old myths. Many collections have been made and presented for children's use in attractive forms, and literary men of a high order have given their best efforts to translating and wording them. For the classic mythology, nothing is better for the younger children than Hawthorne's "Wonder Book" and "Tanglewood Tales," or "Charles Kingsley's "The Heroes, or Greek Fairy Tales." Bulfinch's "Age of Fable" is usually very acceptable to boys from twelve to fifteen, though the joy of this book is sometimes lost because it is used for compulsory reading. The northern myths have been extremely well told by Hamilton W. Mabie in "Norse Stories Retold," and by M. E. Litchfield in "The Nine Worlds."

In connection with the hero stories, the Homeric epics at once suggest themselves. Boys

at the age of twelve to fifteen like the prose versions of Lang, Leaf, and Myers of the *Iliad*, and of G. H. Palmer of the *Odyssey*, but in some cases, at least, they will prefer the ringing poetry of the much-translated Pope. Walter Copland Perry has, in "The Boy's *Odyssey*," given the most stirring passages in the words of the Butcher and Lang translation, omitting some tedious portions and connecting all with a thread of narrative.

From the Homeric poems to the more modern cycle of Arthurian legends is a natural progression. Sir Thomas Malory's "Morte d'Arthur," and Tennyson's "Idylls of the King," in their original beauty, are acceptable to many boys; but sometimes Sidney Lanier's "The Boy's King Arthur" forms a good stepping-stone, for boys love it. Sidney Lanier was not only a poet, but also a father, so his touch was sure.

Andrew Lang, that wholesale purveyor of fairy and folk tales for children, some of whose versions are far too full of "rawhead and bloody-bones" incidents for the use of children, has edited a collection called "The Book of Romance," which contains the Arthur stories and the story of Roland retold from the French sources, with "Robin Hood" and "Wayland the Smith" in very good literary form and attractively made up.

THE BIBLE AS LITERATURE.

A boy of seventeen should intimately know the English Bible. He should know it as literature quite aside from its religious teaching. He should know it from having had it read to him from his earliest years, and from reading and studying it for himself. A boy who grows up without this intimate acquaintance with the great masterpiece of all literature is without something for the loss of which nothing can compensate, and which nothing can replace. It is needless to speak of the strength of the language, the beauty of the poetry, and the interest of the narratives of this wonderful book, but necessary merely to emphasize concerning it what was said of the myths and legends,—that, without knowing it well, it is impossible to really understand or appreciate the great mass of our best literature. Experience shows that unless a boy acquires this knowledge before he is seventeen, he rarely gets it later. The lamentable ignorance that exists in regard to the Bible was shown by a test of college students as to their knowledge of biblical allusions in the great poets. This test was made by President Charles F. Thwing, of Western Reserve University, and the result was published in the *Century* for May, 1900. It showed that a great majority of the

students had no clew to the most obvious biblical allusions.

As we read the Bible to children, we naturally select the parts best suited to their comprehension and arrange them in the order that will secure most interest and attention. For those who need help to do this, there are excellent aids. "Bible Stories" in the "Modern Reader's Bible,"—one volume on the Old Testament and one on the New Testament,—compiled by Richard G. Moulton, and "The Bible for Children," arranged by Mrs. Joseph B. Gilder, are well selected and arranged, using the words of the authorized version, and are much to be preferred to the many books which attempt to simplify either the language or the story.

THE ENGLISH CLASSICS.

Under this same kindly home influence, and with the same tactful personal introduction, every boy should have an opportunity to know the world's great stories, such as "Robinson Crusoe," "Gulliver's Travels," "The Swiss Family Robinson," and "The Pilgrim's Progress," being sure in each case that he has a proper text,—that is, if the full version be not used, it must be selected parts, but never a "writing down" of a great book under the supposition that the boy cannot understand the original. Nothing can be more pernicious than the mutilation of the great masterpieces by putting them in other words supposed to be simpler than the author's own, as has been done in the "Hiawatha Primer" and the "Lady of the Lake in Prose." In favor of degenerate imitations, it is often urged that the originals are beyond the boy's comprehension. This may be true, and if, for any reason, it is true, give him something else good and great, but fitted to his years and mental development. The time is all too short, and the home influence should be exerted to see that the right book is read at the right time.

The written-down versions, instead of attracting to the great originals and preparing the way for them later, take the zest out of the great stories, lower the literary standard you are endeavoring to set up, and vitiate the taste for better things.

That he may understand and appreciate good literature, the boy of seventeen should be well acquainted with the history and customs of chivalry. Everything in the ideals of the knight appeals to the nature of the manly boy,—hardihood, manly activity, daring, self-sacrifice, respect and gentle deference for woman, the righting of wrongs, the succor of the oppressed. The myths and legends lead most naturally to this field of chivalry, from the conflicts of gods and

heroes to the jousts of the knights in the tourney.

Lanier's "The Boy's Froissart," a little anonymous collection called "Belt and Spur," and a number of novels, and stories written specially for boys; Howard Pyle's "Men of Iron," which describes the making of a knight; his "Merry Adventures of Robin Hood," Miss Yonge's "The Lances of Lynwood," Conan Doyle's "White Company," and last, but not least, Scott's "Ivanhoe" and "Quentin Durward," will appeal to most boys of from twelve to sixteen.

POETRY THAT A BOY WILL LIKE.

A mind well stored with poetry and a taste cultivated to the love of the best is a treasure to a boy of seventeen. To give this seems so easy, if the home influence and interest begin early. The love of rhythm is inborn, and the boy will appreciate and love poetry which is beyond his exact comprehension, and which expresses thoughts to which he would not listen if expressed in prose. Short poems should, probably, come first; and every boy's home, where it is possible, should be supplied with the best anthologies, such as "The Posy Ring" and "Golden Numbers," compiled by Kate Douglas Wiggin and Nora Smith; "A Book of Famous Verse," compiled by Agnes Repplier; "Lyra Heroica," compiled by W. E. Henley; and Bryant's "Library of Poetry and Song," not forgetting the earlier mentioned "Land of Song," which is good for a whole family of children, because it is in three volumes suited to different ages. Of the longer poems, Macaulay's "Lays of Ancient Rome," Scott's "Lady of the Lake," and "Marmion" should be read to the boys of eight to twelve, and later "The Lay of the Last Minstrel" and "The Lord of the Isles." These will open the way for all the beautiful Scotch border tales. Longfellow's "Hiawatha" can be read to boys of five to eight, and boys will read it for themselves from eight years on. "The Idylls of the King" accomplishes a double purpose, with its beautiful Round Table tales and its noble poetry. It is easy to follow with the simplest of Browning's poems, of which there is a good collection called "The Brownings for the Young," edited by F. G. Kenyon, leading on through "Snow Bound" and "Evangeline" up to Milton and Dante. The joy of living is greatly enhanced by this knowledge and love of poetry. It can be taught better than almost any other branch of knowledge, but the boy will hardly pick it up for himself. It takes the spoken poem, the cadence of the human voice, to impart the knowledge and increase the love of rhythm. If this be given in early years, there is no danger

that a little later the boy will say,—as boys so often do, in fact,—that he does not like poetry, and, moreover, no danger that he will not seek out and read for himself from the best.

THE BEST "NATURE BOOKS."

The second agent for introducing the boy to good literature, after the home influence, should be the teacher. We have nothing to do at present with text-books, courses of literature, or compulsory reading of any kind. Educators of worth realize that it makes more difference what books a boy reads for himself than what text-books he studies. Good teachers are becoming alive to their own responsibility and power in this respect, and, with a view to increasing their efficiency, are reading and studying books suited to their boys and girls. There is great temptation to the teacher in the mass of literature written ostensibly as teachers' aids and under the attractive title of supplementary reading, much of which is simply an abomination, in that it makes the great little, and the wise, not simple, but silly. Personal acquaintance with the best books, a love for his work, and a love for the boy are all necessary to make a teacher competent to suggest the right book at the right time. The teacher must know how to value or appraise books. For instance, he must know the value of the ethical animal stories, in which animals talk and reason in a human way, beginning with "Æsop's Fables," which the boy may have as a very little boy in "Baby's Own Æsop," pictured by Walter Crane, or later in Joseph Jacob's "Fables of Æsop," through "The Delectable History of Reynard, the Fox," down to their natural successors, Kipling's "Jungle Books." These teach ethics,—the power of kindness, the necessity and nobility of obedience, the strength of the weak, and the quality of mercy. Then there are animal stories such as Lloyd Morgan's "Animal Sketches," Ernest Ingersoll's "Wild Life of Orchard and Field," W. T. Hornaday's "Two Years in the Jungle," and Paul Du Chaillu's "World of the Great Forest," which teach natural history,—healthy books of which boys, as a rule, are very fond. Between these two classes there is a mass of pernicious stuff, generally published under the name of "nature books," but most unnatural, where "peach trees ruminate on the distribution of their pits, and the caterpillar reasons as to his future metamorphoses,"—false science and poor stories. In quite another class are Joel Chandler Harris' inimitable "Uncle Remus" tales. Perhaps they are more nearly folklore than animal stories, but the heroes are "Brer Fox" and "Brer Rabbit" and the rest of the common beasts. The stories have no such

ethical value as "Æsop" or "The Jungle Book," but minister to the child's love of pure fun. Many Northern children fail to understand the printed dialect, but enjoy heartily hearing the stories read aloud. In knowing and selecting not only the good, but the best, the teacher's task is almost interminable; but the reward is great, for good children's books are most refreshing reading for grown folk.

In natural science, the teacher should tell of the "Boy's Book of Inventions," of the "American Boy's Handy Book," and of Hopkins' "Experimental Science." Those who love nature and outdoors should be told of the best bird books, such as Chapman's "Bird Life" and Dugmore's "Nature and the Camera," of Mrs. Dana's "How to Know the Wild Flowers," of the fern books, the mushroom books, and the like.

STIMULATING A TASTE FOR HISTORY.

With this study of the book goes the study of the boy, his attainments and his tastes, by recommending the best books in the subjects in which he is most interested,—his development along the line of least resistance. Take the boy who loves history and introduce him to ancient history through "Plutarch's Lives;" to Carlyle through "Heroes and Hero Worship;" tell him of Brooks' "True Story of George Washington," of the Indian stories by Drake, Hale, Gordon, and Mrs. Custer, of Parkman's "Oregon Trail," of Owen Wister's "Grant," of Carl Schurz's "Lincoln," of Dana's "Lincoln and His Cabinet," and the many others of similar merit, and the chances are that he will read Fiske and Wilson, and Burgess and Motley, and Morse Stevens and Macaulay and Gibbon later for himself. Few boys will read all of Macaulay, but almost any boy will like the account of Lord Somers and the founding of the Bank of England, if the teacher knows his Macaulay well enough to point it out. Not many will read Froude's twelve volumes, but all will read the passages on the trial and death of Mary Queen of Scots and the destruction of the Spanish Armada.

WHAT THE PUBLIC LIBRARY CAN DO FOR THE BOY.

Chapters might be written with profit on this subject, and these few examples are given here merely to suggest the power of the teacher in this direction. The point to be impressed is that the boy of seventeen should, through the influence of the school and the teacher, come to have a general knowledge of the literature of every branch studied, and a particular, extensive, and intimate acquaintance with the best books on subjects he cares most for.

Besides the foundation and groundwork of literature in the home and the training of the school, particularly along the lines of his studies and of his personal tastes, there is the third great helper in the boy's literary and intellectual life,—the public library. This should help the boy all his life. He comes first to know it from its children's room, with which most modern libraries are now supplied. Here he finds, not a miscellaneous collection of so-called children's books, but a careful selection of books suited to his years. The books are on shelves open to his use; he can see and handle them for himself. The selection is so well made that, choose as he may, he can get no bad or harmful book, and few that will be an entire waste of time for him to read, the number of poor books varying according to the ability of those who make the selection. Being allowed to handle and choose at will from a collection of the best is in itself an educating influence. Here the home experience and school training tell, and the boy naturally chooses the best stories. Where he can get such a variety of the best, there is little danger that he will choose unwisely, or that his tastes will run wild. Where a boy can get the best of Mayne Reid, Stoddard, Munroe, Otis, Cooper, Scott, Kipling, Remington, Stevenson, Tomlinson, and Verne in the story line, besides the most interesting biographies and histories, there is little danger of his wanting to read a long line of Henty books, as he soon realizes their sameness and turns to something better, or that he will look for poorer literature outside of the regular channels. The boy is, for the most part, left to his own devices in the library, but is made to know that he can get competent help and advice from friendly and interested library assistants if he wants it. The library assistant helps him to help himself, teaching him to use indexes and catalogues and reference books, as opportunity offers.

As the boy grows, he graduates from the children's department to the general collections of the main library. Here he gets what he calls for, but he is greatly aided by the modern custom of displaying upon open shelves a choice selection of the best books for popular use. The same thoughtful care which he has had in the children's room follows him, and with every respect to his personal tastes and right to choose for himself, he is helped to find the books that will most interest him. If the home influence and the school training have been right, he comes to appreciate his part in the ownership of the civic right to the public library, and to regard it as his great resource for literary enjoyment and information.

"PARSIFAL" IN NEW YORK.

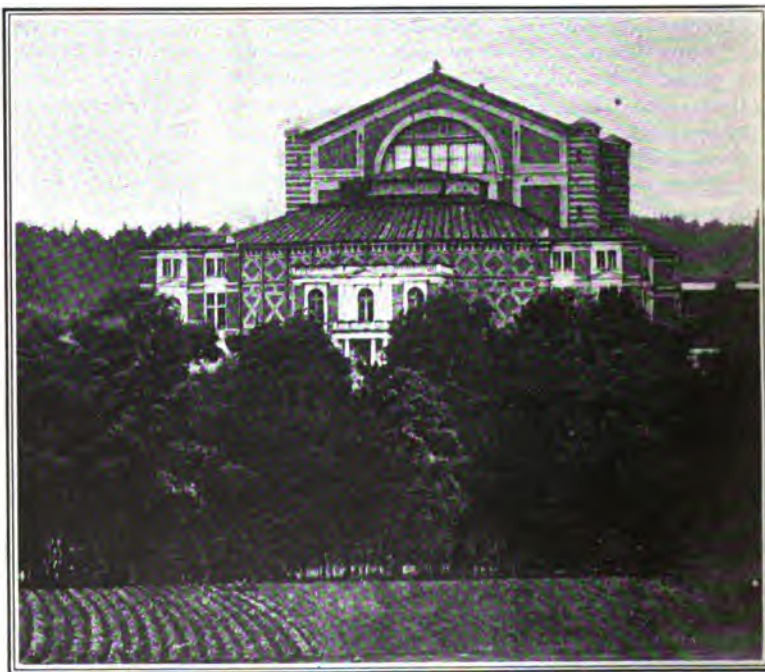
BY LAWRENCE REAMER.

WHEN Heinrich Conried assumed the direction of the Metropolitan Opera House, he had for the first time the opportunity to gratify an ambition which as a theater manager he had cherished for years. He had at his command the means to perform here Richard Wagner's "Parsifal," hitherto sacred to Baireuth. By European international copyright, and by the express wish of the composer, the performances of the work have been limited to Baireuth since July 26, 1882. Before that date, it was sung in Munich a few times for the particular enjoyment of Wagner's friend and patron, King Ludwig.

Mr. Conried, by carrying through the project of a New York performance of "Parsifal," had not only the opportunity to begin his career as an operatic manager in original and picturesque fashion, but he anticipated the intention of nearly every European impresario. "Parsifal" remains the property of Baireuth until 1913. Madame Wagner has in vain petitioned the Reichstag to extend the term of her possession to a longer period. The number of new operas that are profitable is now so small that managers have for years viewed with envious eyes the theater on the Baireuth hilltop that has the monopoly of a work by the composer most popular in Germany, France, and the United States, and who is beginning to have a great vogue in Italy. Any one of them, if he had been free from the operation of the copyright law, as Mr. Conried is, would have performed the opera long ago. In spite of Madame Wagner's efforts to keep the work for Baireuth, it is to be sung in all the important cities of Germany within a few months after the law makes that possible. In Munich, where by a special arrangement "Parsifal" is free after 1911, the direction of the Royal Opera House has already declared its intention of giving the

work in that year. The copyright law, however, has held in check all but Mr. Conried; and the United States is thus to hear the first performances outside of the theater in which Richard Wagner produced the opera.

Madame Wagner did not submit without a struggle to what she has called a sacrilegious and commercial profanation of the work. She appealed to the German ambassador in the United States, and to the law. On her behalf, the scruples of religious people were aroused, and some misinformed clergymen denounced the immoral and irreligious character of the opera. She besought singers who had been at Baireuth not to participate in the performances, and she endeavored to check, through appeals to the reigning family of Bavaria, the passage of stage managers and conductors to this country. But they were able to come here, because there was no law to prevent them, just as there was no law to prevent Mr. Conried from giving the opera if he wanted to. There is, to be sure, a condition that the score is sold with an agree-



THE WAGNER THEATER AT BAIREUTH, GERMANY.



MILKA TERNINA.

(Who is to sing the part of *Kundry* in the New York production of "Parsifal," on December 24.)

ment not to produce the work in public. But that is binding only on the purchaser, and is an obstacle that could be effective only when backed by copyright.

In order that the charge of irreverence might not be made, the director of the Metropolitan Opera House brought from Germany artists who have assisted in the representations of the work at Baireuth. Felix Mottl, who has entire control of all musical performances in the company, is the most noted German conductor of his day, and has repeatedly superintended the "Parsifal" performances at Baireuth. Anton Fuchs, the *régisseur*, had charge of the performances given in Munich under the direction of Richard Wagner for King Ludwig. The singers, also, have the *cachet* of the Festspielhaus. Aloys Burgstaller, who is to sing the title rôle, was trained by Madame Wagner to interpret it according to her ideals. The same is true of Anton van Rooy, who is to sing *Amfortas*. Milka Ternina, the *Kundry* at the Metropolitan, has won fame in the same rôle at Baireuth. Victor Kloepper and the other singers have also had the Baireuth indorsement. They were shrewdly

selected by Mr. Conried for that reason. No one may say that the performance of "Parsifal" lacks reverence, so long as its interpreters have all been trained under Madame Wagner's own direction.

Other incidents add a dignity not common to ordinary operatic representations. "Parsifal" is sung outside the regular subscription. The hour of beginning is five in the afternoon, and the acts are to be separated by intervals in which the audience retires for dinner. Nobody is allowed to enter the theater after the action has begun. No circumstance that might add solemnity to the performance has been omitted.

What the representation will cost, no estimate can as yet accurately indicate. It is certain that no profit will be possible from the performances during the first season. New costumes and scenery have been brought from Vienna, and these are much more in accordance with modern taste than the models still in use at Baireuth, which have, moreover, been there since the first representation, in 1882. The apparatus for producing the opera required a complete reconstruction of the stage of the opera house, which is now a modern theater, and not the antiquated building it used to be, so far as its stage facilities were



ANTON VAN ROOY AS "AMFORTAS."

concerned. This cost cannot, however, be laid at the door of the "Parsifal" production alone, as use will be made of the new machinery in the other Wagner operas. Certainly, not less than one hundred thousand dollars was expended before the first performance.

Richard Wagner completed "Parsifal," his last work, only a few months before it was produced, although he had been working on the idea for many years. The first conception of it is said to have come to him as early as 1857. In 1877, he had finished the poem. During the following year, he completed the music of the first act. On the instrumentization of the whole opera he worked for three years, and finished it in January, 1882.

Wagner found the story in that field of medieval lore and mysticism that his studies for his earlier operas had laid bare to him. From the German Minnesinger, Wolfram von Eschenbach, who wrote the epic "Parzival," and from Chétrien de Troyes, he drew most of the material, which he used, with the privilege of the artist, in the way that appealed to him most strongly. "Parsifal" thus became his own in the form in which he gave it to the world.

The story is so vague and symbolic that few

persons have ever been able to clarify it. It makes a profound poetic impression on the hearer, however, and its supernatural pictures are eloquent with a mystic medieval beauty.

Opinions differ as to the musical merits of Wagner's last work, but it is generally admitted



RICHARD WAGNER.



THE CHARACTER OF "GURNEMANZ."

that it is not his masterpiece. The score is, of course, modeled on the Wagner method, and the music consists of a series of "leading motives" so combined as to provide a continuous musical accompaniment to the solemn and impressive if disconnected episodic scenes. The voices sing in the familiar "endless melody" of the later Wagner operas. The first and third acts are deeply solemn in their religious aspect, and the music is beautiful and significant in spite of this character. In the second act, the flower maidens sing in melodious and alluring dance rhythms. To persons who have never heard "Parsifal," the music will be a new revelation of Wagner's genius as composer and poet, even though the opera be not his master-work.

The story, with its lack of continuous dramatic movement, may best be indicated by a recital of its incidents. The Knights of the Grail are guarding in the castle of Montsalvat the emerald cup in which Joseph of Arimathea is supposed to have caught the blood dripping from the wounded side of Christ on the cross. Their membership in this band is made dependent on the purity of the lives of the knights. *Klingsor*,

a magician, who had been rejected by them on account of his wickedness, lives on the other side of the mountain from their castle, and his life is spent trying to corrupt the knights through the beautiful maidens who live in his bewitched garden. Once, *Amfortas*, a knight, fell a victim to this temptation and lost the spear which he guarded. This was the lance that pierced the side of the Saviour and can alone cure any



ACOLYTES OF THE HOLY GRAIL.

wound it makes. It falls into the possession of *Klingsor* after it has wounded *Amfortas*.

In the first act, he is suffering from the wound, and *Gurnemanz*, another knight, prepares a bath for him. *Kundry*, who had laughed at Christ on the cross and is condemned to wander for eternity over the earth, now a repentant servant of the Grail and now the tool of *Klingsor*, brings a balsam to *Amfortas*. But he can be cured only by the arrival at the castle of a "sinless fool enlightened by pity." Then *Parsifal*, ignorant of his own name and every fact of his life, appears, and is taken by the knights into their hall.

He sees the ceremonies of the Grail, and the scene so strongly suggesting the Last Supper, and



VICTOR KLOEPPER AND MADAME TERNINA AS "KLINGSOR" AND "KUNDRY."

as he gazes at it in wondering silence is driven from the castle by *Gurnemanz*. Then he is in the garden of *Klingsor* surrounded by the seducing maidens of the magician, and later with *Kundry*, who tells him who he is and calls him by name for the first time. *Klingsor* hurls his spear at him, but it stops in midair over his head,—so great a protection is his purity. *Parsifal* seizes the weapon, makes the sign of the cross, and *Klingsor's* castle crumbles into ruins.

The third act is supposed to pass many years afterward. The day is Good Friday. *Kundry* is repentant, and *Parsifal* has passed through many experiences in the effort to release *Amfortas*. He is faint, and *Kundry* bathes his feet. Both are baptized by *Gurnemanz*, and then the men reach the castle, where *Amfortas* still lies suffering. *Parsifal* touches the wound with the spear and he is cured. The Grail is uncovered, and the opera ends while the choir of boys sings in the dome of the temple. Accompanied by the beautiful music and the pageantry of scenery and costume, this succession of scenes makes a profound impression on one who sees and hears them.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN,—A MASTER WORKER.

MR. HAROLD BEGBIE, in the *Pall Mall Magazine*, begins what is quite the most interesting article on Mr. Chamberlain that has appeared for a long time, possibly at any time hitherto, by recalling some words uttered by Matthew Arnold in 1887—"I think the man with a future is Chamberlain." "Matthew Arnold," says Mr. Begbie, "knew the Mr. Chamberlain of whom the public may almost be said to know nothing." And certainly in his article Mr. Begbie goes full tilt at many of the widely accepted views of the ex-colonial secretary's character.

THE GREATEST MAN MR. CHAMBERLAIN EVER MET.

"I remember asking Mr. Chamberlain once whom he regarded as the greatest man he had ever met. He answered, with quiet and, as it were, reverent sincerity, 'Mr. Gladstone—a marvelous, an extraordinary, personality.' Then he added—I can recall the very words: 'And yet, when one reads again those Midlothian speeches which once set everybody on fire, it is astonishing to find how very little real and solid substance they contain. One realizes in reading those speeches the extraordinary spell of his character.'"

Some people may have been making a strangely similar criticism about some more recent speeches that also set everybody on fire.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN'S MOST STRIKING CHARACTERISTIC.

The dominant characteristic which Mr. Begbie sees in this "master worker" is frankness.

"The popular notion of secretiveness, of sinister plotting, of Machiavellian subtlety, is as false as the caricature which presents him as a lean and hungry-looking man with thin lips and sharp, querulous chin. Mr. Chamberlain does not plot; he does not whisper black thoughts to his subliminal consciousness. When the public supposed him to be hatching diabolical surprises during the present autumn, he was taking new meadow-land into his garden, and thinking nothing at all of the 'campaign of rhetoric.'

"Do you think of your work while you are gardening?" I asked him.

"Good gracious, no!" he said, smiling delightedly. "My garden is my forgetfulness."

"Like Bismarck, he loves old trees, tumbling

lawns, a garden seat, and all the infinite vivacity of nature. With something of a like detachment, he talks about politics and flowers in the same breath."

HIS SECOND CHIEF CHARACTERISTIC.

Mr. Begbie continues:

"Mr. Chamberlain is one of the most restful men I have ever met. There is no flurry or haste or bustle in his manner. He is what our grandfathers would have called 'a dry stick.' His voice in conversation has a quizzical tone, his wit is dry, his manner is that of a shrewd and somewhat bored observer rather than that of an active participant. He leans back in his chair, sitting rather low, his hands folded, his eyes studying those about him with quiet contemplative interest."

MRS. CHAMBERLAIN AND HIS HOME LIFE.

Without laying himself open to one of Mr. Chamberlain's greatest objections to modern journalism, Mr. Begbie thinks he may say a few words as to the happy life at Highbury. Mrs. Chamberlain "is one of those gentle, sweet-voiced women who make their guests welcome without words, and at home without fuss." It is easy to believe that "the united and deeply affectionate household of Highbury has been the statesman's principal support throughout his stormful and momentous life, and that no one can form an adequate estimate of Mr. Chamberlain's character until they have seen him in the midst of his family."

SOME OF HIS POLITICAL VIEWS.

Asked who would lead the Liberals should the Unionists be defeated, Mr. Chamberlain said:

"I don't know, but I know very well who ought to lead them."

"Who?"

"Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. Who else has done the work? Who else has borne the brunt of the fighting? I don't like his views, but I respect the man. He has fought, on the whole, openly and frankly for Little Englandism. I can understand his methods. But," he went on, "I can't understand, and I don't like, the methods of the Liberal imperialists."

He is "a warm friend of that most noble and gracious Liberal, Mr. John Morley; and yet he has attacked the Morley gospel pitilessly and

even cruelly, while he has said very little about the newer gospel of Mr. Asquith and Sir Edward Grey—for which he has a profound contempt." He even understands the "Little England doctrine."

Mr. Begbie is particularly severe on the "base and unworthy tarradiddle" which makes him out "a green-eyed traitor" to Mr. Balfour.

"Mr. Chamberlain is not jealous of Mr. Balfour, and he makes a mock of those stupid people who regard the prime minister as a weak man.

"'A weak man!' he once exclaimed to me. 'Who but the strongest of men could have got the education bill through the House of Commons?'"

A PEN PORTRAIT OF MR. CHAMBERLAIN.

Both Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Balfour, we are told, have suffered at the hands of the caricaturist. Mr. Chamberlain is no thin-lipped lean and hungry Cassius. Rather is he "substantially clothed with mortal flesh, and has features which correspond with his bulk. The nose is broad and strong, even solid, denoting strength and power rather than eagerness and activity. The lips are markedly full, a little bitter, perhaps; not, however, vengefully acrid. . . . The chin is broad and strong, full of alertness, but steady and restrained. The eyes, which are the most notable features in his face, are gray and shrewd and kindly. . . . They are rather tired eyes, and only when the laughter comes into them do they reveal the mind's agility. His complexion is bronzed, with beneath it that tint of grayness which is so strong and dominant in the face of the Bishop of London, and in almost all hard workers. . . . The face is charming, in some respects beautiful."

His most remarkable physical characteristic, however, is the poise of his head. "It is the kind of head which one cannot imagine thrown back either in righteous indignation or in justifiable pride. It is essentially a watcher's head,—the head of a man never carried away by gusts of emotion, always intent upon something ahead."

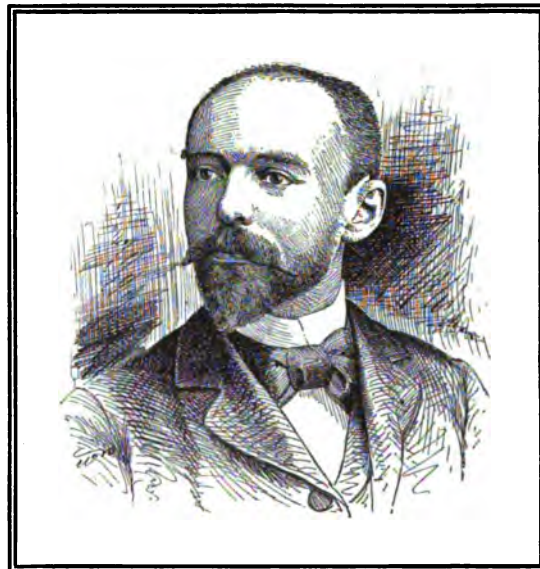
M. GEORGES CLEMENCEAU.

BRITTANY has produced Renan, Chateaubriand, and a host of other distinguished men. M. Georges Clemenceau, of whom there is a charmingly written character sketch by George Brandes in the *Contemporary Review* for November, is not unworthy to be counted with them. He is one of those powerful political forces which have never received official recognition; yet with pen and word he has made and

unmade more French ministries than any man that ever lived.

"THE INCLEMENT."

Mr. Brandes begins by telling us that M. Clemenceau believes that his own surname means *le peu clément*. And that, though it needs some qualification, seems to be the keynote of his character and the explanation of his success. He is a bitter fighter, "a man who never compromises with any one," a man who has fought as many duels with words as with pistols, who "treats folly, stupidity, and cowardice with a harshness which is in strong contrast to the ordinary moderation and courtesy of his demeanor. M. Clemenceau is now sixty-two years old, and more than forty of these years have been years of incessant activity and struggle. When he was nineteen, he was thrown into



M. GEORGES CLEMENCEAU.

prison for shouting "*Vive la République!*" After that, he practised medicine. He spent four years in America, living by teaching literary history; and, having married an American lady, returned to France just before the German War. In the events of the Commune period he played a great part both as leader and mediator; and for four years he fought steadily for amnesty to the Communards, and, finally in 1880, saw the cause of mercy triumph.

THE MASTER OF MINISTRIES.

Since then he has been a prominent figure in all the great events and causes of French poli-

tics. Of his part in ministry-unmaking, M. Brandes gives the following account :

"It was he who, in March, 1879, insisted on the indictment of the Fourtou-Broglie ministry, and who, in March, 1883, demanded the revision of the constitution ; it was he who combated the colonial policy of Jules Ferry, because it was only instigated by Bismarck, who would have been pleased to see the French occupied in Tongking and withdrawn from Alsace. He unseated Freycinet two or three times, and, notably, the Freycinet ministry in December, 1886. When Dahomey was conquered, he overthrew Cavaignac, who was minister of marine, because he and the minister of war not only had not worked together, but (as also later ministers at the time of the conquest of Madagascar) had acted in direct opposition to each other. It was he who, when Boulanger made his first appearance as a Radical, and became a popular hero, made him minister of war ; and it was also he who, when Boulanger broke his word—for he had pledged himself to act only according to Clemenceau's views and Clemenceau's advice—went to him in the war office and said to him : 'Now I will overthrow you,' and did it the same day."

BOULANGIST AND DREYFUSARD.

M. Clemenceau used Boulanger as a tool, but never foresaw how that pretender's character would deteriorate through vanity. He has blundered more than once through "insufficient knowledge of human nature." But he did not blunder in the Dreyfus case, although, like most people, he believed in Dreyfus' guilt at first. When he realized the truth, he became Dreyfus' most effective champion. It was he who gave the stirring title "*J'accuse*" to Zola's famous letter, and it was in his newspaper that the campaign for justice was carried on.

M. Clemenceau has always been a poor man, yet the Panama case brought accusations against him as well as others—accusations which he was obliged to repel by showing that the only luxuries he permitted himself were a horse and a shooting license, and that he had had to borrow money from a notary to pay back the debts of his youth. It was of this man that one of his political adversaries estimated his annual income at four hundred thousand francs.

AS AUTHOR, ORATOR, AND MAN.

M. Clemenceau has written a novel, a drama, and other works, and it is characteristic that his novel was a plea for social justice. "His hero is the man who loves his fellow-men, and works, and for love of work he will pray and worship." His appearance "gives one an impression of

concentrated energy ; he is not tall, but vigorous, and inclined to be thickset ; his carriage is firm and composed. He has prominent cheekbones, and his black eyes dominate his face ; his eyebrows are black and bushy, his beard thick, and he is rather bald. He is not unlike one's preconception of a Russian general, but has an expression of great kindness.

"His few, abrupt movements have something impetuous, and to a certain extent brusque, about them, a tendency, however, which is controlled by an iron will, so that an ordinary observer might judge him to be phlegmatic. His voice is clear and decided, without being particularly strong. He is admitted to be a magnificent orator, and though I have never heard him speak in public, I do not speak without authority concerning him, for I know him as one knows very few men, having for two years running spent a month in his society—a month of uninterrupted daily intercourse from morning till evening ; and have also read all his printed speeches—which rank far higher than Gambetta's—and indeed everything he has written, many volumes in all.

"Both as an orator and as a writer, he belongs to the severe school of French literature, opposed to all ornament and elaboration. He aims at clearness and decisiveness ; his style is as polished as a rapier, and his art is the art of the fencer. And yet behind all this, almost hidden by the politician, lurks the lover of beauty—almost, I might say, the poet, if by the word poet one understands a worshiper rather than a dreamer.

"I have no wish specially to dwell upon the limitations I perceive in him, or his weaknesses and mistakes. He is in some things as credulous as he is in general skeptical. Occasionally he blunders through insufficient knowledge of human nature, and throughout his youth and vigorous manhood he believed in universal suffrage and other democratic fictions, as if they were something more than a lesser political evil, following upon greater ones. Neither has it been my intention to paint a hero ; for a division of manhood into heroes and villains is, we know, inadequate. The political struggle is not one between good men and bad. But not infrequently it is one between the good thing and the bad,—between the armies, in point of size most unequal, of light and darkness."

Altogether, Georges Clemenceau is one of those men of whom Brittany and France may be proud. By his election to the Senate in April, 1902, concludes M. Brandes, that body had gained a member who "might be called the alert conscience of the government."

ST. GAUDENS, THE SCULPTOR.

AN appreciation of Augustus St. Gaudens, the American sculptor, from the pen of Royal Cortissoz, the art critic of the *New York Tribune*, appears in the *North American Review* for November. This writer assigns to St. Gaudens a place among the pioneers of his art in America. "The development of the art with us may fairly be said to date from his appearance. He is not only our greatest sculptor, but the first in our annals to break with the old epoch of insipid ideas and hidebound academic notions of style, giving the art a new lease of life and fixing a new standard. All can raise the flower now, for all have got the seed. There are contemporaries of St. Gaudens who deserve



AUGUSTUS ST. GAUDENS.

honor, hardly less than he deserves it, for having breathed vitality into American sculpture. There was, for example, the late Olin Warner, who was born four years before St. Gaudens, and who exercised always an elevating influence. But Warner would probably have uttered with eagerness the tribute which the living sculptors in this country yield to St. Gaudens, testifying to the constructive part he has played, to the initiative which he took in the formation of our school.

OF FRENCH AND IRISH ANCESTRY.

"He entered the field with the mixed racial equipment characteristic of so many distinguished Americans. His mother was an Irishwoman; his father was born in France. St. Gaudens himself, born in Dublin something less

than fifty-six years ago, was brought to this country in his earliest childhood, and though he has spent more than one period abroad, he is as distinctly American in his art as though he had come from a long line of native ancestors. With a difference. He did not take up sculpture where Greenough and the others had left it, working on their foundation and transmogrifying their tradition. He showed his Americanism in striking out in a totally new vein and making his own tradition. Half Irish, half French, and wholly sympathetic to his environment, he was committed to American tendencies, not as an heir, with much to unlearn, but simply in so far as his genius inclined him to assimilate them.

EARLY TRAINING.

"No American artist shows a greater freedom than he from what are generally called 'early influences' and are specifically described as 'So-and-So's manner.' He was thirteen when he was apprenticed to a cameo-cutter, and he spent several years at this craft; but I have never perceived in his sculpture anything to remind one of these beginnings. At night he studied art. Cooper Union and the Academy of Design were both useful to him at that period. Then, in his nineteenth year, he went to Paris, and at the *École des Beaux-Arts* profited by the teaching of Jouffroy, until the Franco-Prussian War broke out and he entered upon a three years' residence in Rome. In all that formative period, he appears to have worked patiently toward the expression of a temperament which outside influences could stimulate but could not mold to their own likeness. He was perhaps fortunate in studying under Jouffroy, a safe master, who, for all his classicism, was nevertheless near enough in point of time to such men as Rude to have seen, and turned away from, the gulf of commonplace in which the conventional classicist is sooner or later lost. He was enough of an individualist in his art to keep St. Gaudens from falling into routine, and enough of an academician to nourish in his American pupil the sense of measure which might have slumbered if he had fallen into the hands of a more naturalistic teacher. The style which St. Gaudens brought back with him on his return to this country was remarkable for its blending of polish with freedom. Here was an American who could dwell at the center of French art and only take from it that which suited him."

THE "SHERMAN."

Mr. Cortissoz has many interesting comments to make on St. Gaudens' various works,—especially the five statues commemorating heroes of

our Civil War. In his criticism of the Sherman statue, which was unveiled in New York City only a few months ago, he says:

"The introduction of a winged Victory in front of the horse and its rider involved St. Gaudens in the study of a problem on which no light had been thrown by any of his predecessors. Really great equestrian statues have always been rare, and neither of the two in the past which have been especially inspiring to modern art, the Colleoni of Verrocchio at Venice and the Gattamelata of Donatello at Padua, has any suggestion to make by which St. Gaudens could have profited when he proceeded to design a group including an added figure. But those will seriously misunderstand him who fail to discern the essentially creative bent of his genius. If he had found suggestions apposite to his task among the old masters, we may be sure that, however he might have used them, he would not have imitated anybody. The composition of the Sherman is his own, and it has the spontaneity and the balance of a work evolved straight from a powerful imagination and an original mind. The Victory is exactly where it belongs, and bears a relation as true, as unforced, as anything in nature itself to the horseman pressing close upon its flying robe. Once more a word on the sculptor's discretion is inevitable. He wanted to express movement in this monument, to give the Victory almost aerial lightness in her carriage, to embody in the horse a type of great strength, pushing its way to the front, and to make Sherman himself the very ideal of a leader, who spurns the miles behind him. The bronze seems almost sentient. The group quivers with vitality. But the rhythm of this dramatic conception is held so well in hand, it is so majestic, that classic art itself could not produce a more nobly monumental effect.

ART'S FIDELITY TO TRUTH.

"St. Gaudens has, indeed, this much in common with the antique, that he cannot be trivial or violent, but must see life, and treat it in his art, with a wide and steady vision, a strong hand, and a lofty feeling. Sincerity is writ large upon everything he has done, and from the medallions of his earlier days to the Sherman, which is the fruit of his maturity, he has exemplified the purest qualities of modern art. He has his reward, which has come to him, not simply in numerous commissions, but in specific honors bestowed by artistic organizations, and in a public repute that is growing wider every day. More than most men he has helped to make American art, and his name will endure among the brightest in its annals."

THE NEW REVELATION IN SCIENCE.

THE almost miraculous properties of radium give ground for some interesting speculations by an anonymous writer in the December *Atlantic Monthly*. A bit of radium immersed in ice, or in the intense cold of liquid air, continues



HALF-GRAIN OF RADIUM, INCLOSED IN GLASS TUBE.

(The first specimen of the new element to be exhibited in the United States.)

to give out heat and light, apparently uninfluenced by its frigid surroundings. How does the bit of radium obtain its great source of energy, a source which appears to be unlimited? It is computed that it can continue to give out energy unimpaired for millions of years. All of our steam-engineering is based on the doctrine of the conservation of energy,—the theory that we cannot obtain heat without the consumption of fuel or the expenditure of work.

In radium we apparently have a dynamo which gives energy without the expenditure of fuel. "This is indeed a marvelous revelation, and does not seem to be connected with what may be called the old testament of physics; there were

no hints or physical prophecies which might have led us to hope for this new light."

This writer considers that we are driven by the phenomenon of radium to believe that there is a transformer power in the radium atom which enables it to absorb some new radiations and to give them forth in the recognizable forms of light and heat.

DOES RADIUM GET ITS ENERGY FROM THE SUN?

"Is it possible that waves from the sun can start atomic engines in the atom of radium even when it is imbedded in ice and thus constitute it a transformer for radiations which have hitherto been concealed from mankind? Is the atom of radium an earth or atomic universe placed in the cold of space and heated and illumined by some form of electrical waves—waves which after a long, swift journey across the vacuity and cold of space are transformed by their contact with matter? If the sun, too, were largely composed of radium, how simple would be the explanation of the infinite duration of solar heat and light; yet the explanation would supplant one mystery by another.

OUR IGNORANCE OF ELECTRICITY.

"Although so much has been revealed in the subject of electricity, we are as completely ignorant of its inmost character as we are of the source of life. Yet knowledge of its practical applications is very great, and we can measure electricity more accurately than any other force. This fact has been shown in the discovery of the phenomena of radium. The conclusions which we have reached in regard to these manifestations were obtained by the use of an electrical instrument which is more than a thousand times as delicate as the most sensitive chemical balance; and even spectrum analysis, which has stood for forty years as the emblem of marvelous sensitiveness, must now give place to the electrometer. This instrument promises to increase our knowledge of the motion of infinitely small particles of matter; but the only inkling we have of the inmost character of electricity, it seems to me, resides in our positive knowledge of its periodic movement on its way from the sun to the earth. This periodic movement is also the chief part of our knowledge of the phenomena of light, and through it we link together the facts of electricity and those of heat and light. Our mathematical theories of electricity are hardly more than interesting collections of formulæ."

NEW VIEWS OF THE SUN'S HEAT.

This writer asks if radium will not make necessary new hypotheses for the origin of the sun's

heat and for the beginnings of life on this globe. The present theory of the sun's heat is the contraction theory of Helmholtz, which provides for the contraction of the sun's gaseous mass to compensate for its loss of heat. It is estimated that a diminution of two hundred and fifty feet in the sun's diameter every year would maintain its present output of heat. A total change in the size of the sun's disk could not be observed, with our present means of measurements, even between periods ten thousand years apart. "The geologists, led by Huxley, require more time for geologic changes than this hypothesis would give; for it is estimated that it has required twenty millions of years for the sun to shrink to its present size, and hundreds of millions of years are apparently needed for the making of the habitable earth. If atoms of matter can give off, for millions of years, energy without sensible loss; or if atoms can absorb obscure electrical radiations, and having transformed them, give them out as light and heat, are we not on the road to a new theory of the sun's heat? It has been discovered that radium gives off the gas helium, which is regarded as one of the chief constituents of the sun's atmosphere. It is a curious thought to regard radium as a bit of the sun imprisoned on the earth."

THE LATE HENRY D. LLOYD.

HENRY DEMAREST LLOYD, whose death at Chicago we chronicled last month, is the subject of an appreciative tribute from the pen of Mr. Willis J. Abbot in the *Pilgrim* for November. After alluding to the fact that Mr. Lloyd's death was the result of pneumonia induced by overexertion in addressing meetings called to oppose the schemes of the Chicago traction companies, Mr. Abbot says:

HIS EARLIER SERVICES.

"In the domain of progressive thought and the radical agitation in this country to-day there is no figure just like that of Henry Lloyd, nor is there any one left to do the class of work which he was doing. The son of a minister, sprung from an old New York family the traditions of which might have justified his assuming the aristocratic rather than the ultra-democratic attitude, highly educated at Columbia College and through wide travel, equipped with the means that might have enabled him to lead a life of idle pleasure, he still early in life threw in his lot with the struggling masses and made their cause his to the end. Before 1875, he discerned the perils which menace American society in the

growth of great aggregations of capital in individual hands, and in such essays as 'The Political Economy of Seventy-three Millions,' in the *Atlantic*, and 'The Barons of Industry,' published in the *North American Review*, defined this danger, and demonstrated the utter unfitness of the orthodox political economy to cope with it. When in 1889 the mine-owners of Spring Valley, Ill., after having persuaded miners to come to that spot and invest their savings in houses owned by the corporations, cut wages to a point below the cost of subsistence and finally locked out the men who were dependent upon their weekly earnings to save their homes, Mr. Lloyd visited the spot and wrote his first book, 'A Strike of Millionaires Against Miners,' in which he told with convincing earnestness the story of as atrocious a scheme for the robbery of the poor by the rich as the world has known. It is interesting to note that while engaged in this work he encountered, though unknowingly, John Mitchell, then a breaker boy, afterward the head of the great miners' organization, which Mr. Lloyd served as attorney, without any compensation, in the arbitration proceedings of last year."

Mr. Lloyd's book on the Standard Oil Company, "Wealth Against Commonwealth," is his best-known work. The searching of official records required to compile such a narrative must have been a tremendous task in itself. Yet so carefully was the work done, and so fully were statements of fact verified, that neither Mr. Lloyd nor his publishers were ever so much as threatened with legal proceedings by the men attacked, although the book abounds in charges, as Mr. Abbot says, "not merely of frauds, but of actual criminal offenses against life and property." To the day of his death, the author was at all times financially responsible and entirely able to meet damages, if properly assessed by any court of law.

A CONSTRUCTIVE THINKER.

Of Mr. Lloyd's mental attitude in his later years, Mr. Abbot writes:

"It is a common saying that advancing years are apt to modify the radicalism of youth, but in the case of Henry Lloyd the axiom is at fault. He was more radical the week of his death than ever before, but nevertheless the direction of his thought had been in some respects modified. His admirers will perhaps always look upon 'Wealth Against Commonwealth' as his greatest achievement, but he had become discontented with it. To expose wrong, he thought to be necessary, but less helpful to mankind than to point out the right path to social betterment.

'I am tired of shoveling away filth,' he once said to me. 'I want to begin laying a few blocks for a better social structure.' It was in pursuance of this ambition that he went to New Zealand to study the manifestations of a purer democracy there, a journey that took some two years and resulted in his most helpful book, 'Newest England,' and its corollary, 'A Country Without Strikes.' Since his return, he has ever been in the lists defending the New Zealand system of compulsory arbitration, of land tenures, of government activities in the fields of railroads, mines, steamships, insurance, banking, and other business that tends irresistibly to monopoly. A valuable work of a constructive nature was a book, 'Labor Copartnership,' telling the story of his personal investigations into the true coöperative institutions of England, Belgium, and other European countries."

THE RELATIVE GROWTH OF BODY AND BRAIN.

AN interesting account of the rate of growth of the human body, and the relation between this and the development of skull and brain, is contributed to the last number of the *Archiv für Anthropologie* by Dr. Seggel, who has been city physician for a number of years at Munich, where, on account of his official position, he has had the opportunity of making observations on children of different ages in the schools, and has obtained measurements which bring out some interesting facts concerning the development of body and brain and lead to conclusions of practical value.

He finds that the development of the hemispheres of the brain, and with it the development of intellectual power, is shown by the measurement of the base-line of the skull. If this is well developed in proportion to the length of the body, a normal degree of intelligence may be expected; but if its growth is not proportionate to the increase in length, severe mental exertion should be avoided. Mental relaxation is especially needed between the ages of thirteen and seventeen years, because during those years the rate of increase in the length of the base-line of the skull, with the corresponding increase in brain-weight, usually falls behind the rate of growth of the body in length. At this time, the same danger arises as for the heart,—when it does not keep pace with the general growth of the body, it is not strong enough for great exertion.

As evidence that mental development usually takes place in a relatively high degree toward the close of growth in height, the writer cites the not unusual observation that boys and girls

whose studies have been deferred until they are nearly or quite full-grown require much less time than others to complete the course in school. This ought to argue for reform in the schools and postponement of the more difficult subjects until the critical period for the development of the brain is past. After the age of seventeen, the growth of the brain is much greater as compared with the growth of the body.

Records kept of the rate of growth of the body, each year, for pupils from nine to twenty years of age showed that the most active period of growth is not in the sixteenth year, as sometimes stated, but in the fourteenth and fifteenth, with the greatest growth in the fourteenth year, followed by a very slight decrease in the fifteenth year, and a steady decrease after that.

Only slight differences were found between the maximum and minimum rates of growth among children of the same age.

Comparison of measurements showed that there are two distinct periods of accelerated growth of the brain, and that these periods of acceleration do not occur at the same age for both boys and girls, the first period being from ten to eleven for girls and from twelve to thirteen for boys, the second period from seventeen to eighteen for girls and from nineteen to twenty for boys, corresponding, in general, to the time of attaining maturity.

During the period of most rapid growth in height, from twelve to fourteen years, the development of the brain lags behind the development of the body most noticeably, being less than one one-hundredth of the amount of growth of the body, while from seventeen to nineteen the brain grows one-thirtieth as fast as the body, and at twenty it reaches one-seventh of the rate of body-growth.

Unusual accelerations of growth sometimes occur in either the body or the brain, but not often in both at the same time, only four instances of that sort being recorded. In general, unusual increase in height occurs before the fifteenth year, although one instance was recorded as occurring after the sixteenth year, while any exceptional growth of the brain usually occurs after the period of most active bodily growth.

The writer specially emphasizes the fact that great care should be exercised not to overtax the brains of school children who have not reached the age of most rapid brain-growth, and that by careful observation of the rate of growth of the skull an indication may be had as to whether a pupil is capable of doing the regular amount of work without injury.

TUBERCULOSIS: DR. BEHRING'S REMEDY.

THERE are two articles in *La Revue*—one of great importance—on the subject of tuberculosis. That by Dr. Lowenthal deplors the terrible ravages of the disease in the French navy, especially in such part of its personnel as is stationed about the French coasts; and Dr. Romme seriously discusses the question, "Have we a remedy for tuberculosis?" a question, however, which he finally answers negatively, although he really begins to hope that the remedy is in sight. The French navy shows the ravages of tuberculosis in a remarkable degree.



DR. EMIL BEHRING.

In 1901, 15.4 per cent. of the men in the French Mediterranean squadron were found to be tuberculous; and of the rest of the navy, 12.5. In the army, the figures are much lower, although they are still three times heavier than those of the German army.

DR. BEHRING'S MILK VACCINE.

It is no wonder, then, that Dr. Romme turns to the experiments of Dr. Behring, the famous German bacteriologist, as to the cure of this scourge.

"Accurate experiments have convinced him that the milk of cows treated with intra-veinous injections of tuberculous growths contained anti-toxic substances which acted upon tuberculosis just as the Roux serum does upon diphtheria. He concluded from this that such milk might be considered as a vaccine, and that if given to a very young infant it ought to vaccinate it against tuberculosis in the same way as the vaccine of a heifer preserves it against smallpox."

The question is, why give the milk only to a very young infant and not to an adult? The reason is that in the adult the epithelial cells covering the mucous membrane of the intestine form a consecutive film preventing the passage of the microbes; whereas in the new-born infant the epithelial membrane is permeable and not continuous, so that microbes can pass through into the blood.

"A vaccine introduced into the digestive tube of the new-born infant is absorbed without being modified, and confers immunity against disease in the same way as when it is injected through the skin. Also, consumption in the adult always dates from some tuberculous infection caught during the first months of life."

It is alarming to find that in almost every one of thirty and over, from whatever cause they have died, the presence of tuberculosis is detected. The weak point in Dr. Behring's plan of combating the disease is that the effect of anti-tuberculous milk lasts so short a time—a difficulty, however, which he has great hopes of overcoming.

WHAT TO DO WITH LONDON'S UNEMPLOYABLE.

THE unemployed and the unemployable are two different classes in the community. Canon Barnett, in an admirable paper which he contributes to the *Economic Review*, makes clear the distinction between these two classes. The unemployed ought to be left to their friends and to the trade-unions. The care of the unemployable it is both the interest and the duty of society to undertake. The duty rests on the community to do something for the men and women who are not worth a living wage. The present theory of deterrence, with a prison-like workhouse and a prison-like casual ward, is out of date and inhuman.

LABOR SCHOOLS WANTED.

Canon Barnett insists that what is wanted is not deterrence, but education, which will make people work.

"The first thing necessary, therefore, is to replace the workhouses and casual wards with what may be called 'labor schools'—a 'school of restraint' for men and women, and a 'school of freedom' for men only, at which, under certain conditions, there would be freedom to come and go. Both schools should be established in the country, so that there would be ample provision for space, air, and exercise, but both should offer facilities for variety of work indoors as well as on the land. The control would probably be more efficient if the governors were

appointed partly by the County Council and partly by the Local Government Board. The area for the selection of governors, as well as for the admission of people, would thus be wider than that of poor law unions, and it might be well to dissociate the new schools from old associations. Part of the expense might fairly be borne by the nation, as the unemployable cannot be said to be the creation of any one locality, or, indeed, to have any settlement. The Local Government Board would thus have the right to nominate certain of the governors, and would take advantage of their power to put on men and women of known intelligence and humanity."

The school of restraint would be for the homeless. On the second or third application, the period of restraint should cover three or four years. The pupils should be well fed, enjoy outdoor exercise, have the means of education, receive medical attention, be educated, and be freed from all vexatious or humiliating treatment. The school of freedom would be for men who have homes of their own. It would be set up in huts or in barracks on unreclaimed or derelict land. The men would be put to work, and money sufficient for the upkeep of their homes would be sent by sure hands to their wives. Each man would be allowed, at regular intervals, to visit his home and seek work. The hope of occupying, as state tenants, homesteads and gardens laid out by them might be held out to men who proved their qualifications for country life, or they might be passed on to the colonies. So might arise Mr. Booth's industrial communities, midway between pauperism and independence, which should realize the intention of the workhouse. By simply changing the workhouses and casual wards from prisons to schools, the result might be obtained.

THE FIGHT AGAINST ALCOHOLISM ABROAD.

FROM the 26th to the 29th of September, a national congress was held in Paris to discuss the problem of alcoholism and how to deal with it. The full account of the proceedings both before and at the congress is now published in the *Bulletin de l'Institut Général Psychologique*, and forms a highly interesting document for all who have this question at heart. What is chiefly remarkable in these deliberations is—(1) that the speakers carefully abstained from advocating anything like teetotalism. The French speakers in particular evidently considered it quite unworkable for France. All they would attempt is to combat the drinking of pure spirit (brandy, absinthe, vermouth) and all drinking to excess, leaving to the French peasant his glass of light

wine or cider as a drink. (2) Several speakers insisted strongly on the need of reaching the wife and family. The manager of some large factories in a place where a cold climate fostered drinking hit upon the following method of doing this :

"Alleging the waste of time and other difficulties arising from paying the men at the pay-desk, he had distributed to every man, two days before every pay-day, a paper bearing the amount of money due to him. The workman could not keep this paper from his wife without exposing himself to endless suspicions and recriminations. Knowing how much he got or was to get, the wife did not fail to claim it for the hundred and one family and household needs."

The ultimate result was that the family finances and the father of the family alike improved.

GOVERNMENT MONOPOLY FAVORED.

Another point greatly insisted on is the possibility of using the school as a temperance agent. But it is at once admitted that it will never do for the pupils to see the master preaching temperance in school and constantly drinking in the cafés out of school. Occasionally, perhaps, but not constantly. The master must, of course, thoroughly understand the question of alcohol and its effects, in the present and on posterity, and for this purpose it is proposed that the primary-school inspectors should assemble their teachers once a month to give them the necessary instructions. On the whole, opinion was strongly in favor of a government monopoly, on the principles—adapted to French conditions—obtaining in Russia; although in every country it could not be hoped that the government would organize and subsidize temperance committees, such as those existing to the number of over fifty in Russia, with twenty-four thousand members (1900). Nothing was said of Lord Grey's public-house trust; but the "*Maison du Peuple*" at St. Petersburg, proposed by the Prince of Oldenburg, was mentioned with high approval. The great argument for a government monopoly is that it, and it alone, can suppress the "cabaret," tavern, or low public-house, the supreme obstacle in the way of French, if not of all, temperance reformers. In France, the question of making drink a government monopoly has several times come before Parliament; and in principle it is already approved by both the Chamber and the Senate.

TEMPERANCE RESTAURANTS.

The only woman speaker, Mme. Legrain, made some very practical remarks. She strongly ad-

vocated the creation of temperance restaurants, and was convinced that if enough of them sufficiently attractive were founded, the "cabarets" would be, not suppressed, but less numerous. Five years ago, in the face of perpetual prophecies of failure, she had founded a temperance restaurant in Paris, which succeeded so well that in three months it was self-supporting. But the temperance restaurant must have books, and be a comfortable and pleasant place for families to sit and read. To her restaurant, said Mme. Legrain, "whole families would come; the children, after dinner, would do their lessons, the parents would take a book from the library."

DRINK IN EUROPEAN ARMIES.

IN connection with the "canteen" agitation in this country, the experience of some of the European nations with the drink evil in their armies should prove instructive.

A French officer, Captain de Malleray, of temperance, if not actually teetotal, opinions, contributes to the second October number of the *Revue de Paris* some curious notes which he has made during his travels on the effect of the drinking habit in various European armies.

He had already seen the terrible effects of alcoholism in Brittany, both among soldiers and civilians, and in 1894, when he started on his travels, the French regimental canteens still sold intoxicating drink, though they no longer do so now. The effect of this has simply been to send the soldiers elsewhere for their drink. Liège, the first city which Captain de Malleray visited, maintains ten thousand drink-sellers for its forty-five thousand inhabitants. This was bad enough, but he also noted an extraordinary popular ignorance of the effect of alcohol. Mothers gave it to their babies in order to make them strong. On one occasion he saw four men who were working a large flour mill,—work which is generally done by horses or donkeys. These poor wretches were allowed by custom a definite proportion of brandy, according to the amount of grain they ground, with the result that they drank more or less the whole time.

In Russia, Captain de Malleray found the drinking habit even more deeply rooted. He investigated the canteen of a regiment which made its own liquor, and the colonel told him that the Russian soldier considered *vodka* a necessity of life. He did what he could to lure them to drink less injurious liquors, such as beer, but he was very pessimistic about the possibility of any improvement. But when our traveler went to Stockholm, the whole scene was changed,—the Gothenberg system, he was

told, had regenerated the army, which now included remarkably few drunkards. The sale of alcohol was not suppressed, but its use was limited by a series of intelligent measures,—namely, the selling of it at a high price, the provision of comfortable rooms where non-intoxicating drinks could be had cheap, and above all, the arrangement that the managers should have no interest in the sale of intoxicating liquors. In Norway, he found that people hardly drank anything but milk. Our traveler found no regimental canteens in Turkey, and the officers attributed to this cause the powers of endurance and the discipline which their troops displayed.

Captain de Malleray visited England in 1898. At Aldershot, he seems to have been struck by what he calls the intelligent drunkenness of the soldiers, which enabled them to walk straight even under the eyes of the special camp police. The canteen of the Royal Artillery at Aldershot excited his admiration, with its provision for rational recreation, and he found the same kind of thing at Woolwich. But he thinks it is a mistake to proscribe alcohol altogether, as is done in most of the English canteens. He also suggests that not enough is done to improve the minds of the soldiers. In conclusion, he draws a rather fanciful picture of an ideal canteen from which alcohol should not be entirely banished.

MOROCCO'S MALADIES AND MANY PHYSICIANS.

THE *Contemporary Review* for November contains a very interesting article by Mr. S. L. Bensusan on the relations of Great Britain, France, and the Moorish Empire. Mr. Bensusan has recently returned from traveling in Morocco, and he gives a lucid account of the state of

things in the Moorish court, which seems to be about as bad as it could be; and also of the intrigues which, he states, are going on for the purpose of making French influence paramount in the country. It appears, indeed, from his story that it was only the intervention of Germany which prevented the surrender of the country to France. The negotiations between Paris and London, last year, got as far as an outlined scheme recognizing French interests as paramount in Morocco; but when knowledge of this came to the ears of the German minister, he informed his government, which in turn informed Spain, with the result that Berlin and Madrid declared that they must be consulted before the Moorish question could be settled.

THE STORY OF A FRENCH LOAN.

Mr. Bensusan accuses the French Government of sharp practice, and gives the following account of the *coup* effected by that government in regard to the Morocco loan:

"Shortly before President Loubet came over, the young Sultan, with whose extravagance I will deal presently, wanted a further loan. It was being negotiated in France, when Downing Street, with a burst of activity that must surely have been prompted outside the foreign office, woke to the fact that it was not wise to allow France to be Morocco's dominant creditor. A message was sent to Paris suggesting that the Moorish loan should be supplied by France and Britain jointly. On behalf of M. Delcassé, the suggestion was agreed to in principle and the Quai d'Orsay asked for a few days to settle details. On the following night the money was sent in specie from Marseilles to Morocco and forwarded post-haste to Fez. When the transaction was complete, the Quai d'Orsay informed Downing Street that, as the French money had already reached the Sultan, the incident was closed."

MULAI ABD-EL-AZIZ—

The original cause of these intrigues is, of course, the weakness of the Shereefian government; and the Sultan is the center of that weakness. Of him Mr. Bensusan gives the following picturesque account:

"Mulai Abd-el-Aziz is a charming, kindly, headstrong man, suffering badly from youth, who delights in reforms for the sake of their novelty and lacks the brain power that distinguished his father, Mulai el Hassan, and his grandfather, Mulai Mohammed. While he stayed in his southern capital, he was comparatively free from the attacks of commercial *attachés* and other rogues, whose designs upon his treasury should



THE QUESTION OF A PROTECTORATE OVER MOROCCO.

"Allah! Allah! why did you make Morocco so beautiful?"
From *Le Grelot* (Paris).

have been obvious, though he was guilty of many extravagances, including displays of fireworks that made his envoy to England speak slightly of the special display arranged in his honor at the Crystal Palace. In Fez, the agents surrounded him like summer flies. He has twelve motor cars and no roads to ride them over; he paid between three and four thousand pounds for a yacht, sixty feet long, that was to be used on the Sebu River, which is no more than thirty feet wide; in spite of the Koran's prohibition, he has purchased a crown at a price I am afraid to name. He has put some of his soldiers into European uniforms and boots, only to find that they run away from Bu Hamara as readily as they did when dressed in native garments. He has developed an enthusiasm for photography,—I have seen some of his work,—and in addition to cameras with cases of pure gold he has one apartment of his palace loaded from floor to ceiling with dark plates, and he was persuaded to order ten thousand francs' worth of printing paper. He has a menagerie in the grounds of the palace at Fez, and on a day when it was reported that the lion sent from England had quarreled with and killed the lion sent from Berlin one of the European visitors to the court suggested to him that a contest between the victorious lion and the Bengal tiger would afford good sport. 'No,' said Abd-el-Aziz, 'the lion cost me three thousand pounds!'

—AND HIS RIVAL.

The present government survives merely because the country is altogether tribal in its constitution, and there is no unity between the tribes. Otherwise, Bu Hamara's rebellion might have succeeded, and Mr. Bensusan apparently still thinks the pretender may put an end to the government, for he is a very able man.

"Not working for his own hand, a master, says rumor, of the French and Spanish tongues, an adept at sleight-of-hand tricks that seem to the untrained Moors to justify his claims to be a real wonder-worker, it is clear that he has traveled and studied, and that he has received substantial assistance and advice from parties anxious to see some disturbance of the *status quo* in the Sultan's realm. There were times during the star's ascendancy when the rule of Morocco trembled in the balance, when France had an army on the eastern frontier ready and eager to strike, and Great Britain had a squadron at Gibraltar and a thousand men sleeping under arms every night for a brief perilous period; when nobody knew what was going to happen next. . . . Round the camp-

fire at nights, when the tent was up and supper was over, my servants and the soldiers would discuss Bu Hamara and his wonderful deeds with the head men of the village, lying gravely and with unction, like men at home when they talk of sport after dinner in the billiard-room. To the village folk, Bu Hamara was no more than one of the heroes of Arabian Nights legend; they were interested to hear how he turned the bullets of the Sultan's soldiers to sand or water, and how he allowed the first lot of assassins from Fez to fire at him at close range before he sent them back unharmed to their master with the news that he was invulnerable, but had the second lot dipped in petroleum and lighted, in order that the risk of these ventures might be more properly appreciated."

Mr. Bensusan's solution of the problem is that a mixed tribunal should be appointed to assist the Sultan in the administration of his kingdom. He thinks that the Sultan would welcome it. The Atlas Mountains should be made the extreme limit of the French advance.

A FRENCH VIEW OF OUR "INVASION" OF CANADA.

M. DUMORET contributes to the first October number of the *Nouvelle Revue* a striking article on the American invasion of Canada. The French inhabitants of Canada naturally engage M. Dumoret's particular attention. He is impressed, as every intelligent observer must be, by the capacity which this people have shown to retain their national characteristics, and even their language, in a country that was—at any rate, originally—foreign soil. M. Dumoret makes the startling suggestion that France should send out colonists and capital in order to strengthen the men of her own race in the approaching struggle with the Anglo-Saxon. Be it noted that by Anglo-Saxon he does not mean so much the Britisher as the Yankee.

The extent to which Yankee immigration and Yankee capital have penetrated Canada has, he says, actually alarmed the Canadian government itself. From 1890 to July, 1902, no fewer than one hundred and thirty-five thousand American farmers established themselves within the Dominion. This, it must be admitted, was the direct result of the Canadian government's action in 1898, when it sought by every possible means of advertisement and state assistance to attract American immigration into the vast territories of the Northwest. But the Yankee invasion is not confined to farmers. Business men of all kinds have crossed the frontier, and have brought

their capital and their commercial intelligence to bear on the development of manufactures, mines, railways, and, indeed, every conceivable business proposition. M. Dumoret declares that there is already one American to every three Canadians, and the proportion is becoming steadily greater, so that soon there will be—in the Northwest, at any rate—more Americans than Canadians.

In fact, whether Canada is or is not annexed to the United States, he regards it as certain that the greatest part of the wealth of the Dominion will become the property of the Yankees, or of American companies; and he foresees a time when America and Canada will combine against Europe, which would mean ruin for the agriculture and the industry of the Old World. Nothing could stand against such an alliance, he thinks, except a combination of all the European states into one commercial union. This he regards as a visionary scheme, and he prefers the plan already mentioned of sending French colonists and French capital to get a slice of the cake in Canada itself.

Incidentally, M. Dumoret brings a remarkable charge against the Hudson Bay Company, whose agents, he says, were long aware of the prodigious fertility of the Canadian Northwest, but systematically represented it as a barren, snow-clad, uninhabitable region, fit only for the pursuit and capture of wild fur-bearing animals. It was in 1879, M. Dumoret says, that Mr. Taylor, the then United States consul at Winnipeg, revealed the truth,—namely, that three-quarters of the arable land of North America was to be found on the Canadian side of the frontier.

A "BUSINESS DOCTOR."

WHEN your business is not thriving, call in the doctor and have it medically examined. This is what, according to the *Magazine of Commerce*, is about to be done in England, and has been for some time past in the United States, where there are at least half-a-dozen "business doctors," experts, with a stock-in-trade of brain and experience, who are called in to investigate when a business is not what it should be, to prescribe remedies, and to generally order the whole staff until the weak points are discovered and made strong. At the instance of a well-known firm of tobacconists, one of these experts, Mr. Martin Kollmann, with sixteen years' American experience, is now "practising" in England.

"It need hardly be said that, in business as in health, the patient who would obtain a safe cure must repose absolute confidence in his doctor. On his side, the business doctor realizes

that absolute secrecy is essential, in the interests both of his client and of himself.

"When the doctor is called in to a business, he takes absolute control of every department for the term of his engagement, which usually varies from two to six weeks. During that period, he acts in much the same relation to the business that a pilot does to a ship. Advertising, buying, floor and counter arrangements, economy of space and labor, and the complete systematizing of every department are his particular duties. . . . It is contended that he rarely fails to find something wrong by remedying which he can materially increase the profits of the enterprise. According to one 'doctor,' the greatest difficulty experienced by the expert is to teach men to advertise properly. One man uses a two-inch space to advertise a product when a page should be used. Another is wasting his advertisement fund without getting results."

As an instance of a cure effected by a business doctor, one of these experts recently detected, in a large American manufacturing concern employing thousands, that owing to too great trustfulness the workmen were managing to carry off per day, in their dinner pails and otherwise concealed, tools to the value of \$2,000. At least, such was their value on the particular day when the men were hauled up and examined as they passed out of the gates for the night.

"If the stories of parties most interested are to be believed, the 'doctor' often effects enormous reductions of staff. The particular expert referred to at the beginning of this article records a case in which he was able to reduce a force of six men engaged in posting ledger accounts to a total strength of one. And even that one man, we are told, works at the task only three hours a day! The system adopted provides, among other things, for a series of duplicates, so that the sudden destruction of a set of ledger records can be almost instantly replaced. This same expert answers the question 'What will the best of modern systems save a large business?' by stating that one manufacturing establishment has been saved, through his agency, in its pay-roll and time-keeping departments alone, the 'tallish' sum of £20,000 a year."

The one difficulty seems to be that the business doctor is a very expensive person, whose high fees a tottering firm would never be able to meet. The article gives many other interesting instances of cures effected by the business doctor. He is, of course, a terror, not only to all evil-doers, but to idlers; indeed, to every one who does not keep himself and his work in the highest state of efficiency.

WHAT THE SCHOOL OF JOURNALISM CAN TEACH.

THERE is a widespread curiosity, especially among practical newspaper men, regarding the subjects to be taught in the Columbia University School of Journalism, founded by Mr. Joseph Pulitzer, and the methods to be adopted in presenting them. Such a curiosity is gratified, in a measure, by an article from the pen of Mr. Hammond Lamont, managing editor of the *New York Evening Post*, which appears in the November number of the *Educational Review*.

The article is entitled "The Curriculum of the School of Journalism," and defines, from the point of view of a daily newspaper, certain relations between this proposed school and the existing colleges, which presumably will serve as feeders to it.

PRELIMINARY STUDIES.

As between the science of journalism and the art, or practice, both of which must be dealt with by the new school, Mr. Lamont anticipates the greater difficulty in arranging courses of instruction in the former. It will be difficult, in the first place, to formulate a science of journalism, since there is not to-day a definite body of learning to be mastered, as there is in the professions of law, medicine, theology, or the branches of engineering. The journalist, it is true, needs every science, language, and philosophy; but any good college will serve to introduce him to these various subjects as well as any school of journalism possibly can. It will be the function of the new school to emphasize, group, and strengthen certain studies of special value to the journalist, such as modern languages and literature, history, government, jurisprudence, diplomacy, sociology, finance, statistics, economics, ethics, psychology, and art. The emphasis of these subjects, says Mr. Lamont, should awaken intending journalists everywhere to their neglect of opportunities already provided for systematic preparation.

"Many graduates who enter journalism are too ignorant of the elements of political science to report clearly the proceedings of a legislature, a board of aldermen, or a political convention—to say nothing of writing intelligent comment. The strengthening of instruction in these special courses is announced as part of the Columbia plan; but if Harvard and Yale choose to keep step, they may, without establishing a school, see to it that Columbia does not monopolize the means of grace.

"Besides these studies, which may be almost as useful to a lawyer or a clergyman as to an

editor, Columbia promises others that belong strictly to journalism and are hardly in place in college,—the law and the ethics of journalism, newspaper administration and manufacture, and the history of the press. Courses in law and ethics, though the quantity of matter is not large, should have value, especially if they inculcate rudimentary notions of the sanctities of private life and the amenities of civilized society. The remaining technical subjects should occupy only a small share of the curriculum; for systems of administration differ so widely that much of the instruction can touch only general principles; manufacturing processes are so quickly learned in practice that exhaustive study of them in school is hardly worth while; and the history of journalism is short. In fine, all these technical courses are distinctly less valuable, both for content and mental discipline.

"To sum up, in the science of journalism the school will offer but little more than our best colleges may; and that little,—if we except the law and the ethics,—is of minor importance. But it will gain from having its course designed for a particular end, systematically developed, and so plainly marked out that wayfaring students, though fools, shall not err therein."

NEWS-GATHERING.

On the side of practice, Mr. Lamont thinks that the school will suffer less from competition with the colleges.

"In the elementary instruction in gathering news, it will have the field largely to itself. Here the school should encounter no serious difficulty; it can teach the art of writing accurate and readable reports of sermons and lectures, meetings, games, and all public affairs in which the reporter does not demand the time and attention of innocent third persons. True, such training is as generally beneficial as the routine college composition, and would be a profitable part of the academic course, indeed, as an elective, it might legitimately count toward the degree in arts or science. But the colleges will be in no haste to seize the blessing. They are slow to accept innovations; and, besides, so few teachers have been ground through the mill of a newspaper office and fully prepared to conduct classes in reporting that special instructors would be required. In the rudiments of news-gathering, then, the school can do work which, however useful, will not, probably, be done in college for some years yet."

In mastering what Mr. Lamont terms "advanced reporting," the student will require some other form of practice than that afforded by public occasions. Some way must be devised

by which the amateur reporter can be brought into contact with men of affairs who have important information to give out and be trained to discriminate between what is said for publication, in such interviews, and what is "confidential."

LEARNING HOW TO WRITE.

Mr. Lamont is severe in his censure of the average college instruction in English composition.

"Generally, the teaching is in the hands of a few professors and a corps of younger assistants. Some of the professors are successful authors, skilled in both the theory and practice of writing, and thoroughly competent as instructors. The assistants, who do the bulk of the drudgery, have specialized in English, and have often taken the master's or the doctor's degree on work in philology and literature. They have edited English classics, have labored over an occasional essay, but have been so busy correcting tons of theses that they remain erudite theorists. As a result, their pupils turn out sentences and paragraphs of tolerable correctness; but, instead of seizing significant points, they write a subject to the dregs, sprawl over inordinate space, and bury interesting facts under a mass of dry detail. Of course, colleges should preserve a high standard of correctness,—should err on that side. Yet, without falling into the cheap smartness of journalism, they should—from the point of view of the newspaper—run less to hairsplitting and red tape, and lay more stress on directness and brevity. Not long ago, a prominent engineer remarked: 'I wish our colleges and technical schools could make their students write a little more like reporters. I have just been reading a dozen engineering reports. Each writer has something new to say, but each has failed to display his real contribution to the science as the conspicuous feature of his paper. He has not received due credit, simply because he has hidden his light under a bushel.' Such censure would not be possible if practical experience in writing, as well as knowledge of literature, were regarded as an essential for a teacher of composition. To-day, college teachers, with a few notable exceptions, have no clear understanding of the needs even of our best daily journalism.

"In the school, on the other hand, the teaching must be done by expert copy-readers. The copy-reader has been a reporter, and has been slashed unmercifully. He early learned to display the salient features of his news in the first sentence or two, and to arrange paragraphs so that with limited space on the make-up the less

important matter can be quickly dropped out. He has had daily exercise in cutting a dull story of two thousand words into an interesting one of five hundred. Although he is acquainted with few treatises on style, and his knowledge of literature and linguistics is not recondite, he never forgets that tediousness is the cardinal sin. He may, also, be as rigid as the college instructor on the vital points of correctness and clearness; and if he follows the traditions of the best offices, he can add to the somewhat academic training of college a more specific preparation for newspaper writing than college can offer without a special instructor."

Advanced pupils may handle some of the copy of beginners; and if duplicates of Associated Press and City News Association reports can be obtained, good practice may be had in editing, in "playing up" important features, and in writing heads. Instruction may also be given in making up. Something may be done in the line of editorial writing, but the editorial writer needs "a wide and exact familiarity with the facts that he discusses, a well-digested set of principles to apply to them, and a sound judgment," and these things come only with maturity.

A Boys' School in Journalism.

The *Young Man* contains an interview with Mr. William Hill, of the *Westminster Gazette*, on the experiment in journalism which he suggested to a man of wealth, and which is now being carried out in connection with the City of London School and the Steevens' Travelling Scholarship. Mr. Hill has a class of lads from fifteen to eighteen years of age. He thus describes his methods:

"I began by showing them over the *Westminster* offices and describing a newspaper office to them. I then outlined the features of the different departments of a newspaper office, and the nature of the work undertaken by each. A little later, they spent a profitable as well as pleasant night in the *Daily Mail* office, and they have also enjoyed the advantage of a tour through the *Daily Telegraph* office. I have taken them in detail through the way in which news is obtained, and how it is handled in the office; likewise the methods of setting up and correcting the type, and the principles and intricacies of the 'make-up' of a paper. Other lectures have dealt with the principles and practice of reporting, and so on. That word practice reminds me to tell you that throughout the year I have sought to give the students much more practice than theory. Specimens of their work have from time to time appeared in the *Steevens' Scholarship Gazette*. On the day of the King's pro-

cession through London, and again on Lord Mayor's Day, the boys were given places overlooking the route, and each was instructed to write a short account of the day's incidents for publication in the evening. The order was for them to return to the school immediately to 'write out,' and they experienced the real thing to the extent of suffering the reporter's great annoyance,—the interruptions of the 'printer's devil' demanding copy, who was sent across once or twice from the office where the *Gazette* was being printed."

Mr. Hill pronounced this a fairly smart piece of work. He has also trained the boys in interviewing. He began with an imaginary interview with Dr. Conan Doyle. He has since turned them on real victims, with results distinctly encouraging, not to say flattering. Mr. Hill takes his profession seriously, and will not be surprised if a department of journalism should be formed as part of the scheme of the great technical university which, it is understood, will arise in London in the course of the next two or three years. His ideal of journalism is the presenting of the day's news through the pleasantest of mediums.

BOSTON'S "OLD CORNER" BOOKSTORE.

WITH the demolition of the famous Old Corner Bookstore, at the corner of Washington and School streets, Boston, there passes away, not only an ancient landmark of the city, but a building fraught with reminis-



THE "OLD CORNER" IN ITS PALMY DAYS.

cences of the literary Boston of the last century. The mere mention of the old bookstore recalls to the Bostonian of a past generation the names of Carter, Ticknor, and Fields among publishers,—of Hawthorne, Whipple, Whittier,

Emerson, Holmes, Lowell, Longfellow, and many others among authors. Says a writer in the *New England Magazine* for November :

"Now ensued a period glorious for American letters, during which the Old Corner attracted to itself the greatest of native and English writers, comparatively few Americans of distinction being associated with any other house. The sterling worth, the mercantile dignity, and sound judgment of Ticknor, and the swift perception, the brilliancy, and the social charm of Fields, gave in their union power, reliability, vitality, and geniality to the establishment, and the Old Corner became the constant resort of wits, poets, scientists, philosophers, and the distinguished of all professions.

FAMILIAR FIGURES AT THE OLD CORNER.

"Here came Rufus Choate to explain the hieroglyphic memoranda in which he set down the names of the books he wanted to come by the next 'boat,' as he always called a steamship. Here came Holmes to say how he loved to practise medicine and teach anatomy, and how his one difficulty was not to pour out from his stores of knowledge faster than his pupils could absorb.

"Here Thackeray towered above his admirers and told gayly of his American experiences and impressions, none the less amused because the point of his story made against his own simplicity or ignorance. Like Hawthorne, he was not fond of bookish topics, did not like to talk shop, and was more interested in mere men and women than in authors, caring more for their humanity than their composition.

"Here Henry Giles scintillated with such brilliant epigram and outlined his thought so incisively that his misshaped form was forgotten, and Whittier's 'thee' and 'thou' greeted his friends shyly and tenderly. Here were seen the burly figure of bluff Henry Ward Beecher, and the slender form of his gentle-mannered sister, Mrs. Stowe; the sweet, kindly face of Lucy Larcom, the spiritual countenance of Ralph Waldo Emerson, and the round, rosy, beardless, boyish face of Thomas Starr King; and here were often to be met jovial John G. Saxe, the herculean, whose talent and touch assimilated him more nearly than any other American to Thomas Hood in fun and fancy, and bright-eyed little 'Tom Folio,' with a bundle of books and papers clasped in his arms under his short cloak, and ever on the point of some fine literary discovery, of which too often some one with whom he had been over-generously confidential gained ultimately the credit.

A MEETING-PLACE OF THE PROFESSIONS.

"Here the great men of the bar, pulpit, platform, and university chair exchanged their notions of science, ethics, history, poetry, politics, and people, and Gliddon discoursed of Egypt and the latest find in mummies; here Biscaccianti, Kellogg, Cary, and other *prime donne* dropped bits of song; Mrs. Kemble, Murdoch, Mr. and Mrs. Barrow, Warren, Vandenhoff, Forrest, Davenport, and Brougham scattered the bright gossip of the stage, and Ole Bull talked of his northern home and his 'leetle yellow phiolin.'"

It may cause a shock to some of the former frequenters of the Old Corner to learn that in its latter days the ground floor was occupied by a cheap luncheon establishment!

THE CRISIS IN THE FRENCH BOOK TRADE.

FOR some time past, it has been said that French books have been selling badly,—the trade in them has been in a parlous state. Into the truth or the falsity of these assertions the editor of *La Revue* has sent M. Max Leclerc to inquire, and the result is a most interesting symposium in the number for October 15. The French customs showed for French books exported in 1900 \$2,067,600, against \$2,826,000 in 1899; and in 1901 things were but slightly better.

OVERPRODUCTION.

The replies of the great Paris publishing houses are singularly unanimous. They one and all deplore the fact that, as few French journals criticise new books, descriptive advertisements,—more or less misleading, because they are advertisements,—are all that most of them insert as a guide to current literature. Almost with one accord, they admit a crisis in the book trade, and attribute it to overproduction. M. Flammarion, in particular, deploras the excessive production. Twenty new books a day is his average. It is especially the sale of novels that is affected; serious books, especially works of science and philosophy, are generally admitted to be as much in demand as ever. It is the novel of pure imagination and the over-elaborated psychological romance that are losing favor, while French taste, according to M. Fasquelle, demands works such as those of Urbain Gohier and Clemenceau, treating of great social problems; and even in novels, those in chief demand tend to be such as are debating some social principle, or marshaling historic facts (M. Bourget, for instance, and MM. Paul and Victor

Margueritte). M. Fasquelle also deploras the American pirated editions of French works, and urges an international treaty protecting French copyright. Time was when authors wrote for pleasure,—witness Daudet and Maupassant; now they are book-making machines. Talent now abounds; the difficulty is the selection. One reason urged for less reading, and consequently less book-buying, is "le sport."

NEWSPAPER COMPETITION.

The replies of the newspapers as to why they do not publish more criticisms of new books are, generally, that they do. *L'Eclair*, however, says: first, there must be time to read a book before criticising it; and, secondly, after advertisements, which are virtually criticisms, naturally always laudatory, what can the critic do? We cannot, they say, publish a eulogium of a book on one page and a depreciation of it on another. *Le Gaulois* remarks that it published six critical articles on "L'Étape," by M. Bourget, a book which MM. Plon and Nourrit said had sold up to sixty thousand copies already. *Le Gil Blas* considers that what is most injurious to book, and especially to novel, sales is the competition of newspapers and magazines. The public reads fiction in the form of *feuilletons* and serials. "Moreover" (it continues, in the person of M. Ollendorff), "abroad, French literature, which used to have almost all the triumphs, has encountered the competition of various recently made national reputations,—Rudyard Kipling and Thomas Hardy in England, Sudermann in Germany, D'Annunzio and Matilde Serao in Italy, have disputed with our writers for the intellectual market."

THE RIVALRIES OF THE TRADE.

M. Schwarz, one of the chief publishers of illustrated periodicals, remarks that, in his opinion, the harm done to booksellers is done by their "frantic and sometimes cynical competition with one another." "You cannot have an idea in the publishing trade without twenty imitators immediately seizing on it." He published *Le Frou-Frou*. Result: Seventeen imitations one after the other. *Le Pêle-Mêle* succeeds. Result: Nine imitations and so forth. And the remedy? There is only one. "The author of a new idea in the way of a publication should take out a patent."

MM. Armand and Colin, it is consoling to note, sum up this most interesting symposium with the direct statement: "Falling off in the sale of books? Not at all. . . . There will always be readers for books which deserve to be read, in France and elsewhere."

WAS JESUS A CARPENTER?

THE assertion that Jesus was a carpenter is so generally accepted as true that we may well hesitate to call it in question; and yet a careful examination of the grounds of this all but universal belief will reveal a surprising lack of evidence in support of it. Mr. Ernest Crosby opens a discussion of the subject in the *Craftsman* (Syracuse, N. Y.) for November by quoting the passage in the Gospel of St. Mark (vi., 3), where the people listening to the preaching of Jesus in the synagogue in "his own country" were astonished and cried: "What is the Wisdom that is given unto this man, and what mean such mighty works wrought by his hands? Is not this the carpenter, the son of Mary?"

THE GOSPEL RECORD.

Commenting on this passage, Mr. Crosby remarks:

"Taken by itself, this text is by no means decisive, for it is not a statement that Jesus was a carpenter, but merely that his auditors called him such, and they might have been mistaken or inaccurate. If we turn to the parallel passage in the Gospel of St. Matthew, we find an almost identical account of the same episode. 'And coming into his own country, he taught them in their synagogue, insomuch that they were astonished, and said, Whence hath this man this wisdom and these mighty works? Is not this the carpenter's son? is not his mother called Mary?' (Mat. xiii., 54-5). The two phrases, 'Is not this the carpenter?' and 'Is not this the carpenter's son?' are clearly variations of what was historically a single question, and in the original Greek they are equally similar. The people evidently made one of these remarks and not the other, and the difference is due to the error of one of the recorders. Which version is the more likely to be correct? It is impossible for us to determine, but it is at least just as probable that the designation of 'carpenter' was applied to his father as to himself, and we must still consider the question of his calling an open one. There is a passage in the Gospel of St. John which seems to have been derived from the same source, and it reads as follows: 'And they said, "Is not this Jesus, the son of Joseph, whose father and mother we know?"' Here the words 'the son of Joseph' might be regarded as a paraphrase of the words 'the carpenter's son,' which would make this reading of St. Matthew's appear to be the most authentic; and if this conclusion be correct, all proof of the fact that Jesus was a carpenter would disappear from the Gospels."

JUSTIN MARTYR'S TESTIMONY.

Mr. Crosby next cites the passage in Justin Martyr's "Dialogue with Trypho," written in the second century, referring to the trade of Jesus:

And when Jesus came to the Jordan, he was considered to be the son of Joseph the carpenter, . . . and he was deemed a carpenter (for he was in the habit of working as a carpenter when among men, making plows and yokes; by which he taught the symbols of righteousness and an active life). (Chapter lxxxviii.)

In the absence of confirmatory evidence, Mr. Crosby regards this passage as inconclusive.

"The phrase 'he was deemed a carpenter' suggests uncertainty on the part of the writer, and the imputation of symbolism to the mechanical work of Jesus has a certain fantastic air which would tend to classify the story with the legends of the apocryphal gospels. The four canonical evangelists make no further allusion to his trade or occupation. They pass over his life from his early infancy until his thirtieth year in a few words, and it does not appear that during the period of his ministry he engaged in any manual labor; or, at any rate, if he did, the fact is not mentioned."

WAS JESUS A FARMER?

Turning to the internal evidence afforded by the words of Jesus himself, Mr. Crosby finds "not a single word which points either to carpentry or to any handicraft whatever." With almost every other phase of life,—domestic, commercial, professional, and, above all, agricultural,—Jesus shows a deep familiarity.

"When we turn to his allusions to the rural world of corn-field and vineyard and sheepfold, we seem to enter a new region of which he speaks with the technical knowledge of an expert. With what particularity he details the incidents of the sower's day's work! Nothing could be more certain than that Jesus had often sown seed himself and seen the birds devour that which fell by the wayside, and had watched the fortunes of the crop from day to day, and noted how the sun scorched the blades which came up in rocky places, 'because they had no deepness of earth,' and how they withered away, 'because they had no root,' and how the thorns choked the seed that fell among them. And he knew exactly how much that which fell in good ground should yield; 'some a hundredfold, some sixty, some thirty.' . . . Jesus knows well the great estates of the rich, with their stewards and overseers, and it is such products of husbandry as oil and wheat which formed the debts reduced

by the 'unjust steward.' He knows well the rich man who builds great barns and fills them with his crops, when his soul is required of him. Country sights of all kinds furnish him with ready images,—the man who puts his hand to the plow and turns back, the treasure found in the field, the ox or the ass fallen into the well. He appears also to have had some knowledge of fishing, and of the way in which the fishermen draw the net up on the beach, and throw away the bad fish while they gather the good into vessels, and when he advises Peter at their first meeting where to cast his net, the result is successful.

"No less marked is the familiarity of Jesus with fruit culture. A fig tree which has not borne fruit for several years must be digged about and fertilized. A good tree brings forth good fruit, and a corrupt tree evil fruit, and the latter must be hewn down. Men do not gather grapes of thorns, nor figs of thistles. Jesus knows how laborers are hired in the market-place to work in vineyards, and how a man employs his own sons in such work, and he tells a parable of a householder who planted a vineyard and set a hedge about it, and digged a wine press in it, and built a tower, and let it out to husbandmen. He likens himself to a vine. Vine branches that bear no fruit are taken away, while those that bear are cleansed so that they may bear more, and the withered branches are burned. The new wine must be put into new leathern bottles, as it would burst old bottles."

NO HINT OF THE CARPENTER'S TRADE IN THE WORDS OF JESUS.

Jesus also shows special knowledge of the duties of a shepherd, and from the various references that he makes to the popular life all around him we may construct a wonderfully vivid picture of the society of his time. Only one feature, says Mr. Crosby, is almost totally absent,—and that is any hint of craftsmanship of any kind.

"In one place he speaks of the two men who built houses on the rock and on the sand, but not a single detail of the construction is given. It is the fall of the house on the sand which is described, and how the rain descended and the floods came and the wind blew and smote upon that house. All his attention is fixed on the work of nature. In another place, he tells of the building of a tower, but he only refers to it for the purpose of dwelling upon the necessity of counting the cost beforehand, lest it be left unfinished. It is certainly astounding that, whatever his occupation, Jesus never alludes to the work of an artificer. A carpenter's trade offers almost as many opportunities for parable and

parallel as the farmer's. The difference in the fiber of woods, the seasoning of timber and its warping, the use of the various tools, the adaptation of the parts of the article manufactured to the whole,—surely here was a field worth cultivating! Is it not inconceivable that Jesus should have been a craftsman and yet have failed to say one word of his craft? His mind seems to have turned almost invariably to the world of the farm for his similes; the scenes of farm life were always haunting him, and he recurred to them with evident affection."

A LIFE PASSED IN AGRICULTURE.

Mr. Crosby inclines, therefore, to the conclusion that Jesus was not a carpenter, and that, if his father ever was one, he had ceased to ply his trade before Jesus was old enough to pay attention to his work; for otherwise the early impressions of the craft would have remained in his mind.

"The tradition, in fact, is that Joseph was a very old man, and that he died while Jesus was still a lad. It seems pretty certain, on the other hand, that Jesus had earned his living in agriculture, vine-dressing, and sheep-raising, so that not only were all the details of these occupations at his fingers' ends, but they afforded him with the rich stock of illustrations upon which he was accustomed to draw. The Jews have never been preëminent as craftsmen, for which fact the prescription of graven images may be in part responsible, and the idea of 'joy in work,' as presented by Ruskin and Morris, is peculiarly Western and modern. That Jesus was an artist from the literary point of view, no one who reads the parable of the 'Prodigal Son' can doubt, but in the world of the senses it was nature, and not art, that attracted him. He had no taste for craftsmanship, and it is altogether unlikely that he ever was a craftsman. From his cradle in the manger of the oxen to his tomb in a 'garden,' his life savored of the soil and of its primary and essential travail."

MRS. HUMPHRY WARD'S NEW FAITH.

ONCE more Mrs. Humphry Ward appears as herald of a new religious movement. In a review of Carpenter and Wicksteed's "Studies in Theology," contributed to the *Hibbert Journal*, she says:

"It cannot be too plainly emphasized that what we are now witnessing in the religious life around us is the emergence of a fresh religious conception, exhibiting the same thrilling and vivifying power as the older beliefs in incarnation and sacrament.

CONSCIENCE IN PLACE OF REVELATION.

"For large numbers of religious minds, as has been already said, conscience has *become*, has taken the place of, revelation. Its witness is not to any external 'scheme' or isolated history, but simply to its own laws and their implications, looked at in the light of experience and history. This witness may be far yet from being intellectually complete; but now it is not merely a theory, not merely a psychology, it is a *faith*,—that is the important point. Christianity was a faith long before it was dogma or philosophy. And in this new awe which says 'Reverence thyself,' as all the sages have said it, but adds 'For in thyself alone is the message of God,' there is a power of infinite development of which the throb and impulse are to be felt in essays like these. It is as though the human mind, freed from a number of dead conceptions, were drawing nearer than ever before to things primal and ineffable; and in a wholly new sense, what was ethic is seen to be religion. It knows in science and criticism its best friends; and the tone of exultation that is beginning to ring through it is the tone of those who already foresee an approaching unification of experience and faith, no less far-reaching and commanding than the great unification elaborated by medieval thought, whereof the ruins lie around us."

"THE SUPREME PARABLE OF HISTORY."

Mrs. Ward does not, however, content herself with the inward witness, nor discard the aid of Christian history. She welcomes what Amiel describes as the transition of Christianity from the region of history to the region of psychology. She says:

"Christian philosophy begins anew. What the greatness of Christ was and meant in itself, we can neither know nor measure,—no more, at any rate, and no less than in the case of all other human nature. But what Jesus Christ is to us Europeans, as prophet, teacher, and king of the ideal society founded by his life and death,—that we can know and express in the normal terms of history and experience. 'Without a parable spake He not unto them.' And his own life is the supreme parable of history, possessed of the indestructible force, the endless adaptability, the *timelessness*, in fact, which belongs to the highest life of man, whether in its moral, or its intellectual, or its æsthetic aspect. Can the thought of our day, constructive and analytic, rescue Christianity sufficiently from its own decay to save for us this possession of the life of Christ and bring it once more into vital contact with theistic philosophy, on the one side, and

practical ethic and organization on the other? There lies for many of us, at the present moment, the question of questions."

Mrs. Ward concludes with the hope that Manchester College, "the only truly free school of religious history and philosophy that we possess," will furnish some statement of the whole Christian position, philosophical and historical, which shall adequately express and represent the new religious powers.

IS THERE AN ANTARCTIC CONTINENT.

RECENT discoveries in the Antarctic regions (described in the July number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS by Mr. Cyrus C. Adams) have revived interest in the theory of an Antarctic continent. In the *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift* for October 11, Dr. Meisenheimer writes a very timely account of the history of the theory of the present beliefs of scientific men on this subject. The article is entitled "The Researches up to the Present Time in Regard to the Relations of the Three Southern Continents to an Antarctic Distribution Center."

DISTRIBUTION OF PLANTS AND ANIMALS ABOUT THE SOUTH POLE.

The botanist Hooker, from his study of the distribution of plants, was the first (about the middle of the nineteenth century) to suggest the former connection of the southern continents, inasmuch as he found a close relationship between the plants of New Zealand, Australia, and South America. Darwin noticed a similar relationship, but thought it due to the dissemination of seeds by icebergs, currents, etc., and not to a direct land connection. Rutimeyer was the first to formulate the idea of a great Antarctic continent, with a warm climate, from which animals and plants had migrated toward the north over land bridges into Africa, Australia, and South America. Then the wingless birds of these regions, the emus of Australia, the ostriches of Africa, the giant birds of New Zealand and Madagascar, and the rhea of South America, could be considered as having a common origin in this supposed polar continent. Other authors found further facts to confirm this idea. Gill found nearly related fishes, Beddard earthworms allied to one another, and other closely related animals were noted by other authors.

THE FOUR NORTHERLY EXTENSIONS.

The theory of an Antarctic continent was brought out in most detail by Forbes, in a paper on the Chatham Islands. Basing his conclusions

on the facts of the distribution of animals in the southern continents, he drew a chart giving the limits of the hypothetical continent. According to him, Antarctica must have had a warm climate, and an abundant vegetation, until the gradual cooling drove life toward the north. The continent consisted of a mass of land around the south pole, with four long extensions to the north. One of these extensions included New Zealand and the Chatham Islands, and extended to a considerable distance north of New Zealand. This land he called "Antipodea." A second extension took in Tasmania and eastern Australia,—western Australia remaining for a long time separate. A third extension included Madagascar, and went as far as the Mascarenes. A bridge connected this with Africa. A fourth extension connected Antarctica with South America, and included the islands to the south and east of South America.

OBJECTIONS TO THE CONTINENT THEORY.

Since Forbes' time, the tendency seems to be to reduce the size of the continent and to explain the distribution of the forms of life more by land bridges. Hutton, who was formerly an ardent adherent of the theory, in 1884 gave it up completely, and explained the presence of related forms in the southern continents by a supposed land connection through the Pacific. Wallace opposed the theory of an Antarctic continent, and explained the presence of the wingless birds in the southern continents by supposing that they originated in several centers and were gradually developed from flying birds by successive modifications, and that hence there was no reason for supposing a land connection. Other authors explained the presence of the various forms by supposing that they migrated from the north instead of from the south. Later, Burckhardt has been studying the ancestry of the wingless birds, and finds that they come from different stocks, and declares that, so far as they are concerned, there is no reason for presupposing Antarctica. The only possible land connection of the southern continents which he allows is that between South America and Australia, and he holds the evidence for this, even, as not of any special weight.

At the present time, about all that is certainly left of Antarctica is this connection of South America and Australia, and Dr. Meisenheimer considers that there is some reason for believing in this because of the similarity of the animals. The results of further explorations of the Antarctic regions may determine the question definitely. Several parties of explorers are now at work on the problem.

PORTRAIT PAINTING.

IN the *Magazine of Art* for November, Prof. Hubert von Herkomer writes the first part of an article on the art of portrait painting, and in it discusses the subject from the popular point of view. He says :

"There is hardly a grown-up man or woman who does not love to hear a difficult subject simplified for a juvenile audience. Now, for the word 'juvenile' substitute the word 'lay,' and imagine yourselves, for once, a lay audience listening to a painter talking in the simplest and most untechnical way about portrait painting. I call this first paper on portrait painting 'popular' on these grounds, and for the further reason that I think it well to make some subjects belonging to our art so clear and simple that a non-artist could retain some definite ideas upon them.

"Now, has it ever occurred to you what a wonderful thing is a good portrait,—how it all but breathes, all but speaks? How the innermost soul of the subject is there, indelibly fixed, to live on through centuries? How, apart from the lifelikeness, it speaks to the painters of all ages as a work of art?

THE PAINTER MUST KNOW THE SITTER.

"Let us investigate some of the mysteries of portrait painting, or rather of the way we painters go to work to produce a portrait—always, remember, from a popular, and not a technical, point of view. The first consideration is, of course, the subject; in other words, your sitter. I need hardly say it is not possible to commence operations on first sight of the sitter; it is necessary to become acquainted with him from many points of view. The painter must 'see through all hindrance' the inner man or woman, must satisfy himself that he knows the broader characteristics of the sitter's personality, before he can go further, and select, first of all, an attitude that will lend itself to artistic treatment, and yet be wholly illustrative of the main peculiarities of your sitter.

THE PROBLEM OF MOODS.

"But with long practice it is surprising how quickly one can get to know all that is necessary before beginning the closer scrutiny which takes place in the actual performance of the painting, as this is accompanied by the most powerful engine for the discovery of the inner man—viz., conversation. Happy is the portrait painter who can talk while he works, and happy the sitter if he may talk or listen.

"The common cant tells you to paint a man 'as he is,' but fails to say at what moment. Now,

a mood, the weather, the light, sympathy or antipathy, health or sickness, cheerfulness or melancholy, will so alter a man 'as he is' that he may be scarcely recognizable as the man that 'was'—something wholly different—a short time back. It is merely common justice to humanity that you should take some pains to catch a sitter at his best. It is only to wait until the most expressive aspect comes over the face, and then to seize it, for it is sure to repeat itself often enough, if your conversational engine is in sensitive working order, to secure it permanently in the picture.

"As I have already said, the first duty is to fix an attitude that shall in itself constitute half the likeness, as well as secure the best side of the face—a matter of the greatest importance.

ARTISTIC TREATMENT VERSUS PORTRAITURE.

"Now, two points frequently clash,—the view of the face that will lend itself satisfactorily to artistic treatment, and the view that will give the most comprehensive illustration of the man's character. One or the other has frequently to be sacrificed. To get merely the picturesque aspect of the sitter is certainly to satisfy the artistic craving of the painter's nature; but to get that at the expense of the likeness or interpretation of the man is not to satisfy those who are to possess the portrait, and who commissioned you to do it. On the other hand, to leave out that very quality which makes the work live through centuries as a work of art is to deprive the artist of his first right. It is the combination of the two qualities that constitutes the successful work and satisfies, not only the painter's hopes of posthumous fame, but the man who pays for the picture.

THE QUESTION OF LIGHT.

"After the attitude is decided upon, in portraiture, there is still another grave question to be settled before the painting can proceed, and that is the arrangement of light. I have always found two lights in the studio more satisfactory; that is, a top and a side light. The top gives full roundness and modeling, and the side, coming straight into the face, dissipates the heavy masses of shadow produced by the top light alone, which would be more disastrous if used alone than the side light. The absence of heavy shadows enables the painter to give the fullest attention to subtle expressions, especially of the eye, and although this very absence of

shadow increases the difficulties for the painter, it is well worth the additional struggle."

THE EYE AND ITS IMPORTANCE.

"I mentioned the eye. The eye holds the key to the character. The eye speaks the language that is understood by all mankind. The eye is charged with the thoughts of the mind behind it; indeed, you discharge your innermost soul through your eye. And painting alone can reproduce the look in an eye that would baffle any other form of interpretation. Yet, strange to say, some painters,—indeed, some of our best,—have carefully evaded the eye. But a portrait without the living look in the eye is but a soulless thing.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN TYPES.

"My experience in portraiture has almost wholly been limited to the English and American nations. I have only painted a few Germans and one Russian lady. But between the English and American nations there are marked differences in demeanor and habits of thought which materially affect the sitter's personality for the painter. The Englishman, for instance, has an ingrained shyness which often uncomfortably disguises the strong and courageous inner man, and puts the diagnosing painter off the scent and on a wrong track. Not so the American; he is cool, collected, and self-possessed, and is *himself*, so to speak, wherever he is. He is proud of this, and, being a student of human nature and a reader of character, puts the painter at once on his mettle, for he makes the painter feel he has to *read a reader*, and is undergoing precisely what he attempts to make his sitter undergo. This is a mutual advantage, and saves time. Being quick-acting, the sympathies or antipathies are quickly settled. But the Englishman is shy in asking your terms; shy when he sees himself on the canvas; shy in offering you the money when the work is done, or, if a presentation portrait, shy when the portrait is presented to him; but, with strange inconsistency, seems to throw aside all shyness in his real anxiety to be exhibited in the Royal Academy.

"Truly, an art that can bring a living individual before our eyes is a *great art*. All the more should it be used to represent mankind in its noblest, its most beautiful, its heroic, or its moral aspect, and this be it in subject-picture or portraiture."

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE HOLIDAY ILLUSTRATED MAGAZINES.

ONE year ago, in this department, we alluded to the tendency among our American illustrated monthlies to shape their December issues with less direct reference than formerly to the Christmas anniversary. We remarked at the same time that the covers and illustrations of the magazines showed no falling off in sumptuousness, as compared with earlier attempts. The same statements hold true as applied to the so-called "Christmas numbers" of 1903. The old-time Christmas features are comparatively few, but a year's progress in the art of color printing has made possible a degree of excellence on the artistic side that puts most of the earlier achievements in this direction to the blush.

THE CENTURY, HARPER'S, AND SCRIBNER'S.

In the illustration of the three older magazines which in this field have most in common, the work of a few well-known artists still holds a preëminent place, but less familiar names are signed to several of the illustrative and decorative features. To illustrate Mrs. Edith Wharton's description of "Italian Villas and Their Gardens," the *Century* reproduces in colors a series of striking pictures by Mr. Maxfield Parrish. The frontispiece of *Scribner's*, too, is a drawing by the same artist, also reproduced in colors, and employed, by an odd coincidence, to illustrate another bit of Mrs. Wharton's writing,—in this case an amusing story of "A Venetian Night's Entertainment."

In *Harper's*, the place of honor is granted to Mr. Howard Pyle, four of whose paintings illustrate Miss Olivia Howard Dunbar's "Peire Vidal—Troubadour," one of the four serving as the frontispiece of the number. Other fine examples of color printing in the December *Harper's*,—meeting the requirements of a wholly different form of illustration,—are Mr. W. T. Smedley's paintings accompanying Mark Twain's capital sketch of "A Dog's Tale."

To revert to the more purely imaginative and allegorical in magazine pictures, Mr. Albert Sterner contributes several notable drawings for Mildred McNeal's "Ride of the Valkyries," in the *Century*, and in the same magazine Violet Oakley's two Christmas pictures are decidedly effective. Two beautiful series of child pictures are Jessie Willcox Smith's "The Child in a Garden," in *Scribner's*, and Elizabeth Shippen Green's paintings in *Harper's* accompanying verses entitled "The Little Past," by Josephine Preston Peabody.

Among the most successful travel pictures of the month are Mr. Edward Penfield's color sketches of "Holland from the Stern of a Boeier," in *Scribner's*. In *Harper's*, several paintings by André Castaigne have been reproduced in tint to illustrate Guy Wetmore Carryl's "Playground of Paris." In plain black and white, Mr. E. C. Peixotto has done some capital drawings to go with Frederick Palmer's description of "Buda and Pest," in *Scribner's*. Additional art features of the latter magazine are Mr. G. Alden Peirson's decorations with Dr. van Dyke's "Ode to Music" and a reproduction of Sargent's new wall painting for the Boston Public Library. Besides the color pictures already mentioned, the *Century* illustrates "The Children of

the People," by Jacob A. Riis, with drawings by Ellen Bernard Thompson, and in tint there are three of Mr. A. B. Frost's characteristic "coon pictures," while Charlotte Harding's clever portrayal of "Temptations to Be Good" is rivaled only by the same illustrator's pictures of "The Ordeal of Maude Joyce," contributed to *Harper's*.

Among the text features of the *Century*, the series of Thackeray letters revealing incidents of his friendship with an American family is continued, with growing interest. There is a serious discussion of "Fanaticism in the United States" by Dr. J. M. Buckley, while Mr. Franklin Clarkin writes on "The Daily Walk of the Walking Delegate." André Saglio describes the Bigoudines, a peculiar people among the Bretons.

In *Harper's*, Mr. J. C. Thomson contributes an interesting paper on "Tennyson's Suppressed Poems." Mr. John R. Spears writes on the "Beginnings of the American Navy," Dr. George H. Darwin describes "The Birth of a Satellite," and Professor Lounsbury replies to the query "Is English Becoming Corrupt?" There are also entertaining papers on "The Lords of the Sahara," by W. J. Harding King, and "The University of St. Petersburg," by President C. F. Thwing.

Scribner's is notable for its poetry; Dr. Henry van Dyke contributes an "Ode to Music," while Edith M. Thomas, Anne O'Hagan, Julia C. R. Dorr, and Robertson Trowbridge are represented by short poems. The Christmas story of the number is contributed by John Fox, Jr. A little girl and a dog named "Satan" are the principal characters. The pictures are drawings by A. I. Keller.

M'CLURE'S, THE COSMOPOLITAN, AND MUNSEY'S.

As for the rest of the popular monthlies, we find in them even less of the distinctively Christmas element than we find in the group just mentioned. In *McClure's*, Miss Tarbell opens the second part of the "History of the Standard Oil Company"—a wonderfully complete record of the "rebate" fights in the eighties. Another important feature of this magazine is Mr. John La Farge's commentary on "One Hundred Masterpieces of Painting," the present month's installment being devoted to portraits of civic life, with reproductions in tint of several great paintings. *McClure's* has the usual complement of short stories, including one Christmas tale.

In his own magazine, the *Cosmopolitan*, Mr. John Brisson Walker ventures a forecast of New York's changes in the ensuing six years, based on a calculation of the progress made in successive decades from 1880 to 1900, and in the first three years of the present century. In this connection Mr. Walker takes occasion to propose the holding of an exposition to commemorate the three-hundredth anniversary of the arrival of Henry Hudson, in 1609. The leading illustrated feature of this month's *Cosmopolitan* is an article by Lady Henry Somerset on "British Social Life." Mrs. Aubrey Le Blond gives an exhilarating account of "Zigzag Tobogganing," and Mr. Philip Eastman describes "Home-made Windmills of the Western States." The "Captains of Industry" sketched in this issue are Capt. Norton Goddard and Francis H. Clergue.

In *Munsey's* for December, the articles of preëminent

"human interest" are "The Street-Car Kings," by E. J. Edwards, and "The Cleveland Boys' Club," by W. Frank McClure. Mr. A. G. Baker contributes an interesting history of the White House china.

EVERYBODY'S AND FRANK LESLIE'S.

The frontispiece of *Everybody's Magazine* is a reproduction of Eugène Burnand's painting of the head of Christ, and in the opening pages of the number, Mr. Christian Brinton gives some account of the career and work of this great painter of sacred subjects, who, strangely enough, remains almost unknown outside the continent of Europe. Five other of Burnand's paintings are here presented for the first time, it is said, to the English-speaking world.

The same magazine has an instructive article entitled "When Slav Meets Jap," by O. K. Davis, the New York *Sun's* war correspondent in China and the Philippines. The subjects of the "Intimate Portraits," this month, are Adelina Patti, Charles J. Bonaparte, Judge Peter S. Grosscup, Alfred Henry Lewis, and Miss Bessie Anthony, the national women's golf champion.

In *Frank Leslie's* appears a series of four full-page drawings in color, entitled "The Wild Beasts' Christmas Dinner," by Charles Livingston Bull. Judge Henry A. Shute describes the Christmas festivities of "A Few Real Boys." There is a Christmas story by Margaret Shipp, and one by Paul L. McKenrick. The most ambitious feature of the number is "The Story of Rose Fortune," which purports to be the "true and personal history of a country girl who earned her living in New York." John F. Brownell writes about "Charles J. Bonaparte: A Useful Citizen," and Campbell B. Casad contributes a capital sketch of "The Property-Man."

OUTING.

The December number of *Outing* is breezy and attractive, if not especially suggestive of Christmas in anything else than its frontispiece, which is a drawing in color by Walter Whitehead, entitled "Getting the Christmas Dinner." Mr. Caspar Whitney writes entertainingly on "My First Musk-Ox;" Mr. Charles Belmont Davis describes "The American Business Man at Play;" Capt. T. Bentley Mott writes on "The Automobile in War;" and the famous Indian festival at Taos is the subject of an interesting sketch by James A. Le Roy. Mr. Vance Thompson contributes a most readable sketch of "The Paris Cabman." A feature of special interest to horsemen is Mr. Charles A. Trevelyan's paper on "Sustained Speed of the American Race-Horse: Lessons of the 1908 Season."

COUNTRY LIFE.

Following its custom, *Country Life in America* issues a "Christmas annual" in the form of a special double number, superbly illustrated and embellished. "Christmas Greens and Flowers" is the title of an elaborate article by Thomas McAdam, who tells how Christmas trees and other greens are collected, and how the best plants for Christmas flowers are cultivated. The pictures with this article consist of photographs and color designs printed on the same generous scale which have made previous "special numbers" of this sumptuous periodical so attractive. Other articles especially pertinent to the season are "Christmas in the Pine Woods," by Stewart Edward White; "A Christmas Dinner for 300,000 Guests," by Commander Booth-Tucker;

"Christmas Games," by Mrs. Burton Kingsland; "Christmas on a Louisiana Sugar Plantation," by Grace King; and an editorial on "The Intimate Art of Christmas Giving." Mr. John A. Gade writes on "Skeeing: A New Sport for America;" Mr. A. Radclyffe Dugmore reproduces, with the aid of his own photographs, "Animal Stories Told by the Snow;" Mr. Charles G. D. Roberts describes "The Home of a Naturalist;" and there are various other features skillfully planned to enlist the interest of the untutored city mind in that part of the external universe that God made.

THE WORLD'S WORK.

IN the December *World's Work*, Miss Adèle Marie Shaw contributes a thorough and discriminating survey of "The Character of New York Public Schools." Her conclusions are thus stated:

"1. New York City has the most difficult educational problem in the country. It stands in a class by itself, and has difficulties that no other city presents.

"2. Under the present school administration, it is doing wonderful work toward solving that problem.

"3. But conditions still exist that put the complete solution of the problem beyond the reach of any normal effort and expense.

"4. The only remedies for such conditions are the restriction of immigration and a vast increase in expenditure—larger than has yet been dreamed of."

GOVERNOR TAFT'S WORK IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Prof. Bernard Moses, of the second Philippine commission, writes on the administration of Governor Taft in the Philippines. His article, which is a glowing tribute to Judge Taft's ability, sagacity, and disinterestedness, is followed by anecdotes of the last three years' civil administration in the islands. Under Governor Taft, schools have been established in every province, a sound currency has been introduced, the harbors have been improved, a cable service has been established, and a million-dollar census taken.

WHO OWNS THE UNITED STATES?

This question, in the opinion of Sereno S. Pratt, should be changed, so as to read, Who controls the United States? "As the power to make rates of freight and rates of interest on loans is the highest power in the business world, and as the power of our railroad rates and, to a large degree, the power over rates of interest are wielded by the same small group of capitalists, it would not be impossible to name, say, twenty or thirty men as practically controlling the trade, and thus the wealth, of the United States."

OTHER ARTICLES.

There are valuable and suggestive discussions of "The New Farmer and a New Earth," by Prof. B. T. Galloway, of the United States Department of Agriculture; "Life in the Corn Belt," by Prof. T. N. Carver; and "Surgical Advance in the United States," by Dr. Frank P. Foster.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

THE December *Atlantic* opens with an article by the Rev. Dr. Theodore T. Munger on "The Church: Some Immediate Questions." Concerning such lay movements as the Young Men's Christian Association, the Christian Endeavor Society, etc., this writer says:

"It is a part of the confusion and blindness in the Church world that these movements have not been more closely examined and measured both pro and con. It might be expected that the churches would welcome such possible recruits in the desperate conflict that lies before them. They have undertaken to do the one safe and most necessary thing to be done in this world; and that is to do good. Almost everything else is questioned, or soon will be. The only refuge of the churches is in planting themselves on this eternal thing which cannot be shaken."

THE JOURNALIST'S TRADE.

Apropos of the founding of the Pulitzer School of Journalism, Mr. Arthur Reed Kimball contributes some reflections on "The Profession of Publicist." In commenting on the rewards of the calling, Mr. Kimball tells the following anecdote of the late John Swinton, for many years managing editor of the *New York Sun* under Charles A. Dana:

"Swinton," said Mr. Dana, one day, "I need a first-class editorial writer. Have you one to recommend?" "How much are you willing to pay, Mr. Dana?" asked Mr. Swinton. "For a first-class man, \$125 a week," was the reply. "But you cannot get a first-class man for that," protested Mr. Swinton. "Why not?" asked Mr. Dana. "That is what I pay you, and don't you consider yourself a first-class man?" "No, Mr. Dana," rejoined Mr. Swinton. "If I were a 'first-class man' I should be paying you \$125 a week."

CIVIL GOVERNMENT FOR THE MOROS.

A writer in the December *Atlantic*, Mr. R. L. Ballard, confirms the favorable account of conditions among the Moros given elsewhere in the present number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*. He thinks that the passage to civil government ought not to be a difficult one. These things, he says, are necessary: "The skill to take hold of and turn to account favoring conditions and characteristics, the patience and consideration to allow for Moro ideas and customs, yet the tact and firmness not to allow them to defeat our ends."

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

"ANGLO-AMERICAN'S" "Indictment of the British Monarchy," which opens in the November number of the *North American*, is chiefly an appeal to the Briton's yearning for "efficiency" in government. "Anglo-American" does not believe that the caste system in England, with all its disabilities, can be uprooted, but he holds that regeneration can be accomplished, if a beginning is made at the top. "The monarchy must lead England into the path of efficiency; but, to do so, it must first become efficient itself."

IS FOOTBALL GOOD SPORT?

President George E. Merrill, of Colgate University, notes various defects in the game of football, considered as a sport. No sport, in his opinion, justifies such risks of bodily injury as are constantly taken by football players. Furthermore, in this game, mere physical weight is everything; skill is a minor factor, and "has little chance against beef." Another objection lies in the fundamental principle of the game,—the stopping of good play by interference and opposition (using the word "interference" not in its technical sense, but to mean any and all attempts to break up and prevent

good play). In this latter feature, there is a sharp contrast between football and baseball. "Baseball resents as foul any attempt to spoil the play of an opponent. What would baseball be if the man running the bases were to be tripped up?" President Merrill bases another objection to the game on the great inequality in the scores. There is rarely any approach to equality of skill and strength between contending teams. Most scores show such inequalities as 21 to 0, 56 to 0, 45 to 6, etc. Admitting that the athletic ambitions of the American college boy are now largely centered in football, President Merrill deems it unfortunate "that these ambitions cannot be centered upon a sport in which the element of chance shall be eliminated as far as possible, skillful and strenuous effort meet no interference, the common conditions of fairness be preserved, results that have been honorably won receive due credit, and the final scores be measurably close."

TREATING THE EYES OF NEW YORK'S SCHOOL CHILDREN.

Frances Weston Carruth describes as "A Unique Municipal Crusade" the campaign waged by the health and school officials of New York City against trachoma, the contagious eye-disease brought to our seaboard cities by immigrants. Last year's inspection of the New York schools revealed the presence of more than 17,000 cases of this loathsome malady. In January, 1908, the city made an appropriation of \$20,000 to cover the expenses of an experimental campaign under the direction of the Board of Health. As a result, the disease has been brought under control, and thousands of cases have been cured without interference with the schooling of the children. All of the children in the public schools now pass under the eye of medical inspectors specially instructed in the diagnosis of trachoma. As this is a filthy disease, much has been done in the tenement homes to induce a stricter obedience of sanitary laws, and especially the more frequent application of soap and water.

OTHER ARTICLES.

This number abounds in timely political and economic articles. Premier Roblin, of Manitoba, defines western Canada's views of the Chamberlain tariff scheme. Mr. Charles A. Conant, one of the American commissioners on international exchange, describes the process of "Putting China on the Gold Standard." The Hon. S. J. Barrows presents a study of the membership of the last Congress, classified with reference to nationality, age, occupation, education, character, and personal ability. Mr. Henry Michelsen writes on "The Purpose and Method of Forest Reservation."

There is an account of the recent wireless telegraphy conference, by Mr. John I. Waterbury; "A Postscript on Ruskin," by Vernon Lee; "A Mohammedan View of the Macedonian Problem," by Muhammad Barakatullah; and a paper on "The United States and the Late Lord Salisbury," by Mayo W. Hazeltine. The article on St. Gaudens, the sculptor, has been noticed at length in another department.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

IN the *Contemporary Review* for November, Mrs. Fawcett contrasts two visits to South Africa, one paid in 1901 and the other this year. She gives a very favorable account of what has been done toward resettling the country.

"Gentle peace had not yet made the valleys smile with waving corn; but the difference between 1901 and 1908 was comparable to the difference between death and life; or, if that be too extreme an expression, it was like the difference between the agony and weakness of mortal sickness and steady progress toward convalescence."

Mrs. Fawcett considers the new school system a success, and furthermore, considers the school system in the concentration camps as also a success. The article is, on the whole, written in a rather unsympathetic tone. Writing on the labor question, she mentions the fact that the domestic-servant problem is as acute as the mining-labor problem. She mentions cases of women cooks getting as much as £11 (\$55) a month. Capable women servants can easily get from £7 (\$35) to £12 (\$60) a month and board.

THE BALKAN INFERNO.

Dr. E. J. Dillon devotes the whole of his chronicle of "Foreign Affairs" in the November *Contemporary* to Macedonia. He has been a long time in Bulgaria, on the Macedonian frontier, and what he has seen has only accentuated his wrath at the shameful inactivity of the European powers, who, as he says, dispatch naval squadrons to compel payment of a few thousand pounds, but refuse to put a stop to a diabolical saturnalia of blood and fire against which all Christendom should rise as one man. The only active factors in the problem at present are Turkey, Bulgaria, Russia, and Austria; and unless some new factor is introduced, the Christians of Macedonia will disappear from the face of the earth. The reforms elaborated by Count Lamsdorff and Count Goluchowski are merely a mockery.

THE FUTURE OF THE FOUR BRITISH PARTIES.

Mr. J. A. Spender contributes a paper on "The Party Situation" in which he gives a detailed summary of the development of parties and men up to the present stage. He now distinguishes four distinct parties, the Chamberlainite Protectionists, the Balfour Protectionists, the Liberals, and the Unionist Free Traders, or Free Fooders. He predicts that the first two will ultimately coalesce.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE November *Nineteenth Century* is a readable but not an exciting number. Mr. Archibald Hurd writes about "The Success of the Submarine," and Mr. W. J. Fletcher on "Naval Tactics of the Past." Mr. Fletcher declares that the whole system of tactics for modern fleets has to be worked out yet, as the few wars in which ironclad vessels have taken part have not yet evolved any recognized system.

SUNSPOTS.

It is generally believed that sunspots are associated with heavy rain; but Father Cortie, who devotes a paper to the subject, says that the connection is still a matter of doubt. It is not yet even certain whether the dark spots are cavities or prominences, though the balance of evidence seems in favor of the former. The spectroscope proves that the spots are composed of the vapors of metals, among which vanadium and titanium are specially predominant; and the spectroscope also proves that these masses of vapor are under pressure. A sunspot is in reality intensely bright; its apparent

darkness merely results from contrast against the still more brilliant photosphere.

DICKENS.

Mr. Walter Frewen Lord writes a good article on Dickens, whom he sums up as follows:

"We may say of his work, as a whole, what Turgue-neff said of 'La Nabab,' that it may be described as being in some parts very great, while much of it is hack-work. If there is something in Dickens that we would prefer to forget, there is at least as much that we cannot forget if we would. He is often a caricaturist, but at least as often he is far above all caricaturists. His place is not with the greatest artists. He does not live with the Veroneses and the Titians, but he is far apart from the Caraccisti. He is hardly Rembrandt, but we cannot leave him with the Jan Steens and the Ostades. He is not academic; he remained to the last untrained, undrilled, recognizing no models, consciously or unconsciously,—one would even say that he despised them. As a result, he often created, and he often drove. He cheers us beyond any other writer that ever lived; and he bores us worse than the daily newspaper. He stands alone,—Charles Dickens."

THE ENGLISHMAN'S CRITERION.

Mr. C. B. Wheeler writes amusingly on "Criteria."

"The untraveled Englishman is, as a rule, distinguished by one very simple criterion; so well schooled has he been in Union Jack lore, so familiar with the history of all our national heroes from King Alfred to Lord Kitchener, that for all people and practices he has one unvarying test—are they or have they not been English?—for if not, he will have nothing to say to them. The legend 'Made in Germany' is enough to condemn anything in his eyes, from a kitchen utensil to the higher criticism. Think of the depth of contempt underlying the word 'un-English'—is there in the mouth of a Saxon any term whereby he can express more fitly the utmost repudiation and contempt? As commonly used, it is a synonym for all that is bad, with the added advantage of not obliging the user to particularize the special form of badness he has in mind. Less favored nations cannot boast of a term which will in the same breath vilify an action and extol their own nationality; but, of course, such a term would be meaningless in any other country."

WANTED—WOMEN DOCTORS.

Mary L. Breakell has an article on "Women in the Medical Profession," in which she says that many women suffer in health because they dislike going to men doctors and distrust doctors of their own sex. She makes the following excellent suggestion:

"Probably every town (and village) of consequence in this kingdom is now provided with its staff of district nurses, and an excellent work they do. Would it not be possible for boards of health and local authorities to go a step further than they already have done and appoint in every township of importance a qualified medical woman officer of health, who, without encroaching on the duties of others, would be at hand to minister to the needs of her own sex when required? Doubtless one result of such public appointments would be that women in general would soon begin to place more confidence in doctors of their own sex, and would make use of them. Then probably the nervous diseases of women, so prevalent to-day, treated by medical women

who may understand how to deal with them almost better than doctors of the opposite sex, would decrease; and men, as well as women, would ultimately reap the benefit of the innovation, in happier homes, made possible by the improved health of their womankind."

Miss Breakell mentions that out of 249 women doctors in Great Britain, 49 hold the degree of M.D., and some of them that of M.S., a higher proportion of the total number than is held by medical men.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Lord Burghclere gives us another installment of his translations from Virgil. Mrs. Ady writes on "The Ladies of the Italian Renaissance," and there is a vivid description of the outbreak of the Mutiny at Meerut from the pen of the lady who sent the famous telegram giving the first news of the revolt.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

THE *Fortnightly Review* for November contains several good literary articles, of which the best is Mr. Chesterton's on "The Political Poetry of William Watson." He says:

"In Mr. Watson's political poems may be found what can be found nowhere else in modern England—the old and authentic voice of the England of Milton and Wordsworth. Nothing is more striking than this parallelism between Mr. Watson's diction and his moral policy."

Mr. Watson is essentially democratic, but he will never be popular.

"One cause of his necessary isolation is that he is fundamentally democratic. I know that the word will be misunderstood. With music-hall refrains ringing in our ears, with torrents of books about the brutality and ignorance of the East End flooding the market, with every halfpenny paper peppered with slang and every public speech filled with appeals to the common sense of workmen, it seems ridiculous to point to the most lonely, the most polished, the most academic and elaborate of modern men of genius and call him democratic. But he is democratic. He does not appeal to the lower classes, which is appealing to an oligarchy."

Mr. Chesterton's paper contains some very acute criticism on Mr. Kipling.

THE MENDING OF THE EDUCATION ACT.

Dr. Macnamara writes on "The Education Act in the New Parliament," on the somewhat doubtful assumption that the new Parliament, when it comes, will have a strong enough Liberal majority to amend the act. He declares that the education committee for each area should be a committee of the municipal council, composed of the elected members of the council, with one or two seats offered to consultative experts. The selection of managers should be left unreservedly in the hands of the education authority. As to religious instruction, every school should be opened daily with prayers, the singing of hymns, and the reading of the Scriptures.

"Following this opening service, Scripture lessons should be given in each class, consisting of the committal to memory of certain selected portions of Holy Writ, such as the Ten Commandments, portions of the Psalms, and the Proverbs, the Beatitudes, and so on. Attendance at this service and lesson would be subject to the 'conscience clause.'"

The free use of the former board schools should be granted for the purpose of denominational religious teaching. A rental should be paid to the trustees of school buildings erected by denominational agencies. The education authority should fix its own tests for teachers. These changes, he says, would satisfy the Liberal claim for full control and the Conservative claim for specific denominational teaching.

THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN DEADLOCK.

Mr. Maurice Gerothwohl contributes an elaborate paper under this heading, much of which deals with the past relations of the competent parts of the dual monarchy. He does not see any prospect of the disruption of the empire; and declares that if Austria had a really national statesman the Hungarians would come to their senses. Mr. Gerothwohl, of course, takes a primarily German view. The Emperor has made the non-interference of the Hungarians with the army the condition of many concessions. The concession of the present Hungarian demands would lead to similar demands from the other nationalities, and this would involve the rupture of the technic and moral unity of the army. Mr. Gerothwohl altogether regards the Hungarians as the spoiled children of Austrian politics.

ALFIERI.

There is a very interesting article by Count Rusconi on "The Alfieri Centenary." Count Rusconi says:

"Alfieri raised a new building in Italian literature. Other writers had hidden the temple of tragedy with flowers and wreaths, but he transformed its very foundations. An essential of his scheme was the powerful excitation of good and evil passions, without which tragedy would have no meaning. It is the secret of his influence upon posterity. Villemain defined Alfieri as 'un démocrate féodal, poète de la méditation solitaire.' He has been compared with Byron, and has certain points of likeness to the English poet in his love of women and horses, his adventures and travels, his passion for liberty. Even in his magnificent head there is a distinct resemblance to 'Handsome George,' as Byron is called in Venice to this day. Both were extraordinarily complex characters, whose strength of will went hand-in-hand with wild excesses and nobility of soul,—strange examples of human regeneration and of the power of fate."

THACKERAY AS A CRITIC.

Mr. Lewis Melville writes on "Thackeray as a Reader and Critic of Books." One of Thackeray's favorite writers was Montaigne; he apparently preferred Schiller to Goethe, and declared that Dumas was "better than Walter Scott." Of Swift's writings he preferred the "Journal to Stella;" and he declared the "Song of the Shirt" to be the finest lyric ever written—a fact which certainly justifies Mr. Melville's judgment that "as a rule he preferred second-rate books of the first class to the greatest." Thackeray's review of Robert Montgomery's poetry beats Macaulay's for brevity and wit.

"These are nice verses. On examination, we find that the compositor, by some queer blunder, has printed them backwards; but as it does not seem to spoil the sense, we shall not give him the trouble to set them up again. They are as good one way as the other."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Alfred Stead writes on "The Question of Korea," making many quotations from the diplomatic docu-

ments. Miss Elizabeth Robins contributes a vivid picture of local sentiment on the subject of the Alaskan boundary controversy. There is an article by Mr. Andrew Lang on the origin of marriage, a contribution by Fiona Macleod, and a delightful poem by Mr. Laurence Hope. We also have the second installment of Mr. Frederic Harrison's romance.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

THE *National Review* for November begins by reprinting Mr. Chamberlain's Glasgow speech, revised by himself.

General von der Goltz contributes an elaborate paper on "The Military Lessons of the South African War." He condemns both the Boers and the British for dividing their forces, thinks the Boers should have made a properly organized attack upon Ladysmith, and not have abstained from pursuit after the British repulses. But the great tactical lesson is this:

"That mere mechanical massing of troops has no effect in the battle of to-day. This is perhaps the most important result, the most striking revelation which it has brought us, and the one which will probably exercise the greatest influence on the development of the art of war in Europe."

MODERN FRENCH CARICATURISTS.

Mr. W. Roberts has a very interesting paper on this subject. He says:

"With us, the caricature is regarded as an occasional diversion; with the French, it has become as essential as the daily newspaper. For every one in England who earns a reasonably good income as a caricaturist, there are probably at least a score in Paris who find the gift a profitable one. Many of them, as a matter of fact, keep luxurious establishments and maintain motor cars. Some of the earlier men found it difficult to make both ends meet. The French have a very keen sense of the ridiculous. To them, nothing is sacred,—life, death, eternity, the great problems of which mankind has been seeking the solution for thousands of years, and failing in the attempt, afford food for the most ribald jest. The Pope is as frequently a target as the cabman, and Monsieur Loubet as the King of England."

The lower-class English comic paper could not exist more than a fortnight in France. The French have the advantage of being able to touch upon all subjects.

"Not content with the ephemeral appearance in the daily or weekly press, the moment a caricaturist makes a 'hit' his best works are collected into a single volume—usually with about one hundred designs—colored or plain, as the case may be, and published at from three francs fifty centimes to five francs. The popularity of some of these volumes is remarkable."

CARLYLE.

Sir Leslie Stephen continues his "Early Impressions," this month dealing with journalism. He gives the following picture of Thomas Carlyle:

"Carlyle was still to be seen tramping sturdily enough the Chelsea and Kensington region, with an admirer or two—Froude or the charming Irish poet, Allingham—forming a little body-guard to the 'grand old Diogenes,' as Huxley called him. Certainly he looked the character. His love of portraits fortunately included a love of his own; and, though they were apt to remind him

rather of a 'flayed horse-head' than of the original features, they seemed to others to give a vivid enough impression. The grand brow overhanging the keen eyes and the worn features told sufficiently that his long pilgrimage had led through regions of gloom and sorrow, and showed scars of the many hard struggles through which he had won his way to fame."

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

IN the *Westminster Review* for November, Mrs. McIlquham contributes a very interesting survey of the English women's suffrage movement in the last century, dealing with Mary Wollstonecraft, Count Ségur, Mill, and other advocates of the feminist cause. She mentions the following fact as showing the much greater interest that was taken in the movement half a century ago than to-day:

"In 1841, the *Edinburgh Review* criticised no less than six important works dealing with the social, educational, and political status of women!"

THE CRY OF THE CHILDREN.

"Dewi" contributes a short paper entitled "Save the Children." He demands that the age limit for child workers should be raised, and that child neglect should be made a greater crime than shooting a rabbit. The system of infant insurance which leads to baby farming must be abolished. He attributes many of the cases of death among children which are generally ascribed merely to ignorant and improper feeding to a deliberate intention on the part of parents to rid themselves of disagreeable burdens.

SUN MYTHS AND SUN-WORSHIP.

Karl Blind writes interestingly on the bronze sun-chariot which was recently discovered in the Danish island of Seeland. It is supposed to have been made in the older Bronze Age, about three thousand years ago. The discovery throws important light on the sun-worship which was common to all the Teutonic and Scandinavian tribes. Dr. Blind says that it can be shown that the tale of the Heliades must have come to the Greeks from the Baltic, the Greeks merely expanding and beautifying the tale.

THE EMPIRE REVIEW.

IN the *Empire Review* for November, "South African" argues strongly in favor of the Rhodes scholars going direct from the schools to Oxford. Canada and the United States prefer a post-graduate course, on the principle that the sending of scholars straight from school at so impressionable an age would make them "plus anglais que les anglais," which says little for American and Canadian national spirit. The post-graduate idea means that the terms of the will as regards Cape Colony must be altered, and the direct bequests to the originally named four schools annulled; besides which it is pointed out that the system of marks becomes virtually impossible.

There is an interesting article on "Cancer in Ireland," by Dr. Hill-Climo.

Another paper of especial interest to those acquainted with Indian women and their awakening is on "The Rani of Kharighur," an enlightened and highly educated Indian lady.

BLACKWOOD'S MAGAZINE.

A MILITARY writer in the November *Blackwood's* describes the autumn maneuvers in the west of England with as much vigor as if it had been an actual campaign. The literary articles include a paper on Thackeray and his critics, and a review of Mr. Henry James' biography of W. W. Story, the American sculptor. Mr. H. Clifford begins one of his charming stories of Malayan life entitled "Sally: A Study."

A writer signing himself "Active List" discusses what would happen to the empire in a naval war, and passionately adjures Canada and Australia to take part in the maritime defense of the empire. "Active List" assumes that Canada and Australia would necessarily be involved in any war to which England was a party, but he does not appear to know that the present Canadian prime minister has always publicly declared that Canada asserted an absolute right to choose, when England goes to war, whether she will take sides with her or whether she will stand aloof and declare her neutrality.

THE CORNHILL.

THE November *Cornhill* is full of light and readable papers, entertaining, but not lending themselves to purposes of extract. The cult of the gypsy takes on a lawless phase in Lawrence Housman's poem, "Good Living," wherein he exclaims, in admiration of the gypsies, "Ah, give to me the sturdy soul which ten commandments can't control;" from which it appears that one need not travel with Kipling east of Suez to find a place where "there ain't no Ten Commandments." Mr. H. A. Vachell describes a *rodeo*, or round-up, or festive sports in Southern California. Mrs. Woods takes us back again to the old Basque world as it seems to modern eyes.

The Rev. J. M. Bacon describes a balloon voyage from Sydenham into Essex, under the title of "Midnight in Cloudland." It was an experiment in the transmission of sounds through different strata of the atmosphere. The bombs fired from the balloon were rarely heard by listeners near at hand, but the most complete series of reports were recorded by distant observers. The most complete record came from twenty miles away. A thoroughbred racing mare, by her startings, which synchronized with the explosions, showed that she continued to hear the reports after they had ceased to be audible to her owner's ears.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW.

THE *Monthly Review* for November is an exceedingly good number. There are articles by M. Yves Guyot and by Mr. Winston Churchill on the fiscal problem, together with papers on the Balkans, on radio-activity, and on Gladstone as foreign minister.

* THE TWO-POWER STANDARD.

Captain Garbett, R. N., writes on "The Russian Programme and the Two-Power Standard":

"Whatever the value of the two-power standard, however, may have been ten or twelve years ago, when we only had for practical purposes France and Russia to consider, that standard is now out of date and can no longer be considered as a satisfactory margin of safety, in view of the new situation created by the steadily growing strength of the German navy. Wheth-

er the two-power standard should be raised to a three-power standard is a moot point, but it is certainly becoming a matter for serious consideration whether the time is not near for some material increase in our building programmes, which, as far as battleships are concerned, have certainly since 1899 been cut down to a point hardly compatible with a due margin of safety, if we are to be in a position to hold our own against possible coalitions against us."

THE EDINBURGH REVIEW.

THE *Edinburgh Review* for October opens with an article on "The Pontificate of Leo XIII.," of whom the writer says:

"He was a diplomatist rather than a statesman; hence the instability of his constructions and combinations. As a teacher, he fell below the level of teachers whose pretensions were less exalted. He kept silence from good words when good words were called for; he spoke, not as the Spirit gave him utterance, but with human economy, at the dictates of policy, in ignorance; poetry, art, literature, science,—not one but struck a loftier note than he. History will judge him more by the possibilities that he opened out than by the results that he achieved. The former were greater than the latter."

A TEST FOR SPIRITS.

The article on "Modern Spiritualism" deals skeptically with the subject in general, and with Mr. Myers' arguments in particular. The writer regards the following as a satisfactory test—a test so satisfactory that no alleged medium will pass it:

"The only convincing proof that a given communication is the work of a spirit (whether a disembodied human being, or a sixth-runder, or an elemental, or a sylph) must be found in clear evidence that no human intelligence would have been equal to produce it. The man of science at once suggests satisfactory tests. If any medium would answer twenty questions about the near future—stating such facts as the maximum temperature at Greenwich on three days a month ahead, the price of Consols next settling day but four, the winner of the Derby and the Oaks and the St. Leger, the sex of the next child born in a royal family, and the number of claims made on a given insurance company in December next—there would be general conviction that some superhuman intelligence was at work. All these facts are beyond the present knowledge of any human being, and it is inconceivable that chance could produce correct answers to all of them."

RENASCENT BOHEMIA.

There is a useful paper on "Bohemia and the Austro-Hungarian Empire." The present conflict, says the reviewer, can be solved only by a compromise with bilingual education at the root; it cannot be solved by one race imposing its culture on the other. Certainly, judged by the following facts, the Germans have little chance of Teutonizing the Slavs:

"The parliamentary progress of the Czechs is accompanied by a corresponding numerical, economic, and intellectual development. The census of 1900 gives the number of Czechs as exactly 5,955,397 (whereof rather more than 1,600,000 are Moravians), testifying to an increase of nearly 800,000 within a period of twenty years. This vitality explains the rapid Slavonization of the

urban centers in Bohemia, Moravia, and even Silesia, and the progressive erosion of purely Germanic districts. We must also take into account the scientific fixation of the Czech idiom, as yet unsettled in 1890, whence have blossomed forth, by the side of the national schools of music and fine arts (the former illustrated by such popular names as Smetana and Dvůřák), literary and scientific monuments which have found translators among the very exponents of 'Deutsche Wissenschaft' and 'Kultur.' Lastly, the Czechs, thanks to their invasion of the industrial field, until recently monopolized by the German-speaking element, are hailed by the artisan proletariat as their future liberators from the selfishness of both the Teuton and Jewish *bourgeoisie*. But, politically speaking, the most significant factor is the growing solidarity of the other Slav peoples, who, abandoning their petty jealousies and local interests, are gradually uniting their forces to the Czech group, with a view to the ultimate conquest or restitution to the Slavs of an influence proportionate to their majority."

THE QUARTERLY REVIEW.

THE new *Quarterly Review* is a very admirable number. From a literary point of view, the *Quarterly* has almost the same preëminence among English periodicals that the *Revue des Deux Mondes* has possessed so long in France. All the twelve articles in the current number possess a note of distinction. We have space to mention only three.

THE GENIUS OF SOPHOCLES.

The first article is an essay, learned and eloquent, on Sophocles and the Greek genius, by the president of Magdalen College. Dr. Warren maintains that the ruling secret of the real success of Greek tragedy is to be found in Sophocles. He was one of the most consummate artists of all time, a joy and a standard of joy forever.

"If, then, the world were ever to give up Greek as a part of the general culture of its most cultivated minds, the greatest treasure it would lose is Sophocles, and for this reason,—he is the least translatable, the least imitable, the most Greek of the Greeks. But the sage sanity, the sculpturesque serenity, of Sophocles, the just blending of philosophy and passion, thought and expression, wedded like soul and body in a form of breathing, sentient, mobile beauty,—this only Sophocles can

give, and only Sophocles in his own incomparable tongue."

THE NOVELS OF MR. HENRY JAMES.

Another admirable literary article is Prof. Oliver Elton's estimate of the novels of Mr. Henry James, which leads up to an elaborate review of his last story, "The Wings of the Dove." Professor Elton says that in nearly every story of Mr. James there is a conflict which is often waged between American and European, the latter usually preying on the wealth and simplicity of the former. It is the conflict of complication and corruption with what is simple, single-hearted, and fresh. He resembles Turgueneff and George Eliot by virtue of the emphasis he lays on women, and of his keen feminine insight into men. The stories are liable to raise an obscure discomfort in the English reader resembling that caused by want of air. "In the Wings of the Dove," his heroine, the Dove, is the soul of New England, his own country. In that book the conflict between the world and the spirit has ended in a drawn battle; but the spirit has conquered in its own sphere, the world has been disconcerted and baffled. Professor Elton concludes his essay by saying that Mr. James is "trebly representative of the temper of his time,—one of the finer voices that may be heard telling the future for what sort of things our time cared."

POPE LEO XIII. AND HIS SUCCESSOR.

The anonymous writer of this article detects a certain note of exaggeration in the panegyrics upon the late Pope. He thinks that Leo XIII. was much too political, and that a large number of Catholics regard with not a little uneasiness the materialization of Roman Catholicism which took place under his guidance. His Pontificate witnessed the organization of a militant party and a militant press in every state, which was not favorable to the peace and welfare of any country. He pays a high tribute of praise to Cardinal Rampolla, who, he says, should not be regarded as responsible for the Pope's policy. He says: "We have the very best authority for suggesting that neither Rampolla nor any other individual was ever permitted to oppose his pleasure with impunity."

The election of Pius X. he regards as an indication of the reaction against the political policy of his predecessor, which weakened the spiritual influence of the Church, and will be found to be a source of future danger and embarrassment in the fight waged by Roman Catholicism for supremacy over the mind and conscience of mankind.

POPULAR TOPICS IN THE FOREIGN SCIENTIFIC JOURNALS.

DISEASE IN THE FRENCH ARMY.

A VERY interesting article in the *Revue Générale des Sciences* for September 30 is that by Dr. V. Lowenthal, entitled "L'État Sanitaire Comparé de l'Armée Française et des Grandes Armées Européennes." Dr. Lowenthal is a "membre de la Commission extra-parlementaire de la dépopulation." He has compiled a set of statistical tables and graphic curves comparing the actual figures of disease and mortality in the armies of France, England, Germany, Russia, Austria, and Italy. In certain ways he says these figures must be underestimates. For example, statistics of disease are derived from hospital reports, and such statistics to a

large extent exclude the officers, who, for the most part, in case of sickness, are cared for by their families. This reduces notably some of the figures. For instance, it would appear in the table for the comparison of sickness in officers and soldiers, that none of the officers suffer from venereal diseases, and this the author evidently thinks is very improbable.

The article is a condensed one, and it is impossible, in an abstract, to do it justice. The writer's general conclusion is that France is far inferior to the other nations in the sanitary condition of her army. In the case of typhoid fever the mortality in the French army exceeds that in the German army by 750 per cent. Of the twelve

diseases tabulated, France has the highest mortality in six, in three she ranks second, in two third, and in one she has the fifth place. In total mortality from all causes, France stands at the head, Russia is second, Austria third, England fourth, Italy fifth, and Germany sixth. In mortality from sickness, France holds the first place, Russia the second, Italy the third, Austria the fourth, England the fifth, and Germany the sixth.

The condition of the French army in regard to tuberculosis is even worse than in regard to the other diseases. Not only does it rank first in the number of cases, but the disease is on the increase. The author furnishes curves to show the progress of tuberculosis in the last ten years of the nineteenth century in the various armies, and, while in the other nations the disease is decreasing, notably so in the army of Austria, in the French army there has been a startling increase.

IS THE FRENCH ARMY DETERIORATING?

In connection with Dr. Lowenthal's article on disease and death in the French army should be mentioned another article by the same author in the *Revue Scientifique* of October 3, on "the recruiting and selection of the French army in the course of the nineteenth century." This is an analysis of the results of the methods of recruiting the army under the three laws of 1832, 1872, and 1889. The gist of the article seems to be that the results of the methods of recruiting have been the incorporation into the standing army of a much larger proportion of *conscripts* than is true of Germany, Austria, or Russia, with a consequent deterioration in quality, and, of course, a higher mortality rate.

THE CLIMATE OF EGYPT.

In the same number of the *Revue Scientifique* (*Revue Rose*), under the head of hygiene, is quite an extended article on the climate of Egypt, entitled "Winter in Egypt." The author discusses the climatic conditions under the heads of humidity, temperature, and atmospheric dust and diseases. It is a pleasant and readable *résumé* of the subject, containing little that is really new, but stating clearly a number of things that are not ordinarily mentioned in accounts of Egyptian climate. The author contends that, contrary to the opinion commonly expressed by travelers, the air of lower Egypt is very humid. The conditions of the soil and atmosphere are ideal for producing disease, for the soil is foul with the deposit of the Nile and with human refuse, and the air is overlaid with moisture. That these conditions do not produce disease is due to the intense light, which destroys the disease-producing bacteria. Yet, in spite of the bactericidal action of the light, the dust rising from the filthy soil causes diseases of the respiratory organs, and tuberculosis is abundant. Typhoid fever is prevalent, and the children of the Egyptians suffer from a purulent infection of the eyes which is fostered by their filthy habits, and probably communicated from one to another by flies, which are so thick as almost to make masks for the youngsters.

In summing up, he states that most Europeans suffer from the humidity in lower Egypt, but enjoy perfect health in upper Egypt and Nubia.

INOFFENSIVE TOBACCO.

In the science section of the *Revue Universelle* of October 15 is an article interesting to smokers, entitled "Le Tabac Inoffensif." After giving in some detail the facts of tobacco poisoning with which most men are somewhat familiar, the author of the article, Dr. L. Caze, states that Dr. Léon Hurdt Furst, of the University of Leipsic, has examined in a scientific way these facts, and has reached conclusive results,—results that indicate that one can smoke with impunity if he will observe certain precautions. The nicotine, which is the harmful element, is contained in greater quantity in some parts of the leaves than in others, and becomes less as the leaves grow older. Exposure to the air, too, reduces the amount of nicotine, and the more completely the tobacco is dried the more is this substance lessened. Light Havana cigars contain less than those of Porto Rico, and those of Porto Rico less than those of Germany. When one smokes, the nicotine lodges just back of the burning part. Cigarettes are worse for the eyes and lungs than cigars because of the smoke from the burning paper.

His conclusion is that smokers should observe the following precautions: (1) use only mild tobacco; (2) smoke only good tobacco; (3) do not smoke the last half of a cigar or the end of a cigarette; (4) if a cigar or a cigarette goes out, do not relight it; (5) do not sit in a room filled with the fumes of tobacco; (6) do not chew the end of a cigar; (7) use a cigar-holder or a cigarette-holder with a bit of cotton to catch the nicotine; (8) at home, smoke only pipes with long stems, and preferably a nargileh.

THE MENDELIAN LAW.

The great interest with which the Mendelian law is regarded by biologists is evidenced by the fact that in the current number of *Biometrika* no less than three articles are devoted to it. In accordance with this law, the characteristics of parents are distributed in hybrid offspring according to a numerical law, and the hybrids are not intermediate in their characteristics between their parent forms, but have certain unchanged characteristics of one parent or the other. The law was originally worked out in regard to certain plants.

Darbishire, in one of the papers in *Biometrika*, gives further results in the breeding of hybrid mice, and brings out facts which do not seem to be consistent with the theory. Weldon takes up the statements of Bateson, who is, perhaps, the most prominent of the supporters of the Mendelian hypothesis, and criticises severely his interpretation of the principle. Wood, in reporting experiments in the breeding of hybrid rabbits, claims that his results cannot be explained either by Mendel's law or by the law of Galton.



NOVELS OF THE MONTH.

TWO or three years ago, the "hysterical historical" novel was in vogue, and the literary men of business, in company with a few novelists of conviction, were manufacturing tales of Henry IV. and Washington and Louis XIV. and the Stuarts in hundreds of volumes. Frank Norris, at the time, in one of his few but admirable essays, said: "These copyists will in the end so prejudice the people against an admirable school of fiction,—the school of Scott,—that the tale of historic times will be discredited." This prophecy has almost come true already. Historical stories are few in the fall lists of books. Dealers take fright at the mention of a Revolutionary story. Publishers shake their heads doubtfully at a French historical novel, unless it has a well-known name behind it. The people are tired of "Odzooks!" and "S'blood!" and "What ho, without there!"

The result is a large number of novels of modern times, studies of life as the writer has seen it, and therefore with fundamental truth. And the more courageous, more earnest writers, with much creative imagination and with little, are taking the great problems, political, commercial, and social, into the material they are molding. This change in the book mart should mean more opportunity for the man of sincerity and less for the man of mere facility. It should be the first step toward fulfillment of the optimistic prophecy that "modern achievement in politics and commerce will inspire a literary period equal to the Elizabethan."

POLITICAL AND COMMERCIAL STORIES.

Richard Whiteing's "The Yellow Van" (Century), as notable a book as "No. 5 John Street," is a searching study of English social and economic life, showing the struggles of a traditional aristocracy with modern democratic tendencies. The American woman who, by marrying an English duke, is thrown into the midst of this struggle, and her brother who visits her, show the help American ideas may be to the solution of the present English land problem. The story, aside from its significance, is a very human and interesting one, tragedy and comedy playing side by side throughout. Three important stories of American business are Will Payne's "Mr. Salt" (Houghton, Mifflin), David Graham Phillips' "The Master-Rogue" (McClure), and Samuel Merwin's "The Whip Hand" (Doubleday). Mr. Payne's story is a vigorous record of Chicago business life, lightened by a charming love story. It is en-



WILL PAYNE.



DAVID GRAHAM PHILLIPS.

tertaining throughout. "The Master-Rogue" is written as an autobiography. The man who sets out to make a million, whose greed for money increases and leads him through an unscrupulously successful career, nearly effacing the human quality from his life, and driving his family either to revolt or cringing deceit, says at the end: "How small and repulsive it all is!" "Small and repulsive" applies to the man as well, and many of the incidents in the story we have read at various intervals in the newspapers. But the laying bare of the heart of a man striving willy-nilly for wealth is rigidly, vividly, strongly done. It is Mr. Phillips' best work. "The Whip Hand" is a dramatic story of the Michigan pine lands. Here, too, men are fighting for power and money, but the health of the open is in the struggle. "John Burt" (Biddle), by Frederick Upham Adams, is a dramatic story of Wall Street, full of action and incident. The love story is dwarfed by comparison with the affection of two men for each other, often the most moving thing in fiction, as in real life.

Two political stories appeared in the midst of the municipal campaign in New York. One, "The Boss" (Barnes), by Alfred Henry Lewis, was written from the inside. No writer, probably, knows Tammany Hall as

well as Mr. Lewis does. He was the biographer of Richard Croker, and his close personal friend. The book discloses more about "the system" than the combined campaigns, investigations, and organized attacks of many years have been able to show. It is a searchlight turned on Tammany, and a brilliant literary achievement. The character study of the Boss, "a creature of utter cunning, utter courage, utter strength," is masterly. The other book, "The Chasm" (Appleton), is fairly interesting, and is infinitely better as a story than as a true picture of political life. It was evidently written from the outside. "The Web" (Doubleday) is a strong, sane, and dramatic story of the city law courts, with a hero who is a real creation. Strong jaws and weak ones are in the story, honesty and knavery, and the grimness and humor of the lawyer's daily life. It is a book whose author's name, Frederick Trevor Hill, one is likely to remember, because the story bears the grasp of a strong personality.

STORIES OF MODERN AMERICA.

"Sanctuary" (Scribner), by Edith Wharton, is a remarkable study of a woman who, knowing a twist in her husband's character, fights against a repetition of the fault in her son. At the critical moment, her mother's care is rewarded by the son's right decision. Although slightly above the realities of life, it is a strong and fascinating character study, written with reposeful art. E. F. Benson's "The Relentless City" (Harper), a caustic and characteristically clever story of New York and English society, has in it some easily recognized people out of real life. Mr. Benson is "relentless," though true, in his picture of society foibles and pettinesses, and his story is very humanly interesting. W. A. Fraser's dramatic tale of the North, "Blood Lilies" (Scribner), grips the reader from the start with its picturesque scene, its real people, and the vital health of the rugged Northland. Mr. Fraser's Indians, the man, the woman, and the boy, are individual and ring true, and with their white friends and enemies make a romance of rare power.

Scarcely any part of the country has escaped the hand of the novelist. In these recent books are Eastern, Western, and Southern people and country. Mabel Osgood Wright's "Aunt Jimmy's Will" (Macmillan), Mrs. Mason's "Holt of Heathfield" (Macmillan), "The Bondage of Ballinger" (Revell), "Honor Dalton" (Revell), and "The Story of Gravelys" (Page) are laid in the East. "Aunt Jimmy's Will" is simple and charming and real. The country folk might step from any rural town into the book and back again without a change either way. Mrs. Lane we have met a hundred times, and Bird, and Lammy, and Mr. Slocum, and all the rest. Mrs. Mason, also, has written a simple, straightforward story, this time of a minister whose modern, earnest work for all his people brings him the

results he is striving for, and, unexpectedly, a woman's love. The other three books are stories of quiet New England life. Of the Southern tales, F. Hopkinson Smith's "Colonel Carter's Christmas" gives us again this fine old-time Virginian, in a New York atmosphere, where his simple great-heartedness and courtesy influence even a crude, hard-headed man of Wall Street. It is the clean-cut art of a cameo. Among other Southern stories are "The Circle in the Square" (Barnes), a virile first book by Baldwin Sears, dealing with new conditions which Southern communities have had to face, and written with sympathy and at first hand; Henry Boone's "The Career Triumphant" (Appleton), whose story of an actress who is willing to sacrifice her career for the man she loves is ordinary compared to the attractive picture of modern Virginia; "Butternut Jones" (Appleton), a full-blooded story of modern Texas; "Sons of Vengeance" (Revell), a melodramatic picture of the Cumberland highlanders, grim with feuds, whiskey stills, and every-day hardship; and "Tennessee Todd" (Barnes), an exciting story of the Mississippi,—the fight between the steamboat and the railroad,—well, if somewhat diffusely, told.

Of the latest novels of Western life, William R. Lighton's "The Ultimate Moment" (Harper) is a story of a young man of the Nebraska country who, ambitious to make a name for himself, starts in the city, sees success almost in his grasp, and falls in love with a typical city girl, but who, at the call of duty, goes back to his home, and finds his real place there and the right woman for his love. Though strong and dramatic, it is quietly told. It is fresh and vigorous, exceedingly good story-telling. "To-morrow's Tangle" (Bobbs-Merrill) is a dramatic story by Geraldine Bonner of a girl who is the daughter of a Mormon who sells her mother to a miner for a pair of horses. The miner, who takes the mother to save her life and that of her child, loves her, and marries her. An interval of time elapses, and the girl has grown up, the miner is dead, the real father is a millionaire. The story of the tangle which almost ruins the girl's life is rapid and interesting, and San Francisco literary life is pictured cleverly. Other Western tales are "Judith of the Plains" (Harper), in which the wild life of the plains serves as a background for a courageous, red-blooded heroine,—a story full of rough and original humor,—and Mrs. Peattie's "The Edge of Things" (Revell), an interesting picture of plain life, full of sympathy and sentiment. Max Adeler's humor displays itself again in "In Happy Hollow" (Coates). "The Torch" (Bobbs-Merrill) is an interesting if sometimes overdrawn story of the politics and executive management in a modern State college in the West.

NOVELS OF FOREIGN LIFE.

Henry James' new book, "The Ambassadors" (Harper), is a characteristic study of people, this time of Americans in England and France. The dialogue is often clever and sometimes tiresome. Mr. James always forces talk and description, which clog action, but which are necessary to build up characters in which no detail is lost. The power, originality, keen insight, and good writing which are always to be expected from Mr. James are in this latest work. F. Marion Crawford, in "The Heart of Rome" (Macmillan), gives another evidence of his marvelous facility as a story-teller. It is a simple but dramatic story, founded on a single incident in the discovery of treasure and "lost water" under an old Roman castle. Mr. Crawford's art ma-



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tures; each new story seems more vital and more perfectly constructed than the one which preceded it. His characters, especially that of the heroine, are done in a few bold lines, sketchy but perfect in their way. "The Key of Paradise" (Macmillan) is another Italian story of considerable dramatic force and romantic charm. "Katharine Frensham" (Dodd, Mead), Beatrice Harraden's new story, is of a womanly woman who comes to the rescue of a father whose keen sensitiveness has been wrought upon cruelly by an incompatible wife. The parts of the book which are laid in Norway and Sweden are particularly well done. "The Mark" (Doubleday) is a striking first book by Aquila Kempster. This fascinating and adventurous story of India must have been written at first hand, so vital are its pictures, so rich its colors, and so finely drawn its people; and the writing is that of ripened art. The book itself is a spell which remains potent with delicious mystery long after it has been laid aside. "The Masterfolk" (Harper) is an unusually well-written tale of London and Paris Bohemian life, with a delightful love story, and "Our Lady's Inn" (Harper) is another of J. Storer Clouston's entertaining stories, this one of a young girl who, pen-



MARGARET DELAND.

niless, has some remarkable adventures in London,—full of buoyant good humor. John Strange Winter's "Little Joan" (Lippincott) is an English story of a girl who is loved by two men and makes her choice after many incidents and much hesitation, and "Christian Thal" (Longmans) is a musical novel of England and Germany, with a striking hero. Rider Haggard's "Stella Fregelius" (Longmans) is different from any of his previous novels. It is an interesting modern story of a young inventor who loves and is aided in his work by a charming woman of the North whose life he



HARRIS DICKSON.

has saved, but who in the end, Stella Fregelius having died, marries the cousin to whom he is betrothed.

ROMANCES AND QUIET TALES.

Charles Major's "The Forest Hearth" (Macmillan) is a Blue River story laid in the early half of the last century. Occasionally one seems to catch a glimpse of silks and jewels and satins, and is bothered lest perhaps this is "knighthood" in masquerade, but generally

Mr. Major holds to the simple prettiness of his love tale, to Dic and Rita and her shrewish mother. This story will, like its predecessors, make a better play than it is a novel. And it is by much the best writing Mr. Major has done. Booth Tarkington's "Cherry" (Harper), which publishers and public alike have been anxious to see in book form, makes that remarkable prig, Mr. Sudgeberry, his love story, and the remarkable adventures of his Christmas journey from Nassau Hall a permanent addition to Mr. Tarkington's previous stories. He has made it difficult for any man with the name, if there be such, for the mere mention of Sudgeberry will bring a smile to the lips of any one who has seen the poor little academician in his nightcap, on the snow-bank, serving as a seat for the heavy landlord. It is distinctly college humor, and the story has the freshness of youth.

"The O'Ruddy" (Stokes) was the late Stephen Crane's last creation, the story being finished, after Crane's death, by Robert Barr. The dashing Irishman is altogether irresistible, and the action gallops rapidly along attractive ways. Fascinating Kitty Bellairs appears again in "Incomparable Bellairs" (Stokes), and she is incomparable in her way,—clever, witty, and beautiful, the natural creature of pretty romance. Other greatly differing tales are Margaret Horton Potter's "The Castle of Twilight" (McClurg), a strong and tragic story of the blight an old castle lays upon its people; J. H. McCarthy's "The Proud Prince" (Russell), the old story of Robert of Sicily revamped in book form from Sothern's successful play; "When I Was Czar" (Stokes), another of A. W. Marchmont's adventurous stories which make interesting reading for an idle hour or two; "Doctor Xavier" (Appleton), a magician who works in modern surroundings,—the invention of Max Pemberton,—and Cyrus Townsend Brady's blood-drenched story of "Sir Henry Morgan, Buccaneer" (Dillingham).

HISTORICAL FICTION.

"Barlasch of the Guard" (McClure) is original, clean-cut, human fiction. There is nothing of the swashbuckler in it. Barlasch is a gruff, kindly old soldier, with a ready excuse to offer for every good thing he does. The story of the girl whose husband betrays her father, and who finally finds truer love after both husband and father are dead, is told without melodrama or noise, to the drum-beat of Napoleon's army marching to Russia and back. The pictures of the broken forces on their terrible homeward march are vividly done. It is the

most notable writing Mr. Merriman has shown since "The Sowers." Robert Barr's "Over the Border" (Stokes), a rattling bit of story-telling, has Strafford, Charles, and Cromwell among its characters. The love story is brave and wholesome, and not quite like all previous stories of England under the Stuarts. Mrs. Katrina Trask's "Free, Not Bound" (Putnam), has all the simplicity and sympathetic charm of her earlier work, with ethical power and dramatic sense. The Revolutionary War is the background—and only the background—of the love story of a strict, sturdy Puritan and his brave and loyal wife. Other historical tales are "Mamzelle Fidine" (Appleton), a picturesque story of the younger days of the Empress Josephine at Martinique; "A Flame of Fire" (Revell), which celebrates, in heavy drama, the Spanish Inquisition and the sailing of the Armada; "John Maxwell's Marriage" (Macmillan), a story of Ireland in George III.'s time, with very lifelike people and interesting pictures of old-time Ireland, and "Uther and Igraine" (Outlook), a poetic and dramatic story of old Britain. "She Who Hesitates" (Bobbs-Merrill) is the best historical fiction Harris Dickson has yet written, a story of a Frenchman in Russia, and later in early New Orleans. The heroine who hesitates is a very human creation.

VOLUMES OF SHORT STORIES.

Some of the best short stories of the last year or two have been tales of the sea. There are a number of new collections, all relatively good. Joseph Conrad's "Falk" (McClure), while hardly as notable as "Youth," published last year, are strong stories, the play of creative imagination on every page. W. W. Jacobs' "Odd Craft" (Scribner) are typical sketchy studies in black and white, full of subtle and characteristic humor. "Sea Scamps" (McClure) is a collection of Dr. H. C. Rowland's vigorous stories. Dr. Rowland's work is simple and direct, full of action and incident and rugged humor. One cannot lounge and read "Sea Scamps." The call of the sea echoes from its pages. "The Strife of the Sea" (Baker, Taylor), T. Jenkins Hains' new collection of sea tales, have strong imaginative moments, although they lack restraint, and "The Promotion of the Admiral" (Page), by Morley Roberts, has something of the quality of Mr. Cutcliffe Hyne's stories of sea adventure.

Elizabeth Cherry Waltz's "Pa Gladden" (Century) is a fine creation. This old man and his wife, who live, close to the soil, their kindly, Godly, simple lives, will

be the friends of many generations besides the present. Simple as they are, these stories are universal in their appeal. Their value can scarcely yet be measured. "Dr. Lavender's People" (Harper) are more quiet tales by Margaret Deland, similar to the author's "Old Ches-



DR. HENRY C. ROWLAND.



WILLIAM W. JACOBS.

ter Tales" in quaint and tender characterization. Two brisk and humorous series of stories of society and their sporting outdoor life are "Gallops 2" (Century) and "Along the Irish Shore" (Longmans). "Gallops 2" are the most brisk, most merry, and cleverest little sketches of many months. Other interesting collections are "Zut" (Houghton, Mifflin), strikingly good Parisian stories, by Guy Wetmore Carryl; "Two Sides of a Face" (Scribner), disassociated dramatic and humorous tales by Quiller-Couch; "Sixty Jane" (Century), more of John Luther Long's clever dialogue; "Calderon's Prisoner" (Scribner), two short modern romances by Alice Duer Miller, and "The Souther's Lamp" (Revell), Scottish sketches by Hector MacGregor, full of dialect and sentiment.

OLD BOOKS IN NEW GARB.

Samuel Warren's famous "Ten Thousand a Year" has been edited and shortened by Cyrus Townsend Brady and entitled "Tittlebat Tittlemouse" (Funk & Wagnalls). Paul Leicester Ford's "A Checked Love Affair" (Dodd, Mead) appears in decorated holiday edition. New and profusely illustrated editions of "Mrs. Wiggs" and "Lovey Mary" (Century), "Madame Butterfly" (Century), and "The Cardinal's Snuff Box" (Lane) make attractive gift books.

RECENT HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

"JOHN FISKE is dead." This thought recurs each season to the reader of books of history. Not that valuable and interesting historical writing is not being constantly done, but the men whom Oliver Wendell Holmes called "three story men," men who recreate times and people and vivify them with splendid imagination, comeseldom and are missed when they go. Nor are there any new volumes, this fall, from James Ford Rhodes, Professor Turner, or Captain Mahan. There are, however, some journalistic histories that make interesting reading, and a number of scholarly books which will be valuable as guides.

The Mississippi Valley is a veritable mine of picturesque material, and it is not remarkable that John R. Spears and A. H. Clark have written a very readable narrative in their "History of the Mississippi Valley" (Clark). With many quotations and citations from authorities and old manuscripts, they have told the story of the valley during the early years of foreign control, bringing together many hitherto separated facts about the earliest French settlers, the Indian tribes who fought for their hereditary lands, and the English and the American frontiersmen. There is interesting material about the personalities of La Salle, George Rogers Clarke, Mad Anthony Wayne, and many others; the massacre of Christianized Indians at Gnadenhutten is told dramatically, and great significance is given it. If the writing is often journalistically diffuse, if the thousands of facts have not been thoroughly digested, if the construction of the work is often helter-skelter, nevertheless this is probably the most complete and interesting collection of information about the early Mississippi that has been made.

Washington Irving's Knickerbocker history has long been the standard picture of Dutch New York, and its caricature has often been accepted literally. Thomas A. Janvier's "The Dutch Founding of New York" (Harper), a practical, direct, well-written story of the trading post and town of New Amsterdam from 1612 to 1680, will serve both as a correction of mistaken impressions and as a human picture of the keen, business-like Dutch settlers. The entirely commercial reason for the colony's existence, the trading methods of the Dutch with the Indians, and the administration of the settlement's affairs are all clearly described. The "hustling, greedy, law-defying Dutchmen who dwell in New Netherland two hundred and fifty years ago," their depredations inland, their piracies on the sea, their lack of consideration of any law save the law of profit, are characterized clearly and with a charming sense of humor; and the influence of Stuyvesant, and later of English domination, are shown. This kind of historical writing will find many readers and hold them.

Germany's industrial success and her dominance in international affairs turns the mind back insistently to her strenuous struggle against Napoleon and the building of the foundations of new national supremacy. The third volume of Poultney Bigelow's "History of the German Struggle for Liberty" (Harper) carries the reader in rapid narrative from Waterloo to the revolution of 1848, the period of the Holy Alliance, and the



POULTNEY BIGELOW.

(Author of "History of the German Struggle for Liberty.")

growth of a new national spirit. Mr. Bigelow has studied Germany with the eye of the journalist and traveler,—much of the material he has obtained, he says in his preface, came from canoe trips to places of historical interest through the empire,—and his sketches of the people, their interests, and their customs three-quarters of a century ago are vital and spirited. The characterization of such dominating and differing personalities as William the Great, Robert Blum, and Fritz Reuter is perhaps the most notable achievement of the volume.

Sir Gilbert Parker's novel "The Seats of the Mighty" was the forerunner of his present "Old Quebec" (Macmillan). The author knows every corner of the old fortress and city, and has the constructive facts and spirit of its history at his tongue's end. It is little wonder, then, that his story, written with restraint and dignity, and with a certain broad scholarship, is notably interesting, vital, and valuable. He is more at home in the early years of Quebec's history than in that of more modern times,—the coming of the religion-prodded French pioneers, the growth in the wilderness of picturesque New France with the gaunt fortress of Quebec as its center, the wars with the Indians, the fearless *voyageurs* who followed unmapped streams into the heart of undiscovered America, the Parisian folk who dwelt in the city, the gradual beating down of the

French power, culminating with Wolfe's victory on the Plains of Abraham. The later mingling of French-Canadians and English settlers, the growth of English power after the American Revolution, and the economic and political problems of the last century make the volume complete; but primarily the book is a story of a people rather than a collection and construction of political, economic, and social facts. It is a brilliant romance of one of the most picturesque communities in the world.

Two new books show the influence of geographic conditions on American history, "Geographic Influences in American History" (Ginn), by Prof. Albert P. Brigham, and "American History and Its Geographic Conditions" (Houghton, Mifflin), by Ellen Churchill Semple. The first is designed for a text-book, and tells in a concise, matter-of-fact way the influence of the country's topography on the early settlers, that of the Appalachian barrier, the Great Lakes, and the West on the increasing population, the geography of the Civil War, and the physical conditions which have affected later commercial developments. The second is larger, more bulky with facts and deductions, written easily and attractively for the general reader, and covers much the same ground, adding some important chapters on the geographical distribution of immigration, of cities and industries, and of railroads. While one is meant for schools and the other for individual libraries, each would serve the other's purpose.

Dr. James Schouler's "History of the United States from the Adoption of the Constitution to the Close of the Civil War" is one of the scholarly landmarks of American history. The six volumes of this work have now been condensed by the author into a single book, "Eighty Years of Union" (Dodd, Mead), a comprehensive outline of the first three-quarters of a century of democratic government in America. Although made up of extracts, it is a consecutive and readable as well as an important narrative.

Perhaps no State in the Union has had a more interesting history than South Carolina since the Revolution, and Prof. W. Roy Smith's "South Carolina as a Royal Province, 1719-1776" (Macmillan), tells the picturesque story of the earlier period. Professor Smith's study is aimed to show how for a half-century previous to the Revolution the people of the province were, unconsciously at first, looking forward to independence, and he traces with great care the governmental, military, legislative, and fiscal conditions of the State in their early development. The picture of South Carolina just before the war of 1776 is a new and striking one.

In the first volume of "South American Republics" (Putnam), Thomas C. Dawson, secretary of the United States legation to Brazil, traces the individual and often tangled stories of Argentina, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Brazil. Mr. Dawson shows that militarism has gone from a considerable portion of the continent and is constantly becoming less powerful where it exists, that civic capacity is rapidly on the increase, that industries are progressing, and that liberty ordered by law is more and more desired. As to the prevalence of revolutions, "constitutional traditions inherited from Spain and Portugal implanted a tendency toward disintegration; Spanish and Portuguese tyranny bred in the people a distrust of all rules and governments; the wars of independence brought to the front military adventurers; civil disorders were inevitable, and the

search for forms of government that should be final and stable has been very painful."

William Henry Johnson has written an interesting book in "Pioneer Spaniards in North America" (Little, Brown), a constantly absorbing subject. Starting with Columbus, he shows the spread of Spanish conquest in the Caribbean and to the mainland, and the deeds of Cortez, De Soto, and Coronado. Mr. Johnson not only tells his story with spirit and directness, but he adds an accumulation of interesting facts about the early people of the South.

"Versailles is *par excellence* the chateau of the Bourbons, and he who knows it intimately has lived through the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries." This is the opening of the preface of "Romance of the Bourbon Chateaux" (Putnam), by Elizabeth W. Champney. The author knows her Versailles intimately, and in her book she makes live again the "insolent, inconsequential, of the world worldly" people of the Bourbon nobility. She has absorbed the spirit of the time and presented it in graceful writing and artistic sense of proportion.

BIOGRAPHIES AND REMINISCENCES.

There are half-a-dozen new volumes of biography and personal reminiscences which are of notable importance.—Gen. John B. Gordon's "Reminiscences of the Civil War" (Scribner), "Hawthorne and His Circle" (Harper), by Julian Hawthorne, Dr. Simon Newcomb's "Reminiscences of an Astronomer" (Houghton, Mifflin), "Recollections of Richard Henry Stoddard" (Barnes), "Thirty Years of Musical Life in London" (Century), by Herman Klein, and Prof. G. R. Carpenter's biography of Whittier (Houghton, Mifflin), in the "American Men of Letters" series.

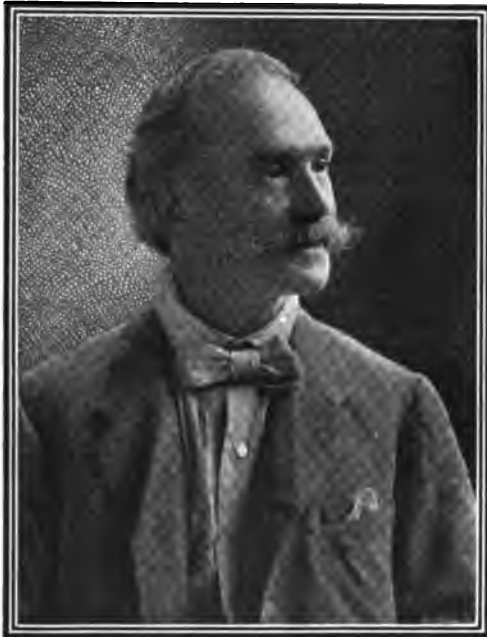
General Gordon has written the frank, straightforward story of his own experiences as an officer in the Confederate army. He has described intimately a great



GEN. JOHN B. GORDON.

(Author of "Reminiscences of the Civil War.")

number of movements of the war which have previously been relegated to the background, as well as the larger and more critical operations. He has shown the methods of attack and defense that characterized the armies under various generals, and has given personal human pictures of the men he knew and beside whom he fought for the "lost cause," privates as well as generals. He has told the story simply and filled it with vital incidents of his own experience. It is as fresh as if it had been written in 1865, except that the spirit of that time has been mellowed by the years. Altogether, it is a human document of the greatest crisis in our history which in interest will rank with General Grant's "Memoirs."



HERMAN KLEIN.

(Author of "Thirty Years of Musical Life in London.")

Julian Hawthorne's agreeable and sketchy reminiscences of his father will be enjoyed primarily because of their intimate personal character, and because no biographer of Hawthorne could have such complete material at his disposal. The book is full of characteristic incidents, and the friends of the novelist, Alcott, Stoddard, Ticknor, Story, the great English writers, and many others, stand out almost as clearly as Hawthorne himself. We get closer to Hawthorne the man than in any book that has yet been published.

Professor Newcomb's reminiscences are not only a simple and modest story of his own interesting life and of the scientific men with whom he has been in contact, but include also an outline history of the great astronomic movements of the period, the great telescopes, and the transits of Venus in 1874 and 1882, the Lick Observatory receiving especial attention. Professor Newcomb is perhaps as widely known as any modern astronomer, through his large amount of popular writing, as well as through his work itself, and his book's value is equalled by his distinctly interesting writing.

Richard Henry Stoddard's "Recollections" are full of

sympathetic humor, and bring the reader into close touch with literary America of the last half-century and more. There is scarcely a man of high literary attainments in the period whom you wish to know that you will not meet intimately in this volume. And the man you will know best at the end is perhaps the best worth knowing of all, Mr. Stoddard himself. The volume is edited with rare judgment by Ripley Hitchcock.

Probably no living man has known intimately as many of the later-day masters of music as Herman Klein, for thirty years one of the leading London critics. While his book is, in a measure, a history of three decades of modern music, it is, first of all, a collection of intimate and charming sketches of the great singers, pianists, violinists, and composers of the period. The book reads like a novel, and will be interesting to music-lovers and musician-worshippers of this and many another day.

Professor Carpenter's biography of Whittier has been written sympathetically from a mass of hitherto separated information. While it is, in a measure, a picture of Whittier the man, it is more clearly the story of the development of his art, done with scholarly and literary insight.

Three biographies of differing times and people are "The Mother of Washington and Her Times" (Macmillan), by Mrs. Roger A. Pryor; "Philip Schuyler" (Dodd, Mead), by Bayard Tuckerman, and "Spencer Kellogg Brown" (Appleton), edited by George Gardner Smith. Mrs. Pryor's book is a delightful picture of the women of Colonial times, and particularly of the mother of Washington, who has hitherto lived only in her son. The people of the early times in Virginia live again in a large number of consecutive incidents and in charming description of their life,—Colonel Byrd, the Lees, the Carters, the Tayloes, Chief Justice Marshall, and literally hundreds of others; and, most important, the serene woman, who had sacrificed everything for the cause, saying after a victory, "George generally carries through whatever he undertakes." Mr. Tuckerman's memoir of General Schuyler is a just account of the life of that gentleman, citizen, and soldier, written from authoritative material. The diary of Spencer Kellogg Brown tells at first hand of the border struggle in Kansas, and of his experiences in the navy during the Civil War. As a dramatic story out of real life, and of a period filled with struggle and action, the book is interesting.

"The Adventures of an Army Nurse" (Little, Brown) is the edited diary of a nurse who in the Civil War and in the Franco-Prussian War did the grim work of an army nurse. The diary is full of incident and of human heart-throbs, of bravery and sacrifice and death. "Talks with Napoleon at St. Helena" (McClurg) is a condensed translation of General Baron Gourgaud's journal, containing complete that part of the journal which was kept on their journey from Waterloo to St. Helena, and Napoleon's chats with the general during his imprisonment. Napoleon reveals himself in these interviews, and his frank opinions of men and events of his career and of the time.

"The Nemesis of Froude" (Lane) is the latest addition to the Carlyle-Froude controversy, kept alive with amazing persistence and bad taste by the friends of the great men. Each book, however, has the value of unearthing new material about both Carlyle and Froude. "Among the Great Masters of the Drama" (Dana Estes) is an entertaining series of sketches of famous playwrights, actors, and actresses.

BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND SOCIAL STUDY.

MRS. ANNA BOWMAN DODD, whose interesting descriptions of French and English scenery have been noticed in previous numbers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, is the author of a portly volume entitled "In the Palaces of the Sultan" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). As the guest of Gen. Horace Porter, our ambassador to France, Mrs. Dodd was received by the Sultan at his court, dined with him, and was personally conducted through the miles of palaces and parks which constitute his private domain. In the present work, which is most appropriately and artistically illustrated, Mrs. Dodd, besides describing the details of this visit to the Sultan's palaces, gives an entertaining account of Turkish political life of to-day. It is safe to say that the subject has never before been so fully or so attractively presented in English.

Another standard work by an American author on an Oriental subject is Mr. Frederic C. Penfield's "Present-Day Egypt" (Century), a new edition of which has recently appeared. The Khedive of Egypt has pronounced this work "the only book published on Egypt of to-day by an author thoroughly acquainted with the subject through long residence and official position in the country." For four years, from 1893 to 1897, Mr. Penfield was United States diplomatic agent and consul-general to Egypt. His aim in this volume has been "to present a series of faithful pictures of the Egypt that is interesting to the winter visitor, health-seeker, and general reader desirous of learning something, and not too much, of contemporary conditions of the oldest country in the world."

Still another American view of Eastern conditions is presented in "To-Day in Syria and Palestine," by William Eleroy Curtis (Revell). This volume of over five hundred pages preserves in permanent form the letters which appeared in the *Chicago Record-Herald* in the spring of 1901. These letters, Mr. Curtis states, were dictated at the rate of twenty-five hundred words



THE FOUNTAIN OF SULTAN AHMED III.

Illustration (reduced) from "In the Palaces of the Sultan."



WASHINGTON B. VANDERLIP.

From photograph taken in 1899, at Indian Point, Bering Sea. Frontispiece (reduced) from "In Search of a Siberian Klondike."

a day, during the entire journey, wherever a place could be found to put a typewriter. A traveler's impressions recorded under such circumstances are necessarily of less value than would be the opinions formed after continued residence in the countries described. Still, they are interesting as showing the impressions made by the ancient institutions of the Orient on the alert mind of the wide-awake modern American. Most of the photographs used in illustrating this volume were taken by Miss Elsie Evans Curtis, the author's daughter.

A tale of real adventure and daring is the narrative of Washington B. Vanderlip, "In Search of a Siberian Klondike," as set forth by Homer B. Hulbert (Century). After the discoveries of the rich gold deposits on the Yukon, Mr. Vanderlip determined to make a hunt for similar riches in Kamchatka and northern Siberia. To this end he spent fourteen months prospecting for a Russian syndicate, living all the time with the natives. The search for a Siberian Klondike was unsuccessful, but the man who made the search came into possession of a great fund of information about this little-known land and its scanty population. All this is succinctly presented by Mr. Hulbert and illustrated with a great number of most interesting photographs.

In "My Devon Year" (Macmillan) that charming in-



THE FARMHOUSE AT COATE.—BIRTHPLACE AND EARLY HOME OF RICHARD JEFFERIES.

Illustration (reduced) from "An English Village."

terpreter of Devonshire life, Mr. Eden Phillpots, describes the familiar landscapes of his favorite region in the changing seasons with all his accustomed power and grace.

"An English Village" is the title given to a new edition of "Wild Life in a Southern County," by Richard Jefferies (Boston: H. M. Caldwell Company). This work, because it is so largely autobiographical, has always been the most interesting to American readers of all the writings of England's most notable nature writer. With the present edition are printed twenty-five photographs of rural life made in Wiltshire



Illustration (reduced) from "My Devon Year."

by Clifton Johnson, together with an introduction by Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie. As thus adorned, the book makes a capital companion volume to Thoreau's sketches. In some respects, indeed, Jefferies was a sort of English Thoreau.

An extremely timely publication from the same house is a volume entitled "Around the Caribbean and Across Panama," by Dr. Francis C. Nicholas. For some years, Dr. Nicholas has been engaged in the examination of lands and mines around the Isthmus of Panama. In the course of these investigations he has visited many of the Indian tribes to which white men have heretofore had little access. The manners and customs of these natives are fully described in his book.

"The Cathedrals of Northern France," by Francis Miltoun (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), is preëminently an architect's book, and yet not in a strictly technical sense. Some travelers are not satisfied with the guide-



Cover design (reduced).

book discussions of French architecture; some students and general readers who have never traveled would like to read an intelligent, straightforward account of those magnificent structures which were old when our own country was young. Such will find the desideratum in Mr. Miltoun's volume, which abounds in sound and useful information.

In "The Land of Little Rain" (Houghton, Mifflin), Mrs. Mary Hunter Austin reproduces the atmosphere of one part of our great country which most of our writers have thus far let severely alone,—namely, the desert regions of the far West. Mrs. Austin is familiar, from long residence, with the country stretching south from the Sierra Nevada range and the Yosemite into the Mo-

jave Desert, and including the far-famed Death Valley. Readers of Mrs. Austin's sketches in the *Atlantic Monthly* and other magazines do not need to be told of her unusual powers as a descriptive writer. Her work deals altogether with out-of-door life, and recounts only what she has herself seen and experienced. The marginal illustrations of the volume are the work of Mr. E. Boyd Smith, who is himself unusually familiar with the marvels of this Western desert land.

A new book by Mr. George Wharton James is devoted to "The Indians of the Painted Desert Region" (Boston: Little, Brown). These Indians, the Hopis, Navahoes, Wallapais, and Havasupais, are as yet but imperfectly known to the American reading public, although considerable has been written regarding special customs of the Hopis and the Navahoes. Mr. James deserves great credit for the enlightening descriptions that he gives of the homes, habits, and characteristics of these Southwestern tribes, and perhaps no less credit for the series of excellent photographs that he has taken, from which his book is illustrated. Like the author's work on the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, this book is the result of personal experience and adventurous journeys over the Southwestern deserts.

BOOKS ON HUMAN CONDITIONS.

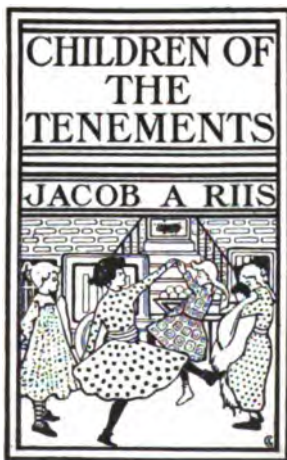
In taking up Mrs. Maud Ballington Booth's new book, "After Prison—What?" (Revell) the reader should not expect to find between the covers a treatise on penology or criminology. Instead of that, the very first chapter makes an appeal to his intelligent sympathy, and as he reads on the appeal grows the more insistent. It is such a tale as the man behind the bars himself might tell, had he the gift of utterance and the faith that the world outside the prison-walls would listen to his words. Because he lacks that gift and that faith, Mrs. Booth, the "Little Mother" to thousands of American prisoners, voices the cry of her "boys," and so we have a book written, as it were, from the point of view of the cell. Mrs. Booth makes known to us as fully as may be the hopes and fears and aspirations—the outlook on life—of the man in the cell. Her book is further helpful in the information that it gives of the practical work for discharged prisoners conducted by the Volunteers of America, of which General Ballington Booth is the head. Altogether, it is a strong presentation of the claims of a neglected and often ill-treated class in the community. As a statement of facts, it is convincing, and cannot fail to prove effective. The author asks "no sentimental sympathy or pity, no patronage or charity, but only understanding, justice, and fair play."

If any of our writers may be said to be at home in the

portraiture of real life in the New York tenements, it surely is Mr. Jacob A. Riis. His last book, "Children of the Tenements" (Macmillan), is made up of stories most of which, Mr. Riis tells us, came to him in the course of his work as a police reporter, and are given to the world exactly as Mr. Riis received them—without invention or embellishment. Such tales are not to be classed with fiction, since they report true happenings in the daily life of the people, but in the directness and simplicity of the telling there is a lesson that should be heeded by every ambitious fiction-writer.



MRS. MAUD BALLINGTON BOOTH.
(Author of "After Prison—What?")



Cover design (reduced).

Mr. Jack London is a story-writer who has tried his hand at reporting, the result being a substantial volume, with many pictures, entitled "The People of the Abyss" (Macmillan). In this book the reader is introduced to the life of the vast, mysterious, and dreary East London. The author can hardly be regarded as a pioneer in this field. More than twenty years ago, the late Sir Walter Besant, in "All Sorts and Conditions of Men," pictured the human side of East London, and thereby stimulated the building of the far-famed "People's Palace." The young American writer has studied the people of the great East End by the same methods that an explorer might adopt in learning the characteristics of a savage tribe in Darkest Africa. He has gone among them, lived with them, foraged with them, and by degrees has mastered more of their secrets than would ever have been revealed to a stranger, however kindly disposed. The really interesting part of the story is the author's account of how he did all this. It was a plunge into uncharted human wilds, but the outcome was a positive addition to our stock of knowledge concerning the real life of our time. In its naked, unglossed sordidness, the picture is often repellent, and yet its verities must not pass unheeded.

The metropolis in some of its more pleasing aspects is presented in "Dickens' London," by Francis Miltoun (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.). Reminiscent, as the title implies, of the London that Dickens and his contem-

poraries loved and cherished, this volume acquaints us with the buildings and topographical features of the city that have survived from Dickens' day to our own, and incidentally furnishes admirers of the great novelist with much entertaining information regarding local-

ities especially identified with the life and work of the English author who has done most to spread abroad a knowledge of his city on its human side. The illustrations are well chosen. All in all, the London of the middle Victorian era is cleverly epitomized in the book.

ILLUSTRATED GIFT BOOKS AND NEW EDITIONS.

"IN Arcady," by Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie, as illustrated by Mr. Will H. Low, with marginal decorations by Mr. Charles L. Hinton (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is one of the artistic triumphs of the season's book-making. Here author, artists, and printer have met on common ground, and the joint product of their efforts is a new interpretation of more than one chapter of Nature's story.

A few years ago, Hugh Black's little book on "Friendship" made its author's name known in thousands of American homes, and this year the popular Scotch preacher's homily on "Work" (Revell) is likely to have quite as wide a circulation, with its attractive binding and decorated margins.

"Ruth Ogden" (Mrs. Charles W. Ide) has written a Christmas message entitled "Friendship, the Good and Perfect Gift" (Stokes)—a brochure at once beautiful in spirit and rich in suggestion.

A new issue in the dainty "Thumb-Nail Series" (Century) is "Socrates," consisting of Plato's "Apology" and "Crito," with a part of his "Phædo" (Jowett's translation). The symbolical cover design, like so many of its predecessors in the series, is the work of Mrs. Blanche McManus Mansfield.

"The Art of the Pitti Palace," by Julia de Wolf Addison (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), is much more than an art gallery catalogue. The author has made a serious attempt to describe in untechnical terms the masterpieces assembled in the famous old palace, and to weave into the account the most salient facts in the careers of the various artists represented in the collection. The illustrations are chiefly process reproductions of the most celebrated of the paintings, together with views of the building itself. The combination of pictures and text goes to make up an interesting souvenir which all traveled Americans who have visited the Pitti Palace will be glad to own.

The "Astor Edition" of English poets (Crowell) is generally recognized as one of the best of the low-priced collections. New volumes in the series are Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales," with an introduction by Professor

Lounsbury, of Yale, and a glossarial index, and the text of Spenser's "Faërie Queene," to which Professor Trent, of Columbia, supplies an introduction and a bibliographical note. The same publishing house has brought out the "Pembroke Edition" of Shakespeare's complete works, in twelve small volumes, edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. Each volume in the set has a photogravure frontispiece and rubricated titles.

A volume of Tennyson's poems, chosen and edited by Dr. Henry van Dyke (Boston: Ginn), will be eagerly welcomed by all lovers of Tennyson who have felt the need of a full and representative selection of the poet's masterpieces. Dr. van Dyke contributes a biographical and critical introduction of one hundred pages. The frontispiece of the book is a photogravure reproduction of the sculptor Partridge's head of Tennyson.

A selection of "The Best Tales" and "The Best Poems and Essays" of Edgar Allan Poe has been made by Mr. Sherwin Cody (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). In these two volumes, of moderate size, one may have the cream of Poe's work. It is a reason for encouragement that such reprints of standard American authors are in demand.

One of the most attractive sets of books issued this season by any of our American publishers is the "Little French Masterpieces," edited by Alexander Jessup (Putnam). There are six volumes in the series, each of which comprises selections (in translation) from the works of some one French writer of distinction. In each case a brief introduction by some competent critic prefaces the selections. The authors included in the series are Prosper Mérimée, Gustave Flaubert, Théophile Gautier, Balzac, Daudet, and Guy de Maupassant. Print, paper, and binding are excellent.

The "Puritan Edition" of "The Pilgrim's Progress" (Revell) contains thirty-one illustrations in Puritan costume by Harold Copping. The idea of presenting Bunyan's characters in the dress of the times in which Bunyan himself lived is a happy one. In this edition, too, a special effort has been made to incorporate in the text the very last revisions that Bunyan made, down to the year of his death.

We are indebted to another American publishing house (Crowell) for the most satisfactory editions of the old English novelists, Fielding and Smollett. The selections from each author comprise twelve volumes, with introductions by Dr. G. H. Maynard, of Harvard, and the series throughout is illustrated in photogravure from drawings by Dunsmore, Williams, and others. The printing was done by the University Press, Cambridge, and is creditable in every respect.

Still another reprint by this house comprises Ormsby's translation of "Don Quixote," in four convenient volumes, edited by James Fitzmaurice-Kelly.



Title page (reduced).



Illustration (reduced) from "The Life of a Wooden Doll."

THE SEASON'S BOOKS FOR THE YOUNG.

A gingerbread boy and a pie-crust girl; | They met in an oven hot; | The gingerbread boy was as cross as a churl, | But the pie-crust girl was not.—GEORGE V. HOBART'S "Li'l Verses for Li'l Fellers."

"THE New Boy at Dale," by Charles Edward Rich (Harper Bros.), will be of interest to girls as well as boys. The boy hero was stolen from home when very young. While traveling with a circus, he rescues a child; enters Dale school, where his victories over the

rival athletes of Weston school, combined with his quiet, manly bearing, make him an interesting hero. Florence Scovel Shinn's illustrations add to the charm of the book. Annie Fellows Johnston's new "Little Colonel" book entitled "The Little Colonel at Boarding School" (L. C. Page & Co.), illustrated by Etheldred B. Barry, is an amusing story of boarding-school life. "I don't know how to express the way the day made me feel; not happy, exactly, for when I'm that way I always want to sing. It's more like a big, soft,



Illustration (reduced) from "The Five Little Peppers at School."

furry kind of contentment. If I were a cat I'd be purring," says one of the characters. Margaret Sidney's "Five Little Peppers at School" is of as great interest as the first Pepper Book. One follows the merry children eagerly from beginning to end. It is illustrated by Her-

mann Heyer (The Lothrop Pub. Co.). Washington, Arnold, Lafayette, and Cornwallis figure prominently in the pages of "A Colonial Maid," by Lucy Foster Madison (The Penn Pub. Co.), with illustrations by Clyde O. Deland. Virginia lives with her uncle, a Tory, while she is a patriot; she rides in disguise to take gold to Washington at Valley Forge, she escapes death at the massacre of Wyoming, then there is the finding of her father, and the final forgiving of her cousin, who is an American soldier, by her Tory uncle. Thomas Nelson Page's "Two Prisoners" (R. H. Russell), illustrated in color by Virginia Keep, is the story of a poor little cripple child, Molly. Mildred's little dog runs away to Molly, and Mildred following it becomes acquainted with the little cripple. Molly goes to the country with Mildred, and through the help of a mocking-bird, finds her mother. It is needless to say that the book is written in an artistic style. We recognize the pen of the veteran story-teller in Mrs. C. V. Jamison's "Thistledown" (The Century Co.), illustrations by W. Benda. "Little Betty Blew," by Annie M. Barnes (Lee & Shepard), illustrated by Frank T. Merrill, is the story of a little girl who went with her family to organize a settlement on the Ashley River, South Carolina, about two hundred years ago. On arriving at Charleston, they find that an Indian is to be whipped; by paying his fine Mr. Blew releases him, whereupon the Indian promises to "Undo;" this they take to mean to reform his former manner of living, but in reality means to restore Betty's older brother, who was stolen when on a visit to the same city years before. Betty is nearly eaten by an alligator, is stolen by an Indian; rescued by a supposed Indian who turns out to be her brother. "West Point Colors" is by Anna B. Warren, illustrated by photographs (Fleming H. Revell Co.). In it we read: "And Magnus had been duly presented, and had done his first *devoirs* to the fair strangers." And we can guess from this the author's style.

"A Book of Girls," by Lillian Bell, illustrated by W. B. Stevens, contains four short stories of girlhood written in the flowing style of the author (Page & Co.).



Illustration (reduced) from "The Stories of Peter and Ellen."

The author of the "Little Girl Next Door," Miss Nina Rhodes, gives us this year a new story entitled "Winifred's Neighbors," illustrated by Bertha J. Davidson (Lee & Shepard). Sometimes we are inclined to think that in it the conversations upon unnecessary details drag. On the other hand, its very simplicity must suggest to the child reader verisimilitude to nature. For example, the following dialogue might be overheard from two little girls any day of the year: "I like you better than any little girl I ever knew," said Winifred, in a sudden burst of enthusiasm. "And I like you ever and ever so much, too," responded Lulu. "You must be my intimate friend all winter. Minnie Hunt was my intimate friend last year, but her father went in business out West, so they had to move away."

Mary C. Leonard's "How the Two Ends Met" (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), illustrated by Charles B. Falls, is the story of how the commercial end and the residential end of the Square become friendly through the doings of a little girl.

Winning her way through college and to future prosperity is the theme of Mary McRae Culter's "The Girl Who Kept Up" (Lee & Shepard), illustrated by C. Louise Williams. "The Mislaid Uncle," by Evelyn Raymond (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.), is the story of a human express parcel which comes from California to Baltimore and is delivered to the wrong uncle, but decides to live with him after finding her real uncle has four children of his own.

The Penn Publishing Company's imprint is upon the title page of the following: "In Alaskan Waters," by W. Bert Foster, illustrated by Winfield Lukens; "A Rose of Holly Court," by Elizabeth Lincoln Gould, illustrated by Ida Waugh; "A Quaker Maiden," by Evelyn Raymond, illustrated by Ida Waugh; "A Daughter of the Union," by Lucy Foster Madison, illustrated by Clyde O. Deland; "The Little Lady of the Fort," by Annie M. Barnes, illustrated by Hélène

Wood; "With Ethan Allen at Ticonderoga," by W. Bert Foster, illustrated by F. A. Carter; "Dearie Dot and the Dog," by Julie M. Lippmann, illustrated by Margaret F. Winner, and "In the Camp of the Greeks," by Louis Pendleton, illustrated by F. A. Carter.

Then there are "The Adventures of Dorothy," by Jocelyn Lewis, illustrated by S. M. Stone (Outlook Pub. Co.); "The Green Satin Gown," by Laura E. Richards, illustrated by E. B. Barry (Dana Estes Co.); "My Wonderful Visit," by Elizabeth Hill, illustrated by Beatrice Stevens (Charles Scribner's Sons), and "New Fortunes," by Mabel Earle, illustrated by F. Lowenheim (S. Barnes Co.).

FOR THE LITTLE TOTS.

L'il Wee Tay is a teeney gtrlie, | Ever so small, you know; | Baynte Boy is a weeeny laddie | Jus' getting ready to grow.—GEORGE V. HOBART.

Gertrude Smith, author of the "Roggie and Reggie" series, has written the story of "Peter and Helen," which has been illustrated in colors by the Misses E. Mars and M. H. Squire (Harper Bros.). The author understands how to write for very little folks, repeating her nouns frequently and using short sentences, so that the child reader may not lose its bearings. A story for children of about six to eight, but wherein we fear the sentences are rather telegraphic in their brevity, is "Roger and Rose" and other stories, by Katharine Beebe, illustrated by Katharine H. Greenland (The Saalfeld Pub. Co.). "More Five Minute Stories," by Laura C. Richards, is illustrated by Wallace Goldsmith (Dana Estes & Co.).

For the older children, the young folks proper, we have a goodly supply of wholesome stories. The veteran Sophie May gives another Quinnebassett story entitled "Joy Bells" (Lee & Shepard). Then we have "The Frolicsome Four," by Edith L. and Ariadne Gilbert, illustrated by Josephine Bruce (Lee & Shepard); "Four Little Indians," by Ella Mary Coates, illustrated by W. H.



Illustration (reduced) from "Joy Bells."

Richardson (Henry T. Coates & Co.); "Ship Ashore," by Edward A. Rand, illustrated by Amy Rand (Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye; New York: Eaton & Mains); "Gypsy Jane," by Harriet A. Cheever, illustrated by Bertha G. Davidson (Dana Estes Pub. Co.); "Helen Grant's School Days," by Amanda M. Douglas, illustrated by Amy Brooks (Lee & Shepard); "Dorothy's Playmates" and "Randy and Prue," both by Amy Brooks and illustrated by the author (Lee & Shepard); "A Daughter of the Rich," by M. E. Waller, illustrated by Ellen Bernard Thompson (Little, Brown & Co.), and "The Story Book House," by Honor Walsh, illustrated by J. W. Kennedy (Dana Estes & Co.).



Illustration (reduced) from
"African Forest and Jungle."

Another book by the same author is "Joe the Surveyor," illustrated by A. B. Shute (Lee & Shepard). Then we have "True Blue," by Edward S. Ellis, illustrated by J. W. Kennedy (Dana Estes & Co.); "Young Heroes of Wire and Rail," by Alvah Milton Kerr, illustrated by the Messrs. H. C. Edwards, H. Burgess, J. C. Leyendecker, F. R. Gruger, and Lucius Hitchcock (Lee & Shepard); "Joe's Signal Code," by W. Reiff Hesser, illustrated by Frank T. Merrill (Lee & Shepard); "Following the Ball," by A. T. Dudley, illustrated by Charles Copeland (Lee & Shepard), and "Ahead of the Army," by W. O. Stoddard, illustrated by C. Chase Emerson (Lothrop Pub. Co.).



Illustration (reduced) from
"Baby Days."

PICTURE BOOKS.

Well, if I jus' mus' ast fer one, | I dess I'll take a book.—GEORGE V. HOBART.

Most of the illustrations in the season's books (while it is true they are of a higher order than such illustrations used to be twenty-five years ago) are of the perfunctory kind, as though the publisher considered them a necessary evil, and in many cases of color printing the registering of the plates is so poor that the misplaced outlines suggest that the drawings were sent by picture-telegraphy. But there are a few exceptions the excellence of which calls for special comment. The palm must go to "Rhymes of Real Children," by Betty Sage, with pictures by Jessie Wilcox Smith, the plates are engraved by the Beck Engraving Co., and are beautifully

BOYS' BOOKS.

Tommy Tupper 'mauses me, | Tommy Tupper does; | Tommy Tupper is a boy— | Baddest ever was.—GEORGE V. HOBART.

For boys especially we have but a few books this year; these are mostly about very good boys.

"Two Young Lumbermen," by Edward Stratemeyer, illustrated by A. B. Shute (Lee & Shepard), is a story of the North. The description of lumbering in an Oregon forest gives us an unhackneyed subject with the apparent semblance of truth.



Cover Design (reduced) of "Rhymes of Real Children."

printed by S. H. Burbank & Co., of Philadelphia (New York: Fox, Duffield & Co.).

In "Li'l Verses for Li'l Fellers," by George Vere Hobart, illustrated by E. Mars and M. H. Squire (R. H. Russell), the corn field and cottage beyond, illustrating "Teeney, Weeney Fellers," is an unusually excellent colored illustration. The verse of Mr. Hobart is not like the common rhymes written for children. Like Mr. Riley, he founds each poem upon some true episode in child life, but, as in the case of Mr. Riley's subjects, we fear they are such as will interest the elders rather than the little ones; and moreover, the vernacular of the German and negro verses is not easy for a child to comprehend. But there are true scenes of child drama depicted in most of Mr. Hobart's verses, as one will observe in the excerpts we make for our department headings.

Denslow's picture books come to us this year not in



Illustration (reduced) from "Young Whalers."



Illustration (reduced) from "The Romance of Cinderella."

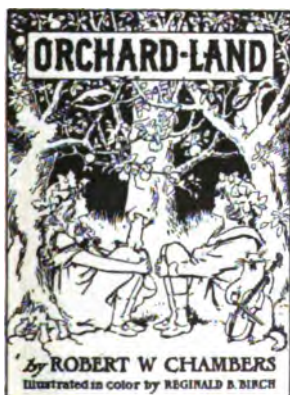
thick volumes, as they have for the last four years, but he gives us twelve small books, each devoted to some nursery favorite like "Humpty Dumpty," "Mother Hubbard," and "Tom Thumb." In the last named we think Mr. Denslow does his best; but sometimes, as in "Mary Had a Little Lamb," horseplay is substituted for grace.

We presume there is a *clientèle* who look forward, each holiday season, to the annuals "Chatterbox," published by Dana Estes & Co. (a little behind the time in the pictures), and "Sunday," published by Thomas Nelson & Son. They certainly give great variety, but a more refining influence would surely come from "Baby Days" pictures and texts mostly from *St. Nicholas*, published by the Century Co.

NATURE AND ANIMAL BOOKS.

That Squirrel was a-resting with his head upon his paw, | A-flying came a Mister Crow and cawed an awful caw.—GEORGE V. HOBART.

The most charming, natural, style is found in "Orchard-Land," by Robert Chambers, illustrated in color by Reginald Birch (Harper Bros.). Geraldine and Peter meet a chipmunk, who says: "Geraldine, you asked me where I lived; I live in a hole in the ground. Some people call me a ground squirrel, others a hacker, others a chipmunk, and still others a chipmunk. So there you are, children. Take your choice." Again, a bat, after flying about, says he has been eating. "'Eating what?' asked Geraldine. The bat replied: 'Eating mosquitoes, midges, flies, moths, and occasionally a tender beetle. Didn't you know I eat while flying? Did you think I took those dipping, soaring, jerky flights for exercise? Has nobody told you that I am chasing insects which try to dodge me, and that's the reason I flutter about in such an eccentric manner?'" Here, certainly, is a pleasant way for children to learn natural history.



Cover design (reduced) of "Orchard-Land."

An admirable piece of book-making is a bird story entitled "Song of the Cardinal," by Gene Stratton-Porter, illustrated by the author from photographs (Bobbs-Merrill Co.).

"Æsop's Fables in Rhyme for Children," by Richardson D. White and Margaret D. Longley (Saalfield Pub. Co.), can be enumerated among the attractive picture books, for Mr. Bull, though poor as a figure



Illustration (reduced) from "Maisie and Her Dog in Fairyland."

draughtsman, is one of our most original animal draughtsmen, and his treatment of such subjects as "The Fox and the Grapes," "The Shepherd Boy," "The Hares and the Frogs," and "Belling the Cat" is worthy of the foremost masters of illustrating; his drawings are full of go, and are decorative in arrangement.

"In the Magic Forest," a modern fairy story, by Steward Edward White (The Macmillan Co.), visions of Indian life are brought before little Jimmy Ferris.

While the animal books this year are not as many as usual, the few published are for the most part well written. Among these there are "Big Jack" and other true stories of horses, by Gabrielle E. Jackson, and "The Story of a Cat," by the same author, both published by J. F. Taylor & Co.; "Rover's Story," by Helena Higginbotham, illustrated by the author and from photographs (Lee & Shepard), and "Two Little Savages," by Ernest Thompson Seton, illustrated by the author (Doubleday, Page & Co.).

OLD-TIME FAIRY TALES.

I vonder if der fairies come | Down py der moonlight vay, | Und den mit him some preddy games | Dey go to vork und play.—GEORGE V. HOBART.



Illustration (reduced) from "Robin Hood, His Book."

Of course, there is a fair percentage of books, as usual, wherein the classic fairy tales are reprinted with new illustrations, or rewritten. We presume the judicious parents will select first, among these, "The Crimson Fairy Book," by Andrew Lang, illustrated by H. J. Ford (Longmans, Green & Co.), because of the popularity of this chromatic series, and because of the reputation of the editor. Despite the latter recommendation, however, there is some dubious English to be found in the pages; and we are



Illustration (reduced) from "The Crimson Fairy Book."

not sure that certain grewsome details that enter into the narratives are quite the best pabulum for youthful minds. Here is an example: "The king ordered his servants to take the boy into the forest and to kill him there, and to bring back part of his liver and lungs." How much of this folklore barbarity is good for twentieth-century young folks, we wonder.

"The Romance of Cinderella," written in good old ballad verse by Ella N. Boulton, illustrated by Beatrice Stevens, is issued sumptuously by R. H. Russell. The printing of the illustrations on page 77 is a rare accomplishment in the combining of delicate printing inks. The title page is knowingly composed, but the original was evidently drawn on too large a scale. In reduction it is hardly legible.

Again sumptuous in form is the large volume from the Outlook Company entitled "The Outlook Fairybook for Little People," by Laura Winnington, illustrated by J. Conacher, containing translations from many foreign writers.



Illustration (reduced) from "Æsop's Fables in Rhyme for Children."

Classics from the German figure also in "Tales from Wonderland," by Rudolph Baumbach, translated by Helen R. Dole, adapted for American children by William L. M. Silber (A. Lovell & Co.).



Cover design (reduced) of "The Enchanted Island of Yew."

NONSENSE BOOKS.

Just West of the Earth and East of the Moon. | Where the Elephant sings and whistles a tune, | Where the Taggers are tame and the Lions bow-wow, | Where the Monkey Bird hops from bough to bough.—GEORGE V. HOBART.



Illustration (reduced) from "Molly and the Unwiseman."

The books of impossible stories which should be called by courtesy, we presume, fairy stories, receive special attention from the publishers this year. "Molly and the Unwiseman," by John Kendrick Bangs, illustrated by Albert Levering and Clarke V. Dwiggin (Henry T. Coates & Co.), is replete with nonsense of the kind for which the author has won a national reputation. The illustrations are cleverly drawn. Then there are "Six Giants and a Griffin," by Birdsall Otis Edey, with full-page pictures by Beatrice Baxter Ruyll (R. H. Russell); "The Fairies' Circus," by Neville Cain (R. H. Russell); "The Surprising Adventures of the Man in the Moon," by R. M. Steward, illustrated by L. J. Bridgeman (Lee & Shepard), and "Twilight Tales Told to Tiny Tots," by Anita D. Rosecrans, illustrated by L. J. Bridgeman (T. Y. Crowell & Co.).

L. Frank Baum, the author of the immensely popular comic opera "The Wizard of Oz," understands thoroughly the value of dovetailing the events in a story so that they form a romance with a beginning, a middle, and an end, and this year no less than four books come from his pen, though only one of them, "The Enchanted Island of Yew," illustrated by Fanny Y. Cory, bears the recent copyright date of 1903. The others are "The New Wizard of Oz," illustrated by W. W. Denslow, copyrighted 1899; "The Magical Monarch of Mo," illustrated by Frank Verbeck, copyrighted 1900 by R. H. Russell, and "The Life and Adventures of Santa Claus," illustrated by Mary Cowles Clark, copyrighted 1902. These books are now all published by the Bobbs-Merrill Co.

Of course, the children expect a new "Golliwogg" book, and of course the publishers, Longmans, Green & Co., see to it that the book is well printed, so we have "The Golliwogg Circus," pictured by Florence K. Upton, verses by Bertha Upton. Fox, Duffield & Co. issue a book exceptionally pleasing in its novelty, in which the illustrations are dolls and things diminutive, illustrating "The Life of a Wooden Doll," verses by Louis Saxby.



Illustration (reduced) from "The Golliwogg's Circus."

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This book may be kept a calendar month, subject to a
fine of FIVE CENTS A DAY thereafter.

